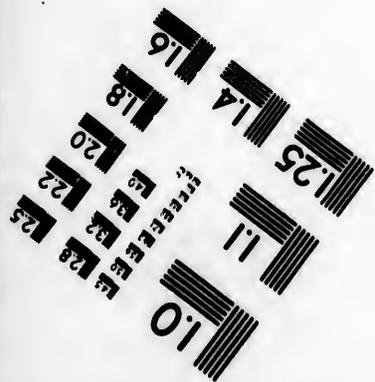
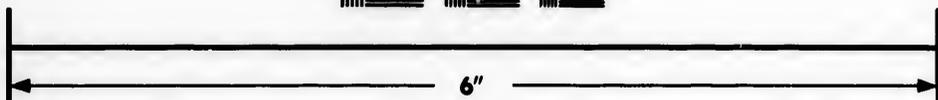
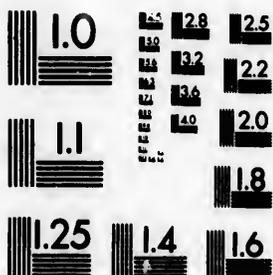


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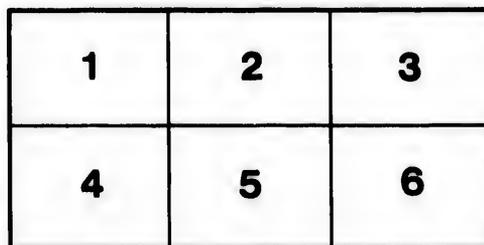
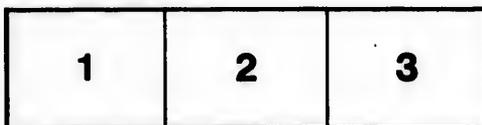
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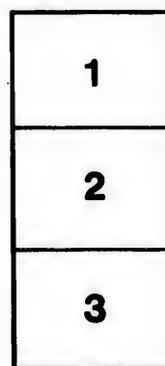
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A DICTIONARY,

PRACTICAL, THEORETICAL, AND HISTORICAL,

OF

COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

BY J. R. M'CULLOCH, Esq.

EDITED BY HENRY VETHAKE, LL. D.

ONE OF THE PROFESSORS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA; MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY; AUTHOR OF A TREATISE ON POLITICAL ECONOMY, ETC

WITH AN APPENDIX, CONTAINING
THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH
THE TARIFF OF 1842,
REDUCED TO AD VALOREM RATES AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE.

ALSO,

THE SUB-TREASURY, WAREHOUSING, AND THE CANADIAN
TRANSIT BILLS, OF 1846.

LIKEWISE,

THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF,
AS AMENDED BY THE PASSAGE OF THE NEW CORN LAW AND SUGAR DUTIES.

WITH

A TABLE OF ALL FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COIN,
REDUCED TO FEDERAL CURRENCY, &c. &c. &c.

IN TWO VOLUMES.—VOL. II.

PHILADELPHIA:
A. HART, LATE CAREY AND HART,
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1852.

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

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JONSON, Preface to Rolfe's Dict.

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JALAP, or **JALOP**, a sort of convolvulus, root, when brought to blackish colour on the hardest and darkest should be rejected.

Its taste is exceeding Med.; Brande's Pharm.

average of 1831 and 1832.

JAMAICA PEPPER

JAPANNED WARE (*chandelises de Japon*),

snuff-boxes, &c. covered with lacquer, or gilding.

Birmingham is famous for gilding to a great extent.

Polished iron is at present continually success at Bilston and Birmingham.

JASPER (Ger. *Jas*).

This stone is an ingrain of a large amorphous mass.

Its specific gravity from 2.3 to 2.5.

It is usually divided into white, red, and black jasper, and common jasper.

JERSEY. See **GUINNY**.

JET, or **PITCH**.

It is *Gagata*, *Lustrino*, &c.

plates; sometimes in internal lustrous shining.

It is used for fuel, and is cut into amber, and is cut into choidal fractures.

—(*Th*) **JETSAM**. See **FLOTTING**.

IMPORTATION. See **TRADE**.

them to other countries, and from customs duties, or being given on many, and exportation is subject to regulations referred to,

who would avoid incurring regulations referred to,

A

DICTIONARY

OF

C O M M E R C E

AND

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

I. AND J.

JALAP, or **JALOP** (Ger. *Jalapp*; Fr. *Jalap*; It. *Sciarappa*; Sp. *Jalapa*), the root of a sort of convolvulus, so named from Xalapa, in Mexico, whence we chiefly import it. The root, when brought to this country, is in thin transverse slices, solid, hard, weighty, of a blackish colour on the outside, and internally of a dark grey, with black circular strimæ. The hardest and darkest coloured is the best; that which is light, spongy, and pale coloured, should be rejected. The odour of jalap, especially when in powder, is very characteristic. Its taste is exceedingly nauseous, accompanied by a sweetish bitterness.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Brandé's Pharmacy*.) The entries of jalap for home consumption amounted, at an average of 1831 and 1832, to 47,816 lbs. a year.

JAMAICA PEPPER. See **PIXEPTO**.

JAPANED WARES (Ger. *Japanische ware*; Du. *Japansch lakwerk*; Fr. *Marchandises de Japon*), articles of every description, such as tea-trays, clock-dials, candlesticks, snuff-boxes, &c. covered with coats of japan, whether plain, or embellished with painting or gilding. Birmingham is the grand staple of this manufacture, which is there carried on to a great extent. Pontypool, in Monmouthshire, was formerly famous for jappanning; but it is at present continued there on a very small scale only. It is prosecuted with spirit and success at Bilston and Wolverhampton.

JASPER (Ger. *Jaspis*; Du. *Jaspis*; Fr. *Jaspe*; It. *Diaspro*; Sp. *Jaspe*; Rus. *Jaschma*). This stone is an ingredient in the composition of many mountains. It occurs usually in large amorphous masses, sometimes in round or angular pieces; its fracture is conchoidal; specific gravity from 2 to 2.7. Its colours are various; when heated it does not decrepitate: it is usually divided into four species, denominated Egyptian jasper, striped jasper, porcelain jasper, and common jasper. It is sometimes employed by jewellers in the formation of seals.

JERSEY. See **GUZANSKY**.

JET, or **PITCH COAL** (Du. *Git*, *Zwarte barnsteen*; Fr. *Jais*, *Jayet*; Ger. *Gagat*; It. *Gagata*, *Lustrino*; Lat. *Gagus*, *Gagates*), of a black velvet colour, occurs massive, in plates; sometimes in the shape of branches of trees, but without a regular woody texture. Internal lustre shining, resinous, soft; rather brittle; easily frangible; specific gravity 1.3. It is used for fuel, and for making vessels and snuff-boxes. In Prussia it is called black amber, and is cut into rosaries and necklaces. It is distinguished by its brilliancy, and conchoidal fracture.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

JETSAM. See **FLOTSAM**.

IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, the bringing of commodities from and sending them to other countries. A very large portion of the revenue of Great Britain being derived from customs duties, or from duties on commodities imported from abroad; and drawbacks being given on many, and bounties on a few articles exported; the business of importation and exportation is subjected to various regulations, which must be carefully observed by those who would avoid incurring penalties, and subjecting their property to confiscation. The regulations referred to, have been embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52., which is subjoined

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

No Goods to be landed nor Bulk broken before Report and Entry.—No goods shall be unladen from any ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port or place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, nor shall bulk be broken after the arrival of such ship within 4 leagues of the coast thereof, before due report of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and warrant granted, in manner herein-after directed; and no goods shall be so unladen except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods not duly reported, or which shall be unladen contrary hereto, shall be forfeited; and if bulk be broken contrary hereto, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100l.; and if, after the arrival of any ship within 4 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, any alteration be made in the stowage of the cargo of such ship, so as to facilitate the unloading of any part of such cargo, or if any part be staved, destroyed, or thrown overboard, or any package be opened, such ship shall be deemed to have broken bulk; provided always, that the several articles herein-after enumerated may be landed in the United Kingdom without report, entry, or warrant; (that is to say,) diamonds and bullion, fresh fish of British taking, and imported in British ships, turbot and lobsters fresh, however taken or imported.—§ 2.

MANIFEST.

All British Ships, and all Ships with Tobacco, to have Manifests.—No goods shall be imported into the United Kingdom, or into the Isle of Man, from parts beyond the seas, in any British ship, nor any tobacco in any ship, unless the master shall have on board a manifest of such goods or of such tobacco, made out; dated, and signed by him at the place or respective places where the same or the different parts of the same was or were taken on board, and authenticated in the manner herein-after provided; and every such manifest shall set forth the name and the tonnage of the ship, the name of the master and of the place to which the ship belongs, and of the place or places where the goods were taken on board respectively, and of the place or places for which they are destined respectively, and shall contain a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, and the sorts of goods and different kinds of each sort contained therein, to the best of the master's knowledge, and of the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, and the names of the respective shippers and consignees, as far as the same can be known to the master; and of such particular account shall be subjoined a general account or recapitulation of the total number of the packages of each sort, describing the same by their usual names, or by such descriptions as the same can best be known by, and the different goods therein, and also the total quantities of the different goods stowed loose; provided always, that every manifest for tobacco shall be a separate manifest distinct from any manifest for any other goods, and shall, without fail, contain the particular weight of tobacco in each hoghead, cask, chest, or case, with the tare of the same; and if such tobacco be the produce of the dominions of the Grand Seigneur, then the number of parcels or bundles within any such hoghead, cask, chest, or case, shall be stated in such manifest.—§ 3.

To be produced to Officers in Colonies, &c.—Before any ship shall be cleared out or depart from any place in any of the British possessions abroad, or from any place in China, with any goods for the United Kingdom or for the Isle of Man, the master of such ship shall produce the manifest to the collector or comptroller of the customs, or other proper officer, who shall certify upon the same the date of the production thereof to him; provided always, that in all places within the territorial possessions of the East India Company the servant of the said Company by whom the last despatches of such ship shall be delivered shall be the proper officer to authenticate the manifest as aforesaid; and in all places in China the chief supercargo of the said Company shall be the proper officer for such purpose.—§ 4.

To be produced to Consuls.—Before the departure of any ship from any place beyond the seas not under the British dominions, where any tobacco has been taken on board such ship for the United Kingdom or for the Isle of Man, the master of such ship shall produce the manifest of such tobacco to the British consul or other chief British officer, if there be any such resident at or near such place; and such consul or other officer shall certify upon the same the date of the production thereof to him.—§ 5.

If wanting, Master to forfeit 100l.—If any goods be imported into the United Kingdom or into the Isle of Man, in any British ship, or any tobacco in any ship, without such a manifest, or if any goods contained in such manifest be not on board, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100l.—§ 6.

Manifest to be produced within 4 Leagues.—The master of every ship required to have a manifest on board shall produce such manifest to any officer of the customs who shall come on board his ship after her arrival within 4 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the coast of the Isle of Man, and who shall demand the same, for his inspection; and such master shall also deliver to any such officer who shall be the first to demand it, a true copy of such manifest signed by the master; and shall also deliver another copy to any other officer of the customs who shall be the first to demand the same within the limits of the port to which such ship is bound; and thereupon such officers respectively shall notify on such manifest and on such copies the date of the production of such manifest and of the receipt of such copies, and shall transmit such copies to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such vessel is first bound, and shall return such manifest to the master; and if such master shall not in any case produce such manifest, or deliver such copy, he shall forfeit the sum of 100l.—§ 7.

REPORT.

Master, within 24 Hours, and before breaking Bulk, shall report.—The master of every ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, whether laden or in ballast, shall, within 24 hours after such arrival, and before bulk be broken, make due report of such ship, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth of the same, before the collector or comptroller of such port; and such report shall contain an account of the particular marks, numbers, and contents of all the different packages or parcels of the goods on board such ship, and the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, to the best of his knowledge, and of the place or places where such goods were respectively taken on board, and of the burden of such ship, and of the country where such ship was built, or, if British, of the port of registry, and of the country of the people to whom such ship belongs, and of the name and country of the person who was master during the voyage, and of the number of the people by whom such ship was navigated, stating how many are subjects of the country to which such ship belongs, and how many are of some other country; and in such report it shall be further declared, whether and in what cases such ship has broken bulk in the course of her voyage, and what part of the cargo, if any, is intended for importation at such port, and what part, if any, is intended for importation at another port in the United Kingdom, or at another port in the Isle of Man respectively, and what part, if any, is prohibited to be imported, except to be warehoused for exportation only, and what part, if any, is intended for exportation in such ship to parts beyond the seas, and what surplus stores or stock remain on board such ship, and, if a British ship, what foreign-made sails or cordage, not being standing or running rigging, are in use on board such ship; and the master of any ship, who shall fail to make such report, or who shall make a false report, shall forfeit the sum of 100l.—§ 8.

Masters of Vessels of every vessel and person or persons be state, in the report of and any such master owner or owners of to enter into bond to extra-parochial or of other place may be p and any such master sum of 200l.—§ 2.

Packages reported as aforesaid by the master as being examined such packages if there be found in such packages to be forfeited; or if the duties of importation consideration of the same fit to deliver the same.

Master to deliver the manifest to the collector required, and, if required, and a true copy all such questions relating to the collector or comptroller questions, or to answer bill of lading, or copy, expressed therein shall uttered or produced by been received or made bill of lading or copy of 100l.—§ 11.

Part of Cargo reported is required he reports port in the Isle of Man been delivered shall of ship.—§ 12.

Ship to comply with the knowledge of of such ship, provided places to be the proper ships only shall be moored ships shall not be without charged shall remain at the master shall in either

Officers to board Ships arriving at any port in the goods laden therein free access to every box before landing, and to any place, or any box superior to (clean-on power; and if it be officer, who may open power; and if any of the officers shall place be willfully opened, and secretly conveyed away opened, the master of a

National Ships, British or foreign 100l.—If any arriving as aforesaid at goods laden in parts be of such ship or of such ship, or when called upon his hand, to the best of goods, and of the marks signs of the same, and to the truth thereof, concerning such goods as or other person shall of merchant ships are listed ships, and bring from of ship as aforesaid; and His Majesty shall from treasury of the United Kingdom

Master to deliver list at any port in the United Kingdom, within 10 days of and descriptions of the crew of the ship who has deserted or died to each seaman so dying to the truth thereof; and shall be kept by the collector

Masters of Vessels coming from Africa to report how many Natives they have on board.—The master of every vessel coming from the coast of Africa, and having taken on board at any place in Africa any person or persons being or appearing to be natives of Africa, shall, in addition to all other matters, state, in the report of his vessel, how many such persons have been taken on board by him in Africa; and any such master failing herein shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; provided also, that the master or owner or owners of such vessel, or some one of them, at the time of making such report, be required to enter into bond to his Majesty in the sum of 100*l.*, conditioned to keep harmless any parish, or any extra-parochial or other place maintaining its own poor, against any expense which such parish or other place may be put to in supporting any such person during their stay in the United Kingdom; and any such master, owner or owners refusing or neglecting to enter into such bond shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 9.

Packages reported "Contents unknown," may be opened and examined.—If the contents of any packages so intended as aforesaid for exportation in the same ship to parts beyond the seas shall be reported by the master as being unknown to him, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to open and examine such packages on board, or to bring the same to the king's warehouse for that purpose; and if there be found in such package any goods which may not be entered for home use, such goods shall be forfeited; or if the goods be such as may be entered for home use, the same shall be chargeable with the duties of importation; unless in either case the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, in consideration of the sort or quality of such goods, or the small rate of duty payable thereon, shall see fit to deliver the same for exportation.—§ 10.

Master to deliver Manifest, &c.—The master of every ship shall, at the time of making such report, deliver to the collector or comptroller the manifest of the cargo of such ship, where a manifest is required, and, if required by the collector or comptroller, shall produce to him any bill or bills of lading, or a true copy thereof, for any and every part of the cargo laden on board; and shall answer all such questions relating to the ship and cargo, and crew and voyage, as shall be put to him by such collector or comptroller; and in case of failure or refusal to produce such manifest, or to answer such questions, or to answer them truly, or to produce such bill of lading or copy, or if such manifest, or bill of lading, or copy, shall be false, or if any bill of lading be uttered by any master, and the goods expressed therein shall not have been *bona fide* shipped on board such ship, or if any bill of lading uttered or produced by any master shall not have been signed by him, or any such copy shall not have been received or made by him previously to his leaving the place where the goods expressed in such bill of lading or copy were shipped, then and in every such case such master shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 11.

Part of Cargo reported for another Port.—If any part of the cargo of any ship for which a manifest is required be reported for importation at some other port in the United Kingdom, or at some other port in the Isle of Man, the collector and comptroller of the port at which some part of the cargo has been delivered shall notify such delivery on the manifest, and return the same to the master of such ship.—§ 12.

Ship to come quickly to Place of Unloading, &c.—Every ship shall come as quickly up to the proper place of mooring or unloading as the nature of the port will admit, and without touching at any other place; and in proceeding to such place shall bring to at stations appointed by the commissioners of customs for the boarding of ships by the officers of the customs; and after arrival at such place of mooring or unloading such ship shall not remove from such place except directly to some other proper place, and with the knowledge of the proper officer of the customs, on penalty of 100*l.*, to be paid by the master of such ship; provided always, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to appoint places to be the proper places for the mooring or unloading of ships importing tobacco, and where such ships only shall be moored or unladen; and in case the place so appointed for the unloading of such ships shall not be within some dock surrounded with walls, if any such ship after having been discharged shall remain at such place, or if any ship not importing tobacco shall be moored at such place, the master shall in either case forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 13.

Officers to board Ships.—It shall be lawful for the proper officers of the customs to board any ship arriving at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, and freely to stay on board until all the goods laden therein shall have been duly delivered from the same; and such officers shall have free access to every part of the ship, with power to fasten down hatchways, and to mark any goods before landing, and to lock up, seal, mark, or otherwise secure any goods on board such ship; and if any place, or any box or chest, be locked, and the keys be withheld, such officers, if they be of a degree superior to lieutenant or watermen, may open any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in their power; and if they be lieutenant or watermen, or only of that degree, they shall send for their superior officer, who may open or cause to be opened any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in his power; and if any goods be found concealed on board any such ship, they shall be forfeited; and if the officers shall place any lock, mark, or seal upon any goods on board, and such lock, mark, or seal be wilfully opened, altered, or broken before due delivery of such goods, or if any of such goods be secretly conveyed away, or if the hatchways, after having been fastened down by the officers, be opened, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 14.

*National Ships, British or Foreign, having Goods on board, Person in charge to deliver an Account, or Forfeit 100*l.**—If any ship (having commission from his Majesty, or from any foreign prince or state) arriving as aforesaid at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man shall have on board any goods laden in parts beyond the seas, the captain, master, purser, or other person having the charge of such ship or of such goods for that voyage, shall, before any part of such goods be taken out of such ship, or when called upon so to do by any officer of the customs, deliver an account in writing under his hand, to the best of his knowledge, of the quality and quantity of every package or parcel of such goods, and of the marks and numbers thereon, and of the names of the respective shippers and consignees of the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration at the foot of such account, declaring to the truth thereof, and shall also truly answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning such goods as shall be required of him; and on failure thereof, such captain, master, purser, or other person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and all such ships shall be liable to such searches as merchant ships are liable to; and the officers of the customs may freely enter and go on board all such ships, and bring from thence on shore into the king's warehouse any goods found on board any such ship as aforesaid; subject nevertheless to such regulations in respect of ships of war belonging to his Majesty as shall from time to time be directed in that respect by the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—§ 15.

Master to deliver List of Crew of Ships from West Indies.—The master of every British ship arriving at any port in the United Kingdom, on her return from any British possession in the West Indies, shall, within 10 days of such arrival, deliver to the collector or comptroller a list, containing the names and descriptions of the crew which was on board at the time of clearing from the United Kingdom, and of the crew on board at the time of arrival in any of the said possessions, and of every seaman who has deserted or died during the voyage, and also the amount of wages due at the time of his death to each seaman so dying, and shall make and subscribe a declaration at the foot of such list, declaring to the truth thereof; and every master omitting so to do, shall forfeit the sum of 50*l.*; and such list shall be kept by the collector for the inspection of all persons interested therein.—§ 16.

ENTRY.

After 14 Days, Officer may land Goods not entered, &c.—Every importer of any goods shall, within 14 days after the arrival of the ship importing the same, make perfect entry inwards of such goods, or entry by bill of lading, in manner herein-after provided, and shall within such time land the same; and in default of such entry and landing it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such goods to the king's warehouse; and whenever the cargo of any ship shall have been discharged, with the exception only of a small quantity of goods, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such remaining goods, and at any time to convey any small packages or parcels of goods, to the king's warehouse, although such 14 days shall not have expired, there to be kept waiting the due entry thereof during the remainder of such 14 days; and if the duties due upon any goods so conveyed to the king's warehouse shall not be paid within 3 months after such 14 days shall have expired, together with all charges of removal and warehouse rent, the same shall be sold, and the produce thereof shall be applied, first to the payment of freight and charges, next of duties, and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods.—§ 17.

Bill of Entry to be delivered.—The person entering any goods inwards (whether for payment of duty, or to be warehoused upon the first perfect entry thereof, or for payment of duty upon the taking out of the warehouse, or whether such goods be free of duty,) shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry of such goods, fairly written in words at length, expressing the name of the ship, and of the master of the ship in which the goods were imported, and of the place from whence they were brought, and the description and situation of the warehouse, if they are to be warehoused, and the name of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantity and description of the goods, and the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the goods, and in the margin of such bill shall delineate the respective marks and numbers of such packages, and shall pay down any duties which may be payable upon the goods mentioned in such entry; and such person shall also deliver at the same time 2 or more duplicates, as the case may require, of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be written and arranged in such form and manner, and the number of such duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such bill being duly signed by the collector and comptroller, and transmitted to the landing waiter, shall be the warrant to him for the landing or delivering of such goods.—§ 18.

Unauthorized Persons not permitted to make Entries.—Every person who shall make or cause to be made any such entry inwards of any goods, not being duly authorized thereto by the proprietor or consignee of such goods, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; provided always, that no such penalty shall extend or be deemed to extend to any person acting under the direction of the several dock companies or other corporate bodies authorized by law to pass entries.—§ 19.

Not valid unless agreeing with Manifest, Report, and other Documents.—No entry nor any warrant for the landing of any goods, or for the taking of any goods out of any warehouse, shall be deemed valid, unless the particulars of the goods and packages in such entry shall correspond with the particulars of the goods and packages, purporting to be the same, in the report of the ship, and in the manifest, where a manifest is required, and in the certificate or other document, where any is required, by which the importation or entry of such goods is authorized, nor unless the goods shall have been properly described in such entry by the denominations and with the characters and circumstances according to which such goods are charged with duty or may be imported, either to be used in the United Kingdom, or to be warehoused for exportation only; and any goods taken or delivered out of any ship, or out of any warehouse, or for the delivery of which or for any order for the delivery of which, from any warehouse, demand shall have been made, not having been duly entered, shall be forfeited.—§ 20.

Goods by Number, Measure, or Weight, &c.—If the goods in such entry be charged to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, such number, measure, or weight shall be stated in the entry; and if the goods in such entry be charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be stated in the entry, and shall be affirmed by the declaration of the importer or his known agent, written upon the entry, and attested by his signature; and if the goods in such entry be chargeable at the option of the officers of customs, either according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, or according to the value thereof, then as well such number, measure, or weight, as also such value, shall be in like manner stated in the entry, and attested; and if any person make such declaration, not being the importer or proprietor of such goods, nor his agent duly authorized by him, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and such declaration shall be made in manner and form following, and shall be binding upon the person by or in behalf of whom the same shall be made; (that is to say),

"I, A. B. of [place of abode] do hereby declare, that I am [the importer or authorised by the importer] of the goods contained in this entry, and that I enter the same [stating which, if partly] at the sum of _____ day of _____ 18__.

"A. B."—§ 21.

Goods undervalued, Officers may detain.—If upon examination it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods are not valued according to the true value thereof, it shall be lawful for such officers to detain and secure such goods, and (within 5 days from the landing thereof if it be in the ports of London, Leith, or Dublin, or within 7 days if in any other port in the United Kingdom, or if in any port in the Isle of Man,) to take such goods for the use of the Crown; and if a different rate of duty shall be charged upon any goods according as the value of the same shall be described in the entry to be above or to be below any particular price or sum, and such goods shall be valued in the entry so as to be liable to the lower rate of duty, and it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods, by reason of their real value, are properly liable to the higher rate of duty, it shall be lawful for such officers in like manner to take such goods for the use of the Crown; and the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall thereupon in any of such cases cause the amount of such valuation, together with an addition of 10*l.* per cent. thereon, and also the duties paid upon such entry, to be paid to the importer or proprietor of such goods in full satisfaction for the same, and shall dispose of such goods for the benefit of the Crown; and if the produce of such sale shall exceed the sums so paid and all charges incurred by the Crown, one moiety of the overplus shall be given to the officer or officers who had detained and taken the goods; and the money retained for the benefit of the Crown shall be paid into the hands of the collector of the customs, with the knowledge of the comptroller, and carried to account as duties of customs.—§ 22.

East India Company to sell Goods.—The value of goods imported by the East India Company shall be ascertained at the gross price at which the same shall have been sold by auction at the public sales of the said Company; and that the said Company shall fairly and openly expose to sale and cause to be sold all such goods so charged to pay duty according to the value thereof by way of public auction in the city of London, within 3 years from the importation thereof, and shall give due notice at the Custom-house in London to the officers appointed to attend such sales of the time and place thereof.—§ 23.

Bill of Sight if Goods be not known.—If the importer of any goods, or his agent after full conference with him, shall declare before the collector or comptroller that he cannot for want of full information

make a full or perfect entry thereof, it shall be lawful for the collector or parcels of such goods thereupon, in order that such importer, in presence of the collector, the importer of which shall be due and for the purpose of the full or perfect entry thereof; provided that such goods shall be provisionally landed as if they were required for the due landing thereof, and shall be sold if such goods shall have been deposited to be payable on the goods in value of the warrant exceed the sum so deposited.

Goods to be taken to King's Warehouse.—If such goods shall be taken to the king's warehouse within 1 month after such entry, or on such public warehouse rent, such goods as cannot be entered shall be taken to the king's warehouse, and the duties thereon shall be paid.

East India Company may make Entries.—The East India Company, with the consent of the Board, may within 3 months after the expiration of the duties thereon pay the duties thereon if such goods be charged from the sale of the goods or weight thereof, then to the importation of such goods such goods shall be secured by the collector, and the customs shall require, unless they have been duly paid, or until they are for any other person who shall import such goods in like manner as any goods imported by the East India Company, with the consent of the Board, may be secured.

In default of Payment.—If the duties on any goods aforesaid, or of due entry thereof, shall be respectively required, it shall be lawful for the collector of such goods in respect of such duties, (or for exportation of such goods) to detain the same until the duties thereon shall be paid to the proprietor thereof.

Goods landed by Bill of Lading.—If any goods have been landed by bill of lading in any parcel concealed in any parcel as well as all such goods as are things contained in such parcels.

East India Company to account for Goods.—The East India Company shall be liable to account of the duties of the said receiver-general shall be accounted for to the collector of the customs, and shall be paid to him as cash.—§ 29.

Goods damaged on Voyage.—If any goods shall be damaged during the voyage, and such goods shall be received; provided proof of such damage shall be given to the officers of customs, and such goods shall be valued in the United Kingdom; and if such goods shall be the first examination of such goods.

Officers to examine Damaged Goods.—The officers of customs shall thereupon examine of damage which, in the statement of duties; but if the importer be not satisfied with the valuation of such goods, two indifferent merchants shall be chosen to make the same, and shall make a judgment of such goods as to the value of the customs may make by such merchants.—§ 30.

No Abatement for cartage.—No abatement for cartage received by any of the said pepper, currants, raisins, &c.

Returned Goods.—If any goods of any country, any goods from the United Kingdom, or any goods exported therefrom, shall be re-exported therefrom, the account the same have to be made of the date of the exportation

make a full or perfect entry of such goods, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth thereof, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to receive an entry by bill of sight for the packages or parcels of such goods by the best description which can be given, and to grant a warrant thereupon, in order that the same may be provisionally landed, and may be seen and examined by such importer, in presence of the proper officers; and within 3 days after any goods shall have been so landed, the importer shall make a full or perfect entry thereof, and shall either pay down all duties which shall be due and payable upon such goods, or shall duly warehouse the same, according to the purport of the full or perfect entry or entries so made for such goods, or for the several parts or sorts thereof: provided always, that if, when full or perfect entry be at any time made for any goods provisionally landed as aforesaid by bill of sight, such entry shall not be made in manner herein-before required for the due landing of goods, such goods shall be deemed to be goods landed without due entry thereof, and shall be subject to the like forfeiture accordingly: provided also, that if any sum of money shall have been deposited upon any entry by bill of sight, on account of the duties which may be found to be payable on the goods intended therein, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to deliver, in virtue of the warrant for landing the same, any quantity of goods the duty on which shall not exceed the sum so deposited. — § 24.

Goods to be taken to King's Warehouse.—In default of perfect entry within such 3 days, such goods shall be taken to the king's warehouse by the officers of the customs; and if the importer shall not, within 1 month after such landing, make perfect entry or entries of such goods and pay the duties thereon, or on such parts as can be entered for home use, together with charges of removal and of warehouse rent, such goods shall be sold for payment of such duties (or for exportation, if they be such as cannot be entered for home use, or shall not be worth the duties and charges,) and for the payment of such charges; and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the importer or proprietor thereof. — § 25.

East India Company may enter by Bill of Sight.—It shall be lawful for the East India Company, without making the proof herein-before required, to enter by bill of sight, to be landed and secured in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall require, any goods imported by them, and also any goods imported by any other person from places within the limits of the charter of the said Company, with the consent of such person, upon condition to cause perfect entry to be made of such goods within 3 months from the date of the importation thereof, either to warehouse the same or to pay the duties thereon within the times and in the manner herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,) if such goods be charged to pay duty according to the value, then to pay such duty within 4 months from the sale of the goods; and if such goods be charged to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, then to pay one moiety of such duties within 6 calendar months from the time of the importation of such goods, and the other moiety within 12 calendar months from such time; and such goods shall be secured in such pieces and in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall require, until the same shall have been duly entered, and the duties thereon shall have been duly paid, or until the same shall have been duly exported: provided also, that it shall be lawful for any other person who shall have imported any goods from places within the said limits into the port of London in like manner to enter such goods by bill of sight in his own name, upon giving sufficient security by bond, to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, with the like conditions as are required of the said Company for making perfect entries, and for the securing and the paying of duties, provided such goods be entered by such bill of sight to be warehoused in some warehouse under the superintendence of the said Company, and in which goods imported by the said Company may be secured in the manner before mentioned. — § 26.

In default of Payment of Duties, Goods to be sold.—In default of perfect entry within 3 months as aforesaid, or of due entry and payment of duty within the times and in the manner herein-before respectively required, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to cause any such goods in respect of which such default shall have been made to be sold for the payment of such duties, (or for exportation, if they be such as cannot be entered for home use,) and for the payment of all charges incurred by the Crown in respect of such goods; and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor thereof. — § 27.

Goods landed by Bill of Sight fraudulently concealed, forfeited.—When any package or parcel shall have been landed by bill of sight, and any goods or other things shall be found in such package or parcel concealed in any way, or packed with intent to deceive the officers of his Majesty's customs, as well all such goods and other things as the package or parcel in which they are found, and all other things contained in such package or parcel, shall be forfeited. — § 28.

East India Company to pay Duties to Receiver-general.—The East India Company shall pay into the hands of the receiver-general of the customs every sum of money due from the said Company on account of the duties of customs at the respective times when the same shall become due; and the said receiver-general shall give to the said Company a receipt for the monies so paid, on the account of the collector of the customs, which receipt, when delivered to such collector, shall be received by him as cash. — § 29.

Goods damaged on Voyages.—Any goods which are rated to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof (except certain goods herein-after mentioned) shall receive damage during the voyage, an abatement of such duties shall be allowed in proportion to the damage so received; provided proof be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, or of any officers of customs acting therein under their directions, that such damage was received after the goods were shipped abroad in the ship importing the same, and before they were landed in the United Kingdom; and provided claim to such an abatement of duties be made at the time of the first examination of such goods. — § 30.

Officers to examine Damages, and state Proportion, or choose two Merchants.—The officers of the customs shall thereupon examine such goods with reference to such damage, and may state the proportion of damage which, in their opinion, such goods have so received, and may make a proportionate abatement of duties; but if the officers of customs be incompetent to estimate such damage, or if the importer be not satisfied with the abatement made by them, the collector and comptroller shall choose two indifferent merchants experienced in the nature and value of such goods, who shall examine the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration, stating in what proportion, according to their judgment, such goods are lessened in their value by reason of such damage, and thereupon the officers of the customs may make an abatement of the duties according to the proportion of damage so declared by such merchants. — § 31.

No Abatement for certain Goods.—No abatement of duties shall be made on account of any damage received by any of the sorts of goods herein-after enumerated; (that is to say,) cocon, coffee, oranges, pepper, currants, raisins, figs, tobacco, lemons, and wine. — § 32.

Returned Goods.—It shall be lawful to re-import into the United Kingdom from any place, in a ship of any country, any goods (except as herein-after excepted) which shall have been legally exported from the United Kingdom, and to enter the same by bill of store, referring to the entry outwards, and exportation thereof, provided the property in such goods continue in the person by whom or on whose account the same have been exported, and that such re-importation take place within 6 years from the date of the exportation; and if the goods so returned be foreign goods, which had before been legally

imported into the United Kingdom, the same duties shall be payable thereon as would, at the time of such re-importation, be payable on the like goods under the same circumstances of importation as those under which such goods had been originally imported, or such goods may be warehoused as the like goods might be warehoused upon a first importation thereof; provided always, that the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the Table following shall not be re-imported into the United Kingdom for home use upon the ground that the same had been legally exported from thence, but that the same shall be deemed to be foreign goods, whether originally such or not, and shall also be deemed to be imported for the first time into the United Kingdom; (that is to say,)

A Table of Goods imported which may not be re-imported for Home Use.

Corn, grain, meal, flour, and malt, hops, tobacco, &c.
Goods for which any bounty or any drawback of excise had been received on exportation, unless by special permission of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, and on repayment of such bounty or such drawback.

All goods for which bill of store cannot be issued in manner herein after directed, except small remnants of British goods by special permission of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon proof to their satisfaction that the same are British, and had not been sold.—Stat. 25.

Bill of Store, by whom they may be taken out.—The person in whose name any goods so re-imported were entered for exportation shall deliver to the searcher at the port of exportation an exact account, signed by him, of the particulars of such goods, referring to the entry and clearance outwards and to the return inwards of the same, with the marks and numbers of the packages, both inwards and outwards; and thereupon the searcher, finding that such goods had been legally exported, shall grant a bill of store for the same; and if the person in whose name such goods were entered for exportation was not the proprietor thereof, but his agent, he shall declare upon oath on such bill of store the name of the person by whom he was employed as such agent; and if the person to whom such returned goods are consigned shall not be such proprietor and exporter, he shall make and subscribe a declaration on such bill of store of the name of the person for whose use such goods have been consigned to him; and the seal provided, as aforesaid, to be such, shall make and subscribe a declaration upon such bill of store, to the identity of the goods so exported and so returned, and that he was at the time of exportation and of re-importation the proprietor of such goods, and that the same had not during such time been sold or disposed of to any other person; and such declaration shall be made before the collector or comptroller at the ports of exportation and of importation respectively; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall admit such goods to entry by bill of store, and grant their warrant accordingly.—§ 24.

Surplus Stores subject as Goods.—The surplus stores of every ship arriving from parts beyond the seas, in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, shall be subject to the same duties, and the same prohibitions, restrictions, and regulations, as the like sorts of goods shall be subject to when imported by way of merchandise; but if it shall appear to the collector and comptroller that the quantity or description of such stores is not excessive or unsuitable, under all the circumstances of the voyage, it shall be lawful for them to permit such surplus stores to be entered for the private use of the master, purser, or owner of such ship, or of any passenger of such ship to whom any such surplus stores may belong, on payment of the proper duties, or to be warehoused for the future use of such ship, although the same could not be legally imported by way of merchandise.—§ 25.

Goods from Plantations, &c.—No goods shall be entered as being of or from any British possession in America (if any benefit in such distinction) unless the master of the ship importing the same shall have delivered to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, of the due clearance of such ship from thence, containing an account of such goods.—§ 26.

Certificates of Growth of Sugar, Coffee, Cocoa, Spirits, from Plantations.—Before any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits shall be entered as being the produce of some British possession in America, or the Island of Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, testifying that proof had been made in manner required by law that such goods are of the produce of some British possession in America, or of the Island of Mauritius, stating the name of the place where such goods were produced, and the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same, and the name of the ship in which they are laden, and of the master thereof; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as are mentioned therein.—§ 27.

Certificates of Sugar from Limits of Charter.—Before any sugar shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand and seal of the proper officer at the place where such sugar was taken on board, testifying that oath had been made before him, by the shipper of such sugar, that the same was really and bona fide the produce of such British possession; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such sugar was taken on board, and that the sugar so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.—§ 28.

Certificates of Wine, Produce of Cape of Good Hope.—Before any wine shall be entered as being the produce of the Cape of Good Hope, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer of the Cape of Good Hope, testifying that proof had been made, in manner required by law, that such wine is of the produce of the Cape of Good Hope or the dependencies thereof, stating the quantity and sort of such wine, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the Cape of Good Hope, and that the wine so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.—§ 29.

Goods of Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—It shall be lawful to import into the United Kingdom any goods of the produce or manufacture of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, from the said islands respectively, without payment of any duty (except in special cases herein after mentioned); and such goods shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duties imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally from parts beyond the seas: provided always, that such goods may nevertheless be charged with any proportion of such duties as shall fairly counterveil any duties of excise, or any coast duty, payable on the like goods the produce of the part of the United Kingdom into which they shall be imported: provided also, that such exemption from duty shall not extend to any manufactures of the said islands made from materials the produce of any foreign country, except manufactures of linen and cotton made in and imported from the Isle of Man.—§ 30.

Master to deliver Certificate of Produce, and deliver a Certificate.—Before any goods shall be entered as being the produce of the said islands (if any benefit attach to such distinction), the master of the ship or vessel importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the island from whence such goods were imported, that proof had been made, in manner required by law, that such goods were of the produce of such island, stating the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before

the collector or comptroller were taken on board, and,

Treasury may permit the collector for the Lords Commissioners to permit any goods the produce of the said islands to be imported into the United Kingdom, and the said commissioners shall

ing.—§ 31.

Vessels with Stores from Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—No vessel shall be liable to be conducted of House of Deputees Street.

Fish, British taking and every kind of British taken or in whatever ship imported in British ships, in any charge of duty imposed provided always, that before curing, the master of the collector or comptroller, the crews of such ships, or

Certificates of Blubber, Tallow, oil, head matter, or whale sea taken and caught wholly or in part in British ships, shall deliver to the collector a certificate under the hand had been made before him fish or creatures living in law; and such master shall that the goods so imported also make and subscribe the best of his knowledge taken wholly by British vessels.

Before entry of Blubber, Before any blubber, train fishery, shall be entered a wholly by the crews of the Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and subscribe a declaration shall make and subscribe seen taken and caught who ship) cleared out from the Bark, or Man (stating whether

Blubber from Greenland be lawful upon the return down with any blubber, be imports thereof to cause inspection of the proper or and the duties be paid the same come to be exported.—§ 47.

Importation direct.—No goods shall be imported direct from any place either as the first shipment or as a re-shipment.

Saloon may sell Goods or property liable to the payment of any duty, or agreed to be paid by the same, to sell so much of it as he may think fit, or such other sum so paid

tion of any such law to the commissioners such that such owners are hereby empowered payment of all duties, to the amount of such other sum always, that if such owners owners as to the amount of salivior to refer any such doubt to the High Court of Admiralty; court shall have been heard

Foreign Goods landed, at Jettam, Rotterdam, and elsewhere, at all times be subject to respectively are subject to payable, any question shall of the growth, produce, or shall upon investigation be are entitled to allowance duty as the said commodity cannot be sold for the amount of any other person entitled to be liable to and be charged

Persons having such Goods shall have possession of a bill shall not give notice there

the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as are mentioned therein.—*41.*

Treasury may permit Produce of Colonial Fisheries to be imported from Guernsey, &c.—It shall be lawful for the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, when and so long as they shall see fit, to permit any goods the produce of the British possessions or fisheries in North America, which shall have been legally imported into the islands of Guernsey or Jersey, direct from such possessions, to be imported into the United Kingdom for home use direct from those islands, under such regulations as the said commissioners shall direct, any thing in the law of navigation to the contrary notwithstanding.—*42.*

Vessels with Stone from Guernsey, &c. not to be piloted.—No vessel arriving on the coast of England from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, wholly laden with stone the production thereof, shall be liable to be conducted or piloted by pilots appointed and licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strand, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—*43.*

Fish, British taking and curing, and Lobsters and Turbots, free of Duty on Importation.—Fresh fish of every kind of British taking, and imported in British ships, and fresh lobsters and turbot, however taken or in whatever ship imported, and cured fish of every kind, of British taking and curing, imported in British ships, shall be imported free of all duties, and shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duty imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally: provided always, that before any cured fish shall be entered free of duty, as being of such taking and curing, the master of the ship importing the same shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such fish was actually caught and taken in British ships, and cured by the crews of such ships, or by his Majesty's subjects.—*44.*

Certificates of Blubber, Train Oil, &c. British colonial taking.—Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, shall be entered as being the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by his Majesty's subjects usually residing in some part of his Majesty's dominions, and imported from some British possession, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer of such British possession where such goods were taken on board, (or if no such officer be residing there, then a certificate under the hands of two principal inhabitants at the place of shipment,) notifying that oath had been made before him or them, by the shipper of such goods, that the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels owned and navigated according to law; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as mentioned therein; and the importer of such goods shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, at the time of entry, that to the best of his knowledge and belief the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels in manner aforesaid.—*45.*

Before entry of Blubber, &c. of British taking, Master and Importer to make Declaration of the same.—Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, imported direct from the fishery, shall be entered as being the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crews of ships cleared out from the United Kingdom, or from one of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, the master of the ship importing such goods shall make and subscribe a declaration, and the importer of such goods (to the best of his knowledge and belief) shall make and subscribe a declaration, that the same are the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crew of such ship, or by the crew of some other ship (naming the ship) cleared out from the United Kingdom, or from one of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (stating which).—*46.*

Blubber from Greenland may be boiled, and entered as Oil imported, and be exported as such.—It shall be lawful upon the return of any ship from the Greenland seas or Davis's Straits to the United Kingdom with any blubber, being the produce of whales or other creatures living in the sea, for the importers thereof to cause the same to be boiled into oil at the port of importation, under the care and inspection of the proper officers of the customs; and the oil so produced shall be admitted to entry, and the duties be paid thereon, as if imported in that state, and such oil shall not afterwards, if the same come to be exported, be subject to duty of exportation as a manufacture of the United Kingdom.—*47.*

Importation direct.—No goods shall be deemed to be imported from any particular place unless they be imported direct from such place, and shall have been there laden on board the importing ship, either as the first shipment of such goods, or after the same shall have been actually landed at such place.—*48.*

Salvor may sell Goods sufficient to defray Salvage.—It shall be lawful for the owner or salvor of any property liable to the payment of duty saved from sea, and in respect of which any sum shall have been awarded under any law at the time in force, or in respect of which any sum shall have been paid or agreed to be paid by the owner thereof or his agent, to the salvors, to defray the salvage of the same, to sell so much of the property so saved as will be sufficient to defray the salvage so awarded, or such other sum so paid or agreed to be paid; and upon the production of an award made in execution of any such law to the commissioners of customs, or upon proof to the satisfaction of the said commissioners that such sum of money has been paid, or has been agreed to be paid, the said commissioners are hereby empowered and required to allow the sale of such property aforesaid, free from the payment of all duties, to the amount of such sum so awarded, paid, or agreed to be paid, or to the amount of such other sum as to the said commissioners shall seem just and reasonable: provided always, that if such owner or salvor shall be dissatisfied with any determination of the said commissioners as to the amount of such property to be sold duty free, it shall be lawful for such owner or salvor to refer any such determination of the said commissioners to the judgment and revision of the High Court of Admiralty; and in that case such sale shall be suspended until the decision of such court shall have been had thereon.—*49.*

Foreign Goods derelict, &c. to be subject to same Duties as on Importation.—All foreign goods, derelict, jettam, flotsam, and wreck, brought or coming into the United Kingdom or into the Isle of Man, shall at all times be subject to the same duties as goods of the like kind imported into the United Kingdom respectively are subject to: provided always, that if, for ascertaining the proper amount of duty so payable, any question shall arise as to the origin of any such goods, the same shall be deemed to be of the growth, produce, or manufacture of such country or place as the commissioners of customs shall upon investigation by them determine: provided also, that if any such goods be of such sorts as are entitled to allowance for damage, such allowance shall be made under such regulations and conditions as the said commissioners shall from time to time direct: provided also, that all such goods as cannot be sold for the amount of duty due thereon shall be delivered over to the lord of the manor or other person entitled to receive the same, and shall be deemed to be unenumerated goods, and shall be liable to and be charged with duty accordingly.—*50.*

*Persons having such Goods in Possession, without Notice, liable to a Penalty of 100*l.**—If any person shall have possession of any such goods, either on land or within any port in the United Kingdom, and shall not give notice thereof to the proper officer of the customs within 24 hours after such possession,

articles, so as to be complete and perfect, if such article be subject in duty according to the value thereof.

5th, manufactures in silk, being the manufactures of Europe, unless into the port of London, or to the port of Dublin direct from Bordeaux, or into the port of Dover direct from Calais, and unless in a ship or vessel of 70 tons or upwards, or into the port of Dover in a vessel of the burden of 60 tons at least, with licence of the commissioners of the customs.

Spirits, not being perturbed or medicinal spirits; viz. all spirits, unless in ships of 70 tons or upwards.

rum of and from the British plantations, if in casks, unless in casks containing not less than 30 gallons.

all other spirits, if in casks, unless in casks containing not less than 40 gallons.

unless from the place of its growth, and by the East India Company, and into the port of London, during the continuance of their exclusive privileges of trade.

Tobacco and snuff, viz. unless in a ship of the burden of 120 tons or upwards.

tobacco of and imported from the state of Colombia, and made up in rolls, unless in packages containing at least 330 lbs. weight of such rolls.

sears, unless in packages containing 100 lbs. weight of sears.

all other tobacco and snuff, unless in hogsheads, casks, chests, or cases, each of which shall contain of net tobacco or snuff at least 100 lbs. weight if from the East Indies, or 450 lbs. weight if from any other place, and not packed in bags or packages.

Forfeiture.—And if any goods shall be imported into the United Kingdom contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such Table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 58.

But Goods may be warehoused for Exportation only, although prohibited.—Any goods, of whatsoever sort, may be imported into the United Kingdom to be warehoused under the regulations of any act in force for the time being for the warehousing of goods, without payment of duty at the time of the first entry thereof; or notwithstanding that such goods may be prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom to be used therein, except the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in manner following; (that is to say,) goods prohibited on account of the package in which they are contained, or the tonnage of the ship in which they are laden; tea and goods from China in other than British ships, or by other persons than the East India Company during the continuance of their exclusive privileges of trade; gunpowder, arms, ammunition, or utensils of war; dried or salted fish, not being stock-fish; infected hides, skins, horns, hoofs, or any other part of any cattle or beast; counterfeited coin or tokens; books first composed or written or printed and published in the United Kingdom, and reprinted in any other country or place; copies of printed books, etched or engraved, and reprinted in the United Kingdom; copies of casts of sculptures or models first made in the United Kingdom; clocks or watches, being such as are prohibited to be imported for home use.—§ 59.

Goods to be entered to be warehoused for Exportation only.—If by reason of the sort of any goods, or of the place from whence, or the country, or navigation of the ship in which any goods have been imported, they be such or be so imported as that they may not be used in the United Kingdom, they shall not be entered except to be warehoused, and it shall be declared upon the entry of such goods that they are entered to be warehoused for exportation only.—§ 60.

ENTRY OUTWARDS.

Goods not to be shipped till Entry of Ship and Entry of Goods, and Cocket granted; nor till cleared.—No goods shall be shipped, or waterborne to be shipped, on board any ship in any port or place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, to be carried to parts beyond the seas, before the entry outwards of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and cocket granted, nor before such goods shall have been duly cleared for shipment in manner herein-after directed; and no stores shall be shipped for the use of any such ship bound to parts beyond the seas, nor shall any goods be deemed or admitted to be such stores, except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill duly granted for such ship; and no goods shall be so shipped, or waterborne to be so shipped, except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods and stores which shall be shipped, or be waterborne to be shipped contrary hereto shall be forfeited.—§ 61.

Ships to be cleared, or Master to forfeit 100l.—No ship on board of which any goods or stores shall have been shipped in any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, shall depart from such port until such ship shall have been duly cleared outwards for her intended voyage, in manner herein-after directed, under forfeiture of the sum of 100l. by the master of such ship.—§ 62.

Victualling Bill for Stores.—The master of every ship which is to depart from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, shall, upon due application made by him, receive from the searcher a victualling bill for the shipment of such stores as he shall require, and as shall be allowed by the collector and comptroller, for the use of such ship, according to the voyage upon which she is about to depart; and no articles taken on board any ship shall be deemed to be stores except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill for the same.—§ 63.

Master to deliver Certificate of Clearances of Last Voyage, and to make Entry Outwards.—The master of every ship in which any goods are to be exported from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man to parts beyond the seas shall, before any goods be taken on board, deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the proper officer of the clearance inwards or coastwise of such ship of her last voyage, specifying what goods, if any, have been reported inwards for exportation, and shall also deliver to the collector or comptroller an account, signed by the master or his agent, of the entry outwards of such ship for her intended voyage, setting forth the name and tonnage of the ship, the name of the place to which she belongs, if a British ship, or of the country if a foreign ship, the name of the master, and the name or names of the place or places for which she is bound, if any goods are to be shipped for the same, and the name of the place in such port at which she is to take in her lading for such voyage; and if such ship shall have commenced her lading at some other port, the master shall state the name of any port at which any goods have been laden, and shall produce a certificate from the searcher that the cockets for such goods have been delivered to him; and the particulars of such account shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such account shall be the entry outwards of such ship, and shall be entered in a book to be kept by the collector, for the information of all parties interested; and if any goods be taken on board any ship before she shall have been entered outwards, the master shall forfeit the sum of 100l. provided always, that where it shall become necessary to lade any heavy goods on board any ship before the whole of the inward cargo is discharged, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to issue a stiffening order for that purpose, previous to the entry outwards of the ship.—§ 64.

Bill of the Entry to be delivered.—The person entering outwards any goods to be exported to parts beyond the seas, or from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry thereof, fairly written in words at length, expressing the

Tobacco and snuff—continued.

within any such hogshead, cask, chest, or case, nor separated nor divided in any manner whatever, except tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire, which may be packed in inward bags or packages, or separated or divided in any manner within the outward package, provided such outward package be a hogshead, cask, chest, or case, and contain 450 lbs. net at least.

and unless the particular weight of tobacco or snuff in each hogshead, cask, chest, or case, with the tare of the same, be marked thereon.

and unless into the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Coventry, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Bishops, Waterford, and Wexford.

or into some other port or ports which may hereafter be appointed for such purposes by the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury; such appointments in Great Britain being published in the London Gazette, and such appointments in Ireland being published in the Dublin Gazette.

but any ship wholly laden with tobacco may come into the ports of Coventry or Falmouth to wait for orders, and there remain 14 days, provided due report of such ship be made by the master with the collector or comptroller of such port.

And all goods from the Isle of Man, except such as be of the growth, produce, or manufacture thereof.

name of the ship and of the master, and of the place to which the goods are to be exported, and of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantities and proper denominations or descriptions of the several sorts of goods, and shall pay down any duties which may be due upon the exportation of any such goods; and such person shall also deliver at the same time 1 or more duplicates of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures; and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be written and arranged in the form and manner, and the number of duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall cause a cocket to be written for such goods, making it known that such goods have been so entered; and every cocket shall be signed by such collector and comptroller, and be delivered to the person who shall have made such entry, and such person shall keep and be responsible for the proper use of the same.—§ 65.

Goods for Drawback or Bounty.—If any drawback or bounty be allowable upon the exportation of any such goods, or any duty be payable thereon, or any exemption from duty claimed, or if any such goods be exportable only according to some particular rule or regulation, or under some restriction or condition, or for some particular purpose or destination, such goods shall be entered and cleared for shipment by such denominations or descriptions as are used, mentioned, or referred to in the granting of such drawback or bounty, or in the levying of such duty, or granting such exemption, or in the directing of such rules, regulations, restrictions, conditions, purpose, or destination; and if the goods in such entry are charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be stated in the entry, and shall be affirmed by the declaration of the exporter or his known agent, to be made upon the entry, and attested by his signature; and if any person shall make such declaration, not being the exporter of such goods, nor his agent duly authorized by him, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and such declaration shall be made in manner and form following, and shall be binding upon the person making the same; (that is to say),

"I, *A. B.* of *[place of abode]* do hereby declare, that I am the exporter of the goods mentioned in this entry, [or, that I am duly authorized by him,] and I do enter the same at the value of _____
Witness my hand the _____ day of _____ *A. B.*"—§ 66.

Goods undervalued detained.—If upon examination it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods are not valued according to the true value thereof, the same may be detained, and (within 3 days) taken and disposed of for the benefit of the Crown, in like manner as is herein-before provided in respect of goods imported, except that no sum in addition to the amount of the valuation and the duties paid shall be paid to the exporter or proprietor of the goods.—§ 67.

For Drawback, or from Warehouse, or Duties to be first paid.—The person intending to enter outwards any foreign goods for drawback, at any other port than that at which the duties inwards on such goods had been paid, shall first deliver to the collector or comptroller of the port where the duties on such goods were paid, 2 or more bills, as the case may require, of the particulars of the importation of such goods, and of the entry outwards intended to be made; and thereupon such collector and comptroller, finding such bills to agree with the entry inwards, shall write off such goods from the same, and shall issue a certificate of such entry, with such particulars thereof as shall be necessary for the computation of the drawback allowable on such goods, and setting forth in such certificate the destination of the goods, and the person in whose name they are to be entered for exportation, and also the name of such other port; and such certificate, together with 3 or more bills of the same, as the case may require, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, being delivered to the collector or comptroller of the port from which the goods are to be exported, shall be the entry outwards of such goods; and such collector and comptroller shall thereupon cause a cocket to be written and delivered for such goods, in manner herein-before directed.—§ 68.

Coals Export Bond to Isle of Man and British Possessions.—No cocket shall be granted for the exportation of any coals to the Isle of Man, or to any British possession, until the exporter thereof shall have given security by bond in a penal sum of 40*l.* the chaldron, with condition that the same shall be landed at the place for which they shall be exported, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of the customs; and also with condition to produce (within such time as the said commissioners shall require, to be expressed in such bond), a certificate of the landing of such coals at such place, under the hand of the collector or comptroller or other proper officer at such place; provided always, that the bond so to be given in respect of coals shall not be liable to any duty of stamps.—§ 69.

CLEARANCE OF GOODS.

Packages to be indorsed on Cocket.—Before any part of the goods for which any cocket shall have been granted shall have been shipped or waterborne to be shipped, the same shall be duly cleared for shipment with the searcher; and before any goods be cleared for shipment, the particulars of the goods for each clearance shall be indorsed on such cocket, together with the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the same; and in the margin of each such indorsement shall be delineated the respective marks and numbers of such packages; and to each such indorsement shall be subjoined, in words at length, an account of the total quantities of each sort of goods intended in such indorsement, and the total number of each sort of package in which such goods are contained, distinguishing such goods, if any, as are to be cleared for any bounty or drawback of excise or customs, and also such goods, if any, as are subject to any duty on exportation, or entitled to any exemption from such duty, and also such goods, if any, as can only be exported by virtue of some particular order or authority, or under some particular restriction or condition, or for some particular purpose or destination; and all goods shipped or waterborne to be shipped, not being duly cleared as aforesaid, shall be forfeited.—§ 70.

Cocket indorsed, &c.—The person clearing such goods for shipment shall upon each occasion produce the cocket so indorsed to the searcher, and shall also deliver a shipping bill or copy of such indorsement, referring by names and date to the cocket upon which such indorsement is made, and shall obtain the order of the searcher for the shipment of such goods; and the particulars to be contained in such indorsement and in such shipping bill shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 71.

Coals brought coastwise may be exported without landing.—If any coals shall have been brought coastwise from one port of the United Kingdom to another, and the master shall be minded to proceed with such coals, or any part of them, to parts beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship and such coals outwards for the intended voyage, without first landing the coals intended for exportation, provided the officers of the customs shall be satisfied that the quantity of coals left on board does not exceed the quantity so entered outwards.—§ 72.

Account of Value to be delivered to the Searcher.—Upon the clearance for shipment of any goods, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, not liable to any export duty, an account, containing an accurate specification of the quantity, quality, and value of such goods, together with a declaration to the truth of the same, signed by the exporter or his known agent, shall be delivered to the searcher by the person clearing such goods; and if such declaration be false, the person signing the same shall forfeit the sum of 30*l.*; and it shall be lawful for the searcher to cut for the invoice bills of parcels, and such other documents relating to the goods, as he may think necessary for ascertaining the true

value of the same: provided that the collector or the shipment of the same, and, in case of failure thereof, such exportation.

Goods for Excise Drawback.—The person intending to export any such goods shall be bound to produce to the searcher of the officer of excise, counts to be claimed; and if the goods, and such goods as such shipment upon such do

Officer of Excise may attend and assist at such examination, together with the sole charge of the searcher, and

Goods for Duty, Bounty, or any duty or restriction, in drawback or bounty, shall be such goods shall not agree shall be forfeited; and if any aforesaid, such package and Searcher may open any Packages all packages, and fully United Kingdom or in the all respects with the c. ket at the charge of such sea, if they shall see fit so to do.

Content to be delivered to Se

United Kingdom or in the same in such port, the master name and tonnage, of such ship and also an account of the goods the marks and numbers upon had been reported inwards by him; and also, before the thereon for the goods shipped searcher, who shall file the number of cockets contained with the particulars of the signature on the label, and on the before the collector or comptroller or comptroller such question demanded of him; and there voyage, and shall notify such the file of cockets, and upon the information of all parties tralling bill to the searcher; arranged in such form and m

File of Cockets, &c. delivered be delivered by the searcher manner as shall be appointed such file of cockets and victu authority for departing from board, so far as they shall agree victualling bill.—§ 79.

In Ballast.—If any ship is parts beyond the seas, having ling bill, or any goods reported before her departure, answer and destination as shall be de such ship in ballast, and shall also in the book of ships' en victualling bill shall be kept

Part of former Cargo reported inward cargo which were re outwards of such ship from searcher a copy of this report such copy, being found to cor the searcher to pass such shi with the cockets, shall be the

If any Passengers, Master of ship from the United Kingdom the master of such ship to pass baggage of all such passengers going outwards of such ship, the particular such ship is to make no other the voyage, it shall be lawful only; and if no other goods the same shall be deemed to in the clearance, on the count and in the book of ships' en baggage of passengers going

Master may enter Goods for which is to deposit in ballast taker on board chalk rubbish

value of the same: provided always, that if such exporter or agent shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that the value of the goods cannot be ascertained in time for the shipment of the same, and such declaration shall be delivered to the searcher, at the time of clearance, a further time of 3 months shall be allowed for the delivery of such separate shipping bill, or failure whereof such exporter or agent shall forfeit the sum of 20*l*.—§ 73.

Goods for Excise Drawback.—No drawback of excise shall be allowed upon any goods so cleared, unless the person intending to claim such drawback shall have given due notice to the officer of excise, in form and manner required by any law or order relating to the excise, and shall have obtained, and have produced to the searcher, at the time of clearing such goods, a proper document, under the hand of the officer of excise, containing the necessary description of the goods for which such drawback is to be claimed; and if the goods to be cleared and shipped under the care of the searchers shall, upon examination, be found to correspond in all respects with the particulars of the goods contained in such document, and such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, the searcher shall, if required, certify such shipment upon such document, and shall transmit the same to the officer of excise.—§ 74.

Officer of Excise may attend Examination.—It shall be lawful for the officer of excise, if he see fit, to attend and assist at such examination, and to mark or seal the packages, and to keep joint charge of the same, together with the searcher, until the same shall have been finally delivered by him into the sole charge of the searcher, to be shipped and exported under his care.—§ 75.

Goods for Duty, Bounty, or Drawback, &c. brought for Shipment.—If any goods which are subject to any duty or restriction, in respect of exportation, or if any goods, which are to be shipped for any drawback or bounty, shall be brought to any quay, wharf, or other place, to be shipped for exportation, and such goods shall not agree with the indorsement on the cocket, or with the shipping bill, the same shall be forfeited; and if any goods prohibited to be exported be found in any packages brought as aforesaid, such package and every thing contained therein shall be forfeited.—§ 76.

Searcher may open any Packages; but if correct, must repack.—It shall be lawful for the searcher to open all packages, and fully to examine all goods shipped or brought for shipment at any place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man; and if the goods so examined shall be found to correspond in all respects with the cocket and clearance purporting to be for the same, such goods shall be repacked at the charge of such sealer, who may be allowed such charge by the commissioners of the customs, if they shall see fit so to do.—§ 77.

CLEARANCE OF SHIP.

Content to be delivered to Searcher, &c.—Before any ship shall be cleared outwards at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, with any goods shipped on board the same in such port, the master shall deliver a content of such ship to the searcher, setting forth the name and tonnage of such ship, and the place or places of her destination, and the name of the master, and also an account of the goods shipped on board, and of the packages containing such goods, and of the marks and numbers upon such packages, and a like account of the goods on board, if any, which had been reported inwards for exportation in such ship, so far as any of such particulars can be known by him; and also, before the clearance of such ship, the cockets, with the indorsements and clearances thereon for the goods shipped, shall be finally delivered by the respective shippers of such goods to the searcher, who shall file the same together, and shall attach with a seal a label to the file, showing the number of cockets contained in the file, and shall compare the particulars of the goods in the cockets with the particulars of the goods in such content, and shall attest the correctness thereof by his signature on the label, and on the content; and the master of the ship shall make and sign a declaration before the collector or comptroller to the truth of such content, and shall also answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning the ship, the cargo, and the intended voyage, as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear such ship for her intended voyage, and shall notify such clearance, and the date thereof, upon the content, and upon the label to the file of cockets, and upon the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries outwards, for the information of all parties interested, and shall transmit the content, and the cockets, and the victualling bill to the searcher; and the particulars to be contained in such content shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 78.

File of Cockets, &c. shipped to Master.—The file of cockets and the victualling bill shall thereupon be delivered by the searcher to the master of such ship, at such station within the port and in such manner as shall be appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for that purpose; and such file of cockets and victualling bill, so delivered, shall be kept by the master of such ship as the authority for departing from the port with the several parcels and packages of goods and of stores on board, so far as they shall agree with the particulars in the indorsements on such cockets or with such victualling bill.—§ 79.

In Ballast.—If any ship is to depart in ballast from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, having no goods on board except the stores of such ship borne upon the victualling bill, or any goods reported inwards for exportation in such ship, the master of such ship shall, before her departure, answer to the collector or comptroller such questions touching her departure and destination as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear such ship in ballast, and shall notify such clearance and the date thereof on the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries outwards, for the information of all parties interested; and such victualling bill shall be kept by the master of such ship as the clearance of the same.—§ 80.

Part of former Cargo reported for Exportation.—If there be on board any ship any goods of the inward cargo which were reported for exportation in the same, the master shall, before clearance outwards of such ship from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, deliver to the searcher a copy of the report inwards of such goods, certified by the collector and comptroller; and such copy, being found to correspond with the goods so remaining on board, shall be the authority to the searcher to pass such ship with such goods on board; and being signed by the searcher, and filed with the cockets, shall be the clearance of the ship for those goods.—§ 81.

If any Passengers, Master may enter Baggage in his Name.—If any passengers are to depart in any ship from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for the master of such ship to pass an entry and to receive a cocket in his name for the necessary personal baggage of all such passengers, and duly to clear such baggage for shipment in their behalf, stating in such clearance the particulars of the packages and the names of the respective passengers; and if such ship is to take on other goods than the necessary personal baggage of passengers actually going the voyage, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship outwards in ballast for passengers only; and if no other goods than such baggage duly entered and cleared be taken on board such ship, the same shall be deemed to be a ship in ballast, notwithstanding such baggage, and shall be described in the clearance, on the content, and on the label to the cocket or cockets, and on the victualling bill, and in the book of ships' entries, as a ship cleared in ballast, except as to the necessary personal baggage of passengers going the voyage.—§ 82.

Master may enter Goods for private Use of Self and Crew.—If the master and crew of any foreign ship which is to depart in ballast from the United Kingdom for parts beyond the seas, shall be desirous to take on board such rubbish by way of ballast, or to take with them for their private use any small

packer reside more than 10 miles from the port, then by declaration made and subscribed upon an account of such goods, before a magistrate or justice of the peace for the county or place where such packer shall reside; and if such bales be not cleared as being press-packed, then the searcher, having opened any such bale, shall not be required to repack the same at his charge.—§ 93.

Cleared Lighters, &c.—No goods cleared for drawback or bounty, or from the warehouse, shall be carried waterborne to be put on board any ship for exportation from the United Kingdom, by any person, unless such persons shall be authorised for that purpose by licence under the hands of the commissioners of the customs; and before granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to require such security by bond for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such person as they shall deem necessary; and after granting such licence it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to revoke the same, if the person to whom the same shall have been granted shall be convicted of any offence against the laws relating to the customs or excise: provided always, that all such licences which shall be in force at the time of the commencement of this act shall continue in force as if the same had been afterwards granted under the authority of this act.—§ 94.

Warehouses or Debenture Goods not exported.—If any goods which have been taken from the warehouse to be exported from the same, or any goods which have been cleared to be exported for any drawback or bounty, shall not be duly exported to parts beyond the seas, or shall be re-landed in any part of the United Kingdom (such goods not having been duly re-landed or discharged as short-shipped under the care of the proper officers), or shall be landed in the islands of Faro or Ferro, or shall be carried to any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (not having been duly entered, cleared, and shipped to be exported directly to such island), the same shall be forfeited, together with the ship from or by which the same had been so re-landed, landed, or carried, and any other ship, vessel, boat, or craft which may have been used in so re-landed, landing, or carrying such goods; and any person by whom or by whose orders or means such goods shall have been so taken or cleared, or so re-landed, landed, or carried, shall forfeit a sum equal to treble the value of such goods.—§ 95.

Drawback of Duties on Wine allowed for Officers in the Navy.—Drawback of the whole of the duties of customs shall be allowed for wine intended for the consumption of officers of his Majesty's navy, on board such of his Majesty's ships in actual service as they shall serve in, not exceeding the quantities of wine, in any 1 year, for the use of such officers, herein-after respectively mentioned; (that is to say),

For every admiral	Gallons	For every captain of the third, fourth, and fifth rate	Gallons
— vice-admiral	1,280	— captains of an inferior rate	483
— rear-admiral	1,000	— lieutenants, and other commanding officers, &c.	310
— captains of the first and second rate	630	— for every marine officer	103

provided always, that such wine be shipped only at one of the ports herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,) London, Rochester, Deal, Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Yarmouth, Falmouth, Belfast, Dublin, Cork, Leth, or Glasgow.—§ 96.

Persons entering Wine for Drawback to declare the Name and Rank of Officer claiming same.—The person entering such wine, and claiming the drawback for the same, shall state in the entry and declare on the debenture the name of the officer for whose use such wine is intended, and of the ship in which he serves; and such wine shall be delivered into the charge of the officers of the customs at the port of shipment, to be secured in the king's warehouse until the same shall be shipped under their care; and such officers having certified upon the debenture the receipt of the wine into their charge, the debenture shall be computed and passed, and be delivered to the person entitled to receive the same.—§ 97.

Officers leaving the Service, &c. such Wine permitted to be transferred to others.—If any such officer shall leave the service or be removed to another ship, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs of any of the ports before mentioned to permit the transfer of any such wine from one officer to another, as part of his proportion, whether on board the same ship or another, or the transshipment from one ship to another for the same officer, or the re-landed and warehousing for future reshipment; and it shall also be lawful for the officers of customs at any port to receive back the duties for any of such wine, and deliver the same for home use; provided always, that if any of such wine be not laden on board the ship for which the same was intended, or be unladen from such ship without permission of the proper officer of the customs, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 98.

Pursers of his Majesty's Ships of War may ship Tobacco for Use of Crew free of Duty, on giving Bond.—It shall be lawful for the purser of any of his Majesty's ships of war in actual service to enter and ship at the ports of Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, in the proportions herein-after mentioned, any tobacco there warehoused in his name or transferred into his name, for the use of the ship in which he shall serve; provided such purser shall deliver to the collector or comptroller of such port a certificate from the captain of such ship, stating the name of the purser and the number of men belonging to the ship, and shall also give bond, with one sufficient surety, in treble the duties payable on the tobacco, that no part thereof shall be re-landed in the United Kingdom without leave of the officers of the customs, or be landed in either of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man.—§ 99.

Pursers removed from one Ship to another may tranship Tobacco with Permission of Collector.—If any purser shall be removed from one ship to another, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship shall be, to permit the transshipment of the remains of any such tobacco for the use of such other ship, upon due entry of such tobacco by such purser, as settling forth the time when and the port at which such tobacco was first shipped; and if any such ship shall be paid off, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of any port where such ship shall be paid off to permit the remains of any such tobacco to be landed, and to be entered by the purser of such ship, either for payment of duties, or to be warehoused for the term of 6 months, for the supply of some other such ship, in like manner as any tobacco may be warehoused and supplied at either of the ports before mentioned, or for payment of all duties within such 6 months; provided always, that all tobacco warehoused for the purpose of supplying his Majesty's ships of war shall be subject to the provisions of this act made for the warehousing of tobacco generally, as far as the same are applicable, and are not expressly altered by any of the provisions herein particularly made.—§ 100.

Quantity of Tobacco not to exceed, &c.—No greater quantity of such tobacco shall be allowed to any ship of war than 2 lbs. by the lunar month for each of the crew of such ship, nor shall any greater quantity be shipped at one time than sufficient to serve the crew of such ship for 6 months, after such rate of allowance; and the collector and comptroller of the port at or from which any such tobacco shall be supplied to any such ship, or landed from any such ship, or transferred from one such ship to another, shall transmit a particular account thereof to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, in order that a general account may be kept of all the quantities supplied to and consumed on board each of such ships under the allowances before granted.—§ 101.

Times and Places for shipping Goods.—No goods shall be put off from any wharf, quay, or other place, or shall be waterborne in order to be exported, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the day-time; (that is to say,) from the first day of September until the last day of March,

betwixt sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the last day of March until the first day of September, between the hours of 7 of the clock in the morning and 4 of the clock in the afternoon; nor shall any such goods be then put off or waterborne for exportation unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs, nor except from a legal quay appointed by his Majesty, or at some wharf, quay, or place appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for the shipping of such goods by surance.—§ 102.

Penalty for exporting prohibited Goods.—If any goods liable to forfeiture for being shipped for exportation shall be shipped and exported without discovery by the officers of the customs, the person or persons who shall have caused such goods to be exported shall forfeit double the value of such goods.—§ 103.

PROHIBITIONS OUTWARDS.

Prohibitions and Restrictions absolute or modified.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the Table following (denominated "A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Outwards") shall be either absolutely prohibited to be exported from the United Kingdom, or shall be exported only under the restrictions mentioned in such Table, according as the several sorts of such goods are respectively set forth therein; (that is to say,)

A TABLE OF PROHIBITIONS AND RESTRICTIONS OUTWARDS.

Clocks and watches; viz. any outward or inward box, case, or dial plate, of any metal, without the movement in or with every such box, case, or dial plate made up fit for use, with the clock or watchmaker's name engraven thereon.

Lace; viz. any metal inferior to silver which shall be spun, mixed, wrought, or set upon silk, or which shall be gilt, or drawn into wire, or fatted into plate, and spun or woven, or wrought into or upon, or mixed with lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tawbour work, or lace made to the gold or silver lace manufactory, or set upon silk, or made into hollow spangles, or pearl or any other materials made in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or which shall imitate or be mixed to imitate such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tawbour work, or buttons; nor shall any person export any copper, brass, or other metal which shall be silvered or drawn into wire, or fatted into plate, or made into hollow spangles, or pearl or any other materials used in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or in imitation of such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tawbour work, or buttons; nor shall any person export any metal which shall hold more or bear a greater proportion than 3 pennyweights of fine silver to the pound avoirdupois of such copper, brass, or other metal.

any metal inferior to silver, whether gilt, silvered, stained, or coloured, or otherwise, which shall be worked up or mixed with gold or silver in any manufactory of lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tawbour work, or buttons.

Tools and utensils; viz. any machine, engine, tool, press, paper, utensil, or instrument used in or proper for the preparing, working, printing, or finishing of the woollen, cotton, linen, or silk manufactory of this kingdom, or any other goods wherein wool, cotton, linen, or silk is used, or any part of such machines, engines, tools, presses, paper, utensils, or instruments of any model or plan thereof, or any part thereof, except wool cards or stock cards not worth above 4s. per pair, and spinnings cards not worth above 1s. 6d. per pair, used in the woollen manufactory.

locks, plates, engines, tools, or utensils commonly used in or

proper for the preparing, working up, or finishing of the calico, cotton, muslin, or linen printing, manufactory, or any part of such blocks, plates, engines, tools, or utensils.

rollers, either plain, grooved, or of any other form or denomination, of cast iron, wrought iron, or steel, for the rolling of iron or any sort of metals, beds, pillars, screws, pinions, and each and every implement, tool, or utensil therewith belonging; rollers, millers, frames, beds, pillars, and screws for fulling-mills; presses of all sorts, in iron and steel, or other metals, which are used with a screw exceeding 1 1/2 inch in diameter, or any parts of these several articles, or any model of the before-mentioned utensils, or any part thereof; all sorts of muscils, engines, or machines used in the casting or boring of cannon or any sort of artillery, or any parts thereof, or any models of tools, utensils, engines, or machines used in such casting or boring, or any parts thereof; hand stamps, dog-head stamps, pulley stamps, hammers, and anvils for stamps; presses of all sorts called cutting-out presses, beds or punches to be used therein; dies, in iron and steel, or other metals; their; scouring or abbing engines; presses for horse buttons; dies for horn buttons; rolled metal, with silver thereto; parts of buttons not fitted up into buttons, or in an unfinished state; anvils for chasing, stocks for casting buckles, buttons, and rings; die-stamping tools of all sorts; engines for making button-shanks; taps of all sorts; tools for pinching of glass; engines for erecting of whips; bars of metal covered with gold or silver, and burnishing stones, commonly called metal-stones, either in the rough state or finished for use; wire moulds for making paper; wheels of metal, stone, or wood, for cutting, roughing, smoothing, polishing, or engraving glass; parcelling pieces, shears, and pipes used in blowing glass; potter's wheels and lathes, for piallo, round, and engine turning; tools used by saddlers, harness-makers, and bridle-makers; viz. gaule strainers, silk strainers, point strainers, creasing irons, screw drivers, wheel irons, seal irons, pricking irons, bolstering irons, claws, and head knives.

frames for making weaving spars.

or made useful in increasing the quantity of military or naval stores.

Provisions, or any sort of victual which may be used as food by man.

A List of Goods which may be prohibited to be exported by Proclamation or Order in Council.

Arms, ammunition, and gunpowder.

Alexa, pot and pearl.

Military stores and naval stores, and any articles (except copper) which his Majesty shall judge capable of being converted into

And if any goods shall be exported, or be waterborne to be exported, from the United Kingdom, contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 104.

The sections from 105. to 118., both inclusive, relate to the COASTING TRADE, and are given under that head.

CONSTRUCTION IN GENERAL.

Terms used in Acts.—Whenever the several terms or expressions following shall occur in this act, or in any other act relating to the customs, or to trade and navigation, the same shall be construed respectively in the manner herein-after directed; (that is to say,) the term "ship" shall be construed to mean ship or vessel generally, unless such term shall be used to distinguish a ship from sloop, brigantine, and other classes of vessels; and the term "master" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person having or taking the charge or command of such ship; the term "owners" and the term "newer" of any ship shall be construed alike to mean 1 owner, if there be only 1, and any or all the owners if there be more than 1; the term "mate" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person next in command of such ship to the master thereof; the term "seaman" shall be construed to mean alike seaman, mariner, sailor, or landman, being one of the crew of any ship; the term "British possession" shall be construed to mean colony, plantation, island, territory, or settlement belonging to his Majesty; the term "his Majesty" shall be construed to mean his Majesty, his heirs, and successors; the term "East India Company" shall be construed to mean the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies; the term "limits of the East India Company's charter" shall be construed to mean all places and seas eastward of the Cape of Good Hope to the straits of Magellan; the term "collector and comptroller" shall be construed to mean the collector and comptroller of the customs of the port intended in the sentence; whenever mention is made of any public officer, the officer mentioned shall be deemed to be such officer for the time being; the term "warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place, whether house, shed, yard, timber pond, or other place in which goods entered to be warehoused upon importation may be lodged, kept, and secured without payment of duty, or although prohibited to be used in the United Kingdom; the term "king's warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place provided by the Crown for lodging goods therein for security of the customs.—§ 119.

Mella in Europa.—The island of Mella and its dependencies shall be deemed to be in Europe.—§ 120.

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

Weights, Measures, Currency, and Management.—All duties, bounties, and drawbacks of customs shall be paid and received in every part of the United Kingdom and of the Isle of Man in British currency, and according to Imperial weights and measures; and in all cases where such duties, bounties,

and drawbacks are imposed, the same shall be deemed to apply to all such duties, bounties, and drawbacks.—§ 121.

Collector to take Bonds in respect of duties.—If any goods are required to be given in respect of his Majesty; and after limited therein for the performance or suit shall have been

Modes of ascertaining Strengths of foreign goods.—If imported made in practice for ascertainment; be it therefore enacted, and the same rules and methods being directed to use, adopt spirits made within the United excise payable thereon, shall and ascertaining the strength of foreign goods for the purpose of computing and collecting duties of Customs to take such samples of any goods of the same; and all such samples of the Majesty's customs.

Time of an Importation and duty.—If upon the first grant or prohibiting of any imports United Kingdom or in the field an importation or exportation such time, in respect of imported goods (not actually come within and such goods be discharged) time at which the goods had such question shall arise upon such question shall arise upon a departure shall be deemed to comptroller for the voyage up.

Return of Duties overpaid.—After any duty of customs shall that the same had been charged return any such overcharge as

Tonnage or Burden of Ships.—The tonnage of every other ship or the tonnage of British ships is

Officers may refuse Master officers of customs at any port of the customs, or refuse to do so, unless his name shall be in the name of the master thereof, or troller.—§ 125.

Falsifying Documents.—If a or falsified, any entry, warrant, reporting, or clearing of baggage, or article whatever, made for any of such purposes of 200l.; provided always, that other penalty shall be expressed

Authority of an Agent may officer of the customs to trans officer to require of the person behalf such application shall transact such business.—§ 130.

Persons falsifying Declarations or by any other act relating to any particular, or if any person answer questions put to him in answer such questions, the person and above any other penalty

Seizures.—All goods, and all force relating to the customs of the customs; and such force, tackle, apparel, and furniture the proper package in which

Restoration of seized Goods.—If any goods, or any part thereof, shall be lawful for the commission such manner and on such terms of the same shall accept the to have or maintain any action the person making such seizure

Remission of Forfeitures, &c.—If any goods laden therein, or unladed any penalty on account of any small in quantity or of trifling amount of his Majesty's customs of the owners of such ship, or lawful for the said commission as they shall see reason to attribute the conclusion of

and drawbacks are imposed and allowed according to any specific quantity, or any specific value, the same shall be deemed to apply in the same proportion to any greater or less quantity or value; and all such duties, bounties, and drawbacks shall be under the management of the commissioners of the customs.—§ 121.

Collectors to take Bonds in respect of Goods relating to the Customs.—All bonds relating to the customs required to be given in respect of goods or ships shall be taken by the collector and comptroller for the use of his Majesty; and after the expiration of 3 years from the date thereof, or from the time, if any, limited therein for the performance of the condition thereof, every such bond upon which no prosecution or suit shall have been commenced shall be void, and may be cancelled and destroyed.—§ 122.

Mode of ascertaining Strength of Foreign Spirits.—The mode of ascertaining the strengths and quantities of foreign spirits imported into the United Kingdom should at all times be exactly similar to the mode in practice for ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits made within the United Kingdom; be it therefore enacted, that the same instruments, and the same Tables and scales of graduation, and the same rules and methods, as the officers of the excise shall by any law in force for the time being be directed to use, adopt, and employ in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits made within the United Kingdom, for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of excise payable thereon, shall be used, adopted, and employed by the officers of the customs in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits imported into the United Kingdom, for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of customs payable thereon.—§ 123.

Officers of Customs to take Sample of Goods.—It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to take such samples of any goods as shall be necessary for ascertaining the amount of any duties payable on the same; and all such samples shall be disposed of and accounted for in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall direct.—§ 124.

Time of an Importation and of an Exportation defined.—If, upon the first levying or repealing of any duty, or upon the first granting or repealing of any drawback or bounty, or upon the first permitting or prohibiting of any importation or exportation, whether inwards, outwards, or coastwise, in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, it shall become necessary to determine the precise time at which an importation or exportation of any goods made and completed shall be deemed to have had effect, such time, in respect of importation, shall be deemed to be the time at which the ship importing such goods had actually come within the limits of the port at which such ship shall in due course be reported, and such goods be discharged; and such time, in respect of exportation, shall be deemed to be the time at which the goods had been shipped on board the ship in which they had been exported; and if such question shall arise upon the arrival or departure of any ship, in respect of any charge or allowance upon such ship, exclusive of any cargo, the time of such arrival shall be deemed to be the time at which the report of such ship shall have been or ought to have been made; and the time of such departure shall be deemed to be the time of the last clearance of such ship with the collector and comptroller for the voyage upon which she had departed.—§ 125.

Returns of Duties overpaid.—Although any duty of customs shall have been overpaid, or although, after any duty of customs shall have been charged and paid, it shall appear or be judicially established that the same had been charged under an erroneous construction of the law, it shall not be lawful to return any such overcharge after the expiration of 3 years from the date of such payment.—§ 126.

Tonnage or Burden of Ships declared.—The tonnage or burden of every British ship within the meaning of this act shall be the tonnage set forth in the certificate of registry of such ship, and the tonnage or burden of every other ship shall, for the purposes of this act, be ascertained in the same manner as the tonnage of British ships is ascertained.—§ 127.

Officers may refuse Master of British Ship, unless indorsed on Register.—It shall be lawful for the officers of customs at any port under British dominion where there shall be a collector and comptroller of the customs, to refuse to admit any person to do any act at such port as master of any British ship, unless his name shall be inserted in or have been indorsed upon the certificate of registry of such ship as being the master thereof, or until his name shall have been so indorsed by such collector and comptroller.—§ 128.

Falsifying Documents.—If any person shall counterfeit or falsify, or wilfully use when counterfeited or falsified, any entry, warrant, cocket, or transire, or other document for the unloading, lading, entering, reporting, or clearing of any ship or vessel, or for the landing or shipping of any goods, stores, baggage, or article whatever, or shall by any false statement procure any writing or document to be made for any of such purposes, every person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 200*l.*; provided always, that this penalty shall not attach to any particular offence for which any other penalty shall be expressly imposed by any law in force for the time being.—§ 129.

Authority of an Agent may be required.—Whenever any person shall make any application to any officer of the customs to transact any business on behalf of any other person, it shall be lawful for such officer to require of the person so applying to produce a written authority from the person on whose behalf such application shall be made, and in default of the production of such authority, to refuse to transact such business.—§ 130.

Persons falsifying Declaration liable to Penalty.—If any declaration required to be made by this act or by any other act relating to the customs (except declarations to the value of goods) be untrue in any particular, or if any person required by this act or by any other act relating to the customs to answer questions put to him by the officers of the customs, touching certain matters, shall not truly answer such questions, the person making such declaration or answering such questions shall, over and above any other penalty to which he may become subject, forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and if the proprietor of the same shall accept the terms and conditions prescribed by the said commissioners, he shall not have or maintain any action for recompence or damage on account of such seizure or detention; and the person making such seizure shall not proceed in any manner for condemnation.—§ 131.

Restoration of seized Goods, Ships, &c.—In case any goods, ships, vessels, or boats shall be seized as forfeited, or detained as under-valued, by virtue of any act of parliament relating to the customs, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to order the same to be restored in such manner and on such terms and conditions as they shall think fit to direct; and if the proprietor of the same shall accept the terms and conditions prescribed by the said commissioners, he shall not have or maintain any action for recompence or damage on account of such seizure or detention; and the person making such seizure shall not proceed in any manner for condemnation.—§ 132.

Remission of Forfeitures, &c.—If any ship shall have become liable to forfeiture on account of any goods laden therein, or unladen therefrom, or if the master of any ship shall have become liable to any penalty on account of any goods laden in such ship or unladen therefrom, and such goods shall be small in quantity or of trifling value, and it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that such goods had been laden or unladen contrary to the intention of the owners of such ship, or without the privity of the master thereof, as the case may be, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to remit such forfeiture, and also to remit or mitigate such penalty as they shall see reason to acquit such master of all blame in respect of such offence, or more or less to attribute the commission of such offence to neglect of duty on his part as master of such ship; and

IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.

Treasury may extend Regulations to other Ports.—It shall be lawful for the said commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, by their warrant, to be published in the *London or Dublin Gazette*, to extend the regulations herein made relating to agents in the port of London to agents at any other port in Great Britain, or at any port in Ireland.—§ 148.

(The commissioners of customs, agreeably to the powers given them to that effect by the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 135. (see vol. ii. p. 17.), have appointed the undermentioned places, within the several ports of the United Kingdom, at which vessels coming into or departing out of such ports shall bring to, for the boarding or landing of customs officers. Every master of a vessel failing to comply with the provisions of said act in this respect forfeits 100*l.*

ENGLAND.

Ports	Stations for bringing in.
London	Greenwich Reach, below the Custom-house.
Aberystwith	On the bar, a little above the junction of the rivers Rhylod and Ystwith.
Aberdeevy	A little to the westward of the town, in the river Dore.
Aldborough	Oxford Haven, the entrance of the river Ouse and Aids.
Arundel	The pier on the eastern side of the river, between the revenue watch-house and the Duke of Norfolk's Quay, in the harbour of Littlehampton.
Barnstaple	Stevn and watch-house, Appledora.
Bassamorie	Opposite the town, at Fryar's Roads.
Bilbush	In the roadstead opposite the town.
Canway	In the bay off the town, opposite the Bell Tower, and at Abernoot.
Cardarvan	The entrance of the harbour, by the Glumbel Reach.
Carlisle	In the harbour.
Cardiff	In the harbour.
Cardigan	At the entrance of the harbour, near the pier head.
Cardigan	Stevn and watch-house, Appledora.
Cardigan	Hob Hole.
Cardigan	Between Bevelall Point, on the coast of the Bristol Channel, and Black Rock, about a mile within the mouth of the river Parrot.
Cardigan	The bay or harbour.
Cardigan	The outer buoy, distant about 800 yards, abreast of the harbour.
Cardigan	Pill and Kingswood.
Cardigan	Fenrit Road, a little to the eastward of the mouth of the river Taft.
Cardigan	At Penlone, a little inside the bar or harbour's mouth.
Cardigan	Fisher's Cross.
Cardigan	At the entrance of the river Wye.
Cardigan	Lawson, 8 miles from Heylake.
Cardigan	Cockshut Harbour.
Cardigan	Bilchary and Clay Harbour.
Cardigan	Coln Nivas, off Mersea Stone, Mersea Island.
Cardigan	Rowndest of Caves, extending from east to west about 1 1/2 miles.
Cardigan	Between the mouth of the harbour and Sand-easy Point.
Cardigan	At the mouth of the harbour and Snags Point.
Cardigan	In the Haven, in open roadstead.
Cardigan	The outer harbour.
Cardigan	In the harbour.
Cardigan	At the Foreign Way, Rymouth.
Cardigan	At the Point.
Cardigan	In the harbour, off Hills Quay and watch-house.
Cardigan	Between the mouth of Faverham Creek and the Horse Sand in the East Swale.
Cardigan	At the mouth of Milton Creek in the Swale.
Cardigan	Near the Custom-house, not far from the entrance of the harbour.
Cardigan	At the outfall, near the entrance of the harbour.
Cardigan	Yull Roads.
Cardigan	Flis Ferry, near the Isle of Walney.
Cardigan	In the harbour, between the Guard and Walton Ferry.
Cardigan	In the harbour, between the Guard and Walton Ferry.
Cardigan	In their respective bays.
Cardigan	Glasgow Dock, on the river Lane.
Cardigan	Sea Dyke, entrance of the river Wythe.
Cardigan	Flis Ferry, near the Isle of Walney.
Cardigan	Leigh Sluic, or Leigh Sluic, which channel is formed by the spit of a sand called Marsh End, leading from the east end of Carvy Island, and nearly opposite to a windmill, called the Hamlet Mill, situated upon the Cliff, about 1 1/2 a mile to the westward of Southend, and about 3 miles from Leigh.
Cardigan	At the entrance of the respective docks.
Cardigan	The basin within the pier or cobb of Lyme Regis.
Cardigan	Nottingham Point, intermediate space between Common Mouth Quay, where the estuary narrows into a river, about 3 miles

Ports.

Ports.	Stations for bringing in.
Malden	below the town, or at near as circumstances permit within the point.
Malden	Barrow Hills, opposite Blackwater River, Malden.
Milford	In the haven, opposite the town of Milford.
Minehead	The entrance of the harbour.
Minehead	Opposite the watch-house, at the entrance of the river Tyne.
Minehead	Low Light, North Shields.
Minehead	At the entrance of the harbour.
Minehead	In the stream, between the pier and the tide surveyor's watch-house.
Minehead	At the watch-house, 1 mile from the Custom-house.
Minehead	Hawker's Cove, within the harbour.
Minehead	Graves Ledge.
Minehead	St. Michael's Mount Roads.
Minehead	Within the line of the breakwater, viz. the Sound, Catwater, and Hamozan.
Minehead	At the entrance of the harbour, between South Deep, opposite Brownes Castle, and the Essex buoy, opposite the cattle stable.
Minehead	Between Blackhouse Point and the north end of her Majesty's dock-yard.
Minehead	In the roadstead, within 1 mile of the Spit Buoy.
Minehead	In the harbour.
Minehead	At the entrance of the harbour.
Minehead	Shorewich.
Minehead	Shorewich.
Minehead	The outer channel, and in King's Hole, in the inner channel.
Minehead	In the open roadstead.
Minehead	In the open roadstead.
Minehead	Entrance of the harbour, opposite the light-house, at the end of Vincent's Pier.
Minehead	At the entrance of the harbour, in the western branch, opposite the customs watch-house and Kingsway Wharf.
Minehead	Itchen buoy, or Burdison buoy.
Minehead	Opposite the jetty, near the entrance of the harbour.
Minehead	Ninth buoy, or opposite Cleveland Pier.
Minehead	In the bay, within 1-1/2 a mile of St. Ives pier.
Minehead	The same.
Minehead	At the entrance of the harbour, near the watch house on the South pier.
Minehead	In the harbour.
Minehead	Brion Ferry, near the entrance of Meath River.
Minehead	Falmouth harbour.
Minehead	Between the entrance of the harbour and Wells Quay.
Minehead	Weymouth Roads.
Minehead	The harbour.
Minehead	In the harbour, between the league and bulwark.
Minehead	In their respective harbours.
Minehead	At the light-houses about 3 miles below the station at Sutton Wash.
Minehead	Bawday Ferry, the entrance of the river Deben.
Minehead	Farmouth Roads, between Nelson's monument and the haven's mouth—on the Reach, a short distance within the haven's mouth, at the S. E. angle of the river.

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeen	That part of Aberdeen Bay which falls within a line beginning at the easternmost point of the Glidra Ness, and running north 1-1/2 miles, to a point due east of the centre of the Broad Hill.
Aberdeen	The bay.
Aberdeen	Within the pier at Ythan, opposite to the village Newburgh.
Aberdeen	Stonehaven Bay, within 800 yards of the entrance of the harbour.
Aberdeen	South Quay at Ayr.
Aberdeen	The Loyal Quays.
Aberdeen	The harbour.
Aberdeen	Caroline Roads, 1-1/2 mile to the eastward of the harbour of Dundee.
Aberdeen	Entrance of the harbour.
Aberdeen	Entrance of the harbour.
Aberdeen	The harbour.
Aberdeen	The harbour.
Aberdeen	The harbour.
Aberdeen	Entrance of the harbour.
Aberdeen	Alton roadstead.
Aberdeen	Kilcarrick roadstead.
Aberdeen	From Gravel Point, to the eastward of the town of Greenock, in the county of

Port *Station for bringing in.*
Reference to Edinburgh Point, being the western point of Gordon Bay, including Shewna, Carolynda Bay, Grosvenor Roads, the anchorage at the tail of the loch, and Gorecock Bay.
Bay *Bay of Inverary, lying and being within Bonyay Point, on the east of the town of Bonyay, in the Isle of Bute, county of Bute, and Arinich Point, on the west of the said town.*
Oban *Oban Bay, in the county of Argyll, as the whole of Oban, lying and being within Arinich Point, on the western side, and Cairn Point, on the western side of the said bay.*
Toburnery *The Bay of Toburnery, lying and being within Leding Point in the south-east, Fortinara Point to the north-west, and the Isle of Colvish to the east of Toburnery, Isle of Mull, county of Argyll.*
Inverary *The residence of Inverary, lying and being off the town of Inverary, in the county of Argyll, and extending 1/2 a mile north-west of the quay of the said town.*
Lochgoilhead *Lochgoilhead Bay, at the east end of the Crinan Canal, lying and being within Arinich Point, on the western side of Lochgoilhead and Kilmory Point, on the western side of the said loch.*
Portree *The harbour.*
Oban *The harbour.*
Kilmory *Entrance of the harbour.*
Edinburgh *Edinburgh Roads.*
Edinburgh *Kilmory Bay.*
Edinburgh *Large Bay.*
Edinburgh *Entrance to their respective harbours.*
Edinburgh *St. Andrew's Bay.*
Edinburgh *The Bay, or Kirkwall Roads, extending along the beach, in a north-east direction, to Thiel's Hole, and in a westerly direction to Quaternary Sherry, thence in a southerly direction to the Legal Quay. The bay called Calston Roads.*
Edinburgh *Between the Martello tower and chain pier at Newhaven.*
Edinburgh *In the harbour.*
Edinburgh *In the harbour.*
Edinburgh *In the bay, opposite the Custom-house.*
Edinburgh *Within the bay, at the entrance of the river South Esk, which is called the Still.*
Edinburgh *The harbour.*

Port *Station for bringing in.*
Port Glasgow *Port Glasgow Roads, or residential, comprising of the black and white shoogard buoy, on the east point of the bank called the Trench, distant from the harbour about 200 yards, and extending in a south-westerly direction by the corner of the river Clyde to the old Vire, called Newark Castle.*
Edinburgh *The harbour.*
Edinburgh *The harbour of Bonyay.*
Edinburgh *The harbour.*
Edinburgh *Thorn Bay, within Holburn Head to the anchorage ground at Bonyay Roads.*
Edinburgh *Wish Bay, whose channel or within the head called the Old Man of Wish.*
IRELAND.
Baltimore *At the entrance of the harbours of Castle Trovwood, Crook Haven, Bore Haven.*
Belfast *Gormy's Roads, in Belfast Lough.*
Belfast *Port Rush Bay, outside the harbour.*
Belfast *Between the Bell buoy and the tower of Cove.*
Belfast *Between Ferry Point to the southward and Howe Head to the northward.*
Belfast *Upper Cove, on the eastern side of the harbour.*
Belfast *Within the entrance of the harbour, between Blackhead Head to the eastward, and Ferry Point.*
Belfast *North Creek, at the entrance of the Boyne.*
Belfast *In the river Boyne, opposite Quosborough.*
Belfast *Four-bay, between the Quosborough light-house and the end of the North Wall.*
Belfast *Buller's Point.*
Belfast *To the eastward, or under the shelter of, Fintona Island.*
Belfast *Within the entrance of the harbour, between the end of the North Wall of Turbot Island, in the county of Sligo.*
Belfast *Greenacres, situated on the north side of the harbour.*
Belfast *Warren Point, at Anally's Town Bay.*
Belfast *Ballyhour Bay, or Anally's Town Bay.*
Belfast *Cruder Island.*
Belfast *Alachomas of Kilmory.*
Belfast *In the river, ahead of Ward Town-house.*
Belfast *White Head.*
Belfast *Kilfin Point.*
Belfast *Passage.*
Belfast *The harbour.*
Belfast *The anchorage ground at Anagh Head, in Clew Bay.*
Belfast *South Bay, about 10 miles from Westford.*

[It was at first intended by the American editor to annex to the present article such information concerning the topics treated in it, and having relation to the United States, as might be desirable for those occasionally to refer to who consult a commercial dictionary. On proceeding to this task, however, it became manifest to him that the execution of his design was quite impracticable in any thing like reasonable bounds. Not to speak of copying the very words of the acts of Congress, or of the sections of acts of Congress, which prescribe the course in every case to be pursued by the importer or exporter of merchandise, a digest only of these enactments, after the manner of Gordon, would occupy altogether a disproportionate space in the present work. Indeed, the space occupied by the 9th book of this author, much of which contains matter that would have a claim for insertion here, amounts to no less than 900 closely printed octavo pages.

For the reason which has been stated, the reader is referred for the information in question to *Story's Laws of the United States*, or to *Gordon's Digest* of those laws.—*Am. Ed.]*

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, THE ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM A COUNTRY.

We have explained in another article (**BALANCE OF TRADES**), the mode in which the value of the imports and exports is officially determined by the Custom-house, and have shown the fallacy of the common notions as to the advantage of the exports exceeding the imports. The scale of prices according to which the official value of the imports and exports is determined having been fixed so far back as 1698, the account is of no use as showing their true value; but it is of material importance as showing the fluctuations in their quantity. We were anxious, had the means existed, to have given accounts of the various articles imported and exported at different periods during the last century, that the comparative increase or diminution of the trade in each might have been exhibited in one general view. Unluckily, however, no means exist for completing such an account. The Tables published by Sir Charles Whitworth, Mr. Macpherson, and others, specify only the aggregate value of the imports from and exports to particular countries, without specifying the articles or their value of which such imports and exports consisted. And on applying at the Custom-house, we found that the fire in 1814 had destroyed the records; so that there were no means of compiling any complete account of the value of the articles imported or exported previously to that period. We therefore have been obliged to confine ourselves, except as respects the period since 1815, to an attempt to exhibit the amount of the trade with each country for such periods as seemed best calculated to show its real progress. Those selected for this purpose, in the first of the following Tables, are periods of peace; for, during war, the com-

merce with particular countries is limited as to afford no more than a Table. (with the exception of such extraordinary circumstances of duties, or any other; and as they extend to the progress of the foreign trade, by Mr. Cesar M. either been copied from in a brief space, by far half dozen years ending with the value of our export trade.

During the first half of the article of native products, cutlery, leather manufactures, earthenware, provision, down to 1770; since war, very decidedly on account of the export of the cotton manufactures and yarn amount, at this time, and manufactures!—(8) tively stationary.

The principal articles of corn, timber and naval stores, and spirits, tobacco, silk, and other foreign products, re-exported.

I. Account of the Official Value of the Trade with each Country, at an Annual Mean, the Trade with each Country.

Countries.	Imports into O.	
	1698-1701.	1748-
Europe, British and foreign.	£ 1,868,176	£ 2,130,150
Foreign, North America.	1,400,904	1,500,000
Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Man, and the Welsh Fisheries.	487,640	740,000
Gibraltar (from 1801), Malta and the Ionian Islands.	-	111,000
Europe, British and foreign.	8,068,780	4,570,000
Asia.	658,081	1,115,000
Africa.	17,421	30,000
America.	1,025,780	8,625,000
Grand Total.	6,569,958	6,311,000
Europe, North America.	110,448	45,000
Sweden.	215,657	18,000
Denmark and Norway.	77,508	84,000
Prussia.	181,199	80,000
Germany.	381,199	80,000
Netherlands.	68,410	60,000
Europe, South America.	86,025	60,000
Portugal.	302,360	300,000
Spain.	685,537	675,000
Italy.	318,537	575,000
Turkey.	876,906	160,000
America, North America.	956,400	800,000
British colonies.	15,917	48,000
America, South America.	-	-
British West Indies.	714,761	1,580,000
Foreign ditto (from 1808, Brazil and Span. colon.)	-	1,000,000

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

merce with particular countries is liable to be extended or depressed so far beyond its natural limits as to afford no means of judging of its ordinary amount. The averages given in the Table (with the exception of 1802), are sufficiently extensive to neutralise the influence of such extraordinary circumstances (whether arising from bad harvests, the repeal or imposition of duties, or any other cause), as might materially affect an average for 2 or 3 years only; and as they extend from 1698 to 1822, they afford a pretty complete view of the progress of the foreign trade of Great Britain. This Table was compiled from official documents by Mr. Cesar Moreau, and may be safely relied on. The Tables which follow have either been copied from, or have been founded upon, official returns. Nos. IV. and V. give, in a brief space, by far the most complete view of the foreign trade of the empire during the half dozen years ending with 1835, than is anywhere to be met with. The proportional value of our export trade to different countries is, for the first time, exhibited in Table V.

During the first half of last century, and previously, woollen goods formed the principal article of native produce exported from Great Britain; and next to it were hardware and cutlery, leather manufactures, linen, tin, and lead, copper and brass manufactures, coal, earthenware, provision, slops, &c. Corn formed a considerable article in the list of exports down to 1770; since which period the balance of the corn trade has been, with a few exceptions, very decidedly on the side of importation. Cotton did not begin to be of any importance as an article of export till after 1770; but since then the extension and improvement of the cotton manufacture has been so astonishingly great, that the exports of cotton stuffs and yarn amount, at this moment, to about a half of the entire exports of British produce and manufactures.—(See vol. i. p. 526.) The export of woollen goods has been comparatively stationary.

The principal articles of import during the last half century have consisted of sugar, tea, corn, timber and naval stores, cotton wool, sheep's wool, woods and drugs for dyeing, wine and spirits, tobacco, silk, tallow, hides and skins, coffee, spices, bullion, &c. Of the colonial and other foreign products imported into England, considerable quantities have always been re-exported.

TABLES OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

I. Account of the Official Value of the Import and Export Trade of Great Britain with all Parts of the World, at an Annual Medium of the undermentioned Periods; specifying the separate Amount of the Trade with each Country for such Periods.

Countries.	Imports into Great Britain from all Parts, of all Sorts of Products.					Exports from Great Britain to all Parts, of all Sorts of Products.				
	Annual Medium of Five Periods of Peace, viz.					Annual Medium of Five Periods of Peace, viz.				
	1698-1701.	1740-1745.	1784-1788.	In 1802.	1816-1822.	1698-1701.	1740-1745.	1784-1788.	In 1802.	1816-1822.
Europe, British and foreign	1,826,370	2,136,870	2,825,809	3,615,853	4,391,935	2,114,285	4,168,680	4,781,925	15,015,269	17,010,202
Foreign, North	1,490,904	1,593,468	2,080,914	3,123,007	3,308,503	1,431,391	2,194,439	2,167,130	7,309,391	9,894,967
South										
Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Man, and the Whole Fishery	487,460	746,582	2,483,984	3,339,841	3,143,220	429,353	1,353,504	2,951,681	3,969,391	4,077,630
Gibraltar from 1801, Malta and Ioania Islands		111,823	12,236	119,318	147,961	398,594	641,266	210,556	542,404	5,546,564
Europe, British and foreign	3,826,730	4,937,911	5,198,015	12,997,978	15,491,596	5,366,482	9,391,268	10,411,028	28,430,141	31,690,028
Asia	555,031	1,119,156	2,779,136	5,794,308	7,119,159	214,212	714,105	1,795,747	2,909,916	3,319,446
Africa	17,481	34,879	82,932	168,968	327,999	114,043	313,541	809,549	618,179	591,712
America	1,023,780	2,523,908	3,252,348	12,480,970	14,048,949	737,876	2,001,690	6,805,938	10,886,699	17,665,343
Grand Total	4,569,939	6,111,248	17,716,752	31,448,318	34,921,228	6,449,594	12,220,974	18,621,942	41,671,968	58,126,146
Europe, North	110,448	49,105	1,418,146	1,192,430	2,858,978	60,899	107,864	894,656	1,261,558	2,228,735
Russia	815,467	187,832	961,983	367,350	136,339	69,454	19,829	70,617	90,616	145,317
Sweden										
Denmark and Norway	77,528	54,577	140,139	158,675	198,617	39,574	97,508	394,108	437,016	622,910
Prussia	181,186	320,333	656,544	1,057,823	653,090	152,269	171,091	117,947	815,262	1,002,961
Germany	951,196	687,905	542,291	1,196,030	694,741	737,821	1,345,912	1,556,311	5,008,237	5,772,671
Netherlands	924,410	407,340	717,007	1,000,798	961,369	2,044,236	2,443,547	2,311,966	4,393,417	4,327,316
Europe, South	86,026	60,962	458,731	424,424	737,390	168,115	437,483	921,492	2,280,103	1,314,079
France	302,999	298,549	815,496	961,711	492,193	845,423	1,181,529	673,348	1,284,344	1,293,144
Portugal	695,537	437,899	784,207	699,687	675,496	840,423	1,126,337	708,179	1,431,324	618,298
Spain	318,297	578,445	833,282	722,501	624,253	143,549	235,476	793,843	1,850,418	2,699,745
Italy										
Turkey	376,906	168,071	184,545	183,424	308,678	218,002	133,674	131,377	183,184	764,118
America, North	890,402	691,160	998,409	1,928,504	3,397,426	697,546	1,228,161	2,239,424	5,395,490	6,993,966
United States	18,417	48,750	231,418	267,935	716,573	16,491	72,964	954,469	1,350,888	1,715,830
British colonies										
America, South										
British - West Indies	714,761	1,586,183	3,080,674	6,531,176	7,926,215	231,839	664,067	1,662,522	3,928,618	6,030,367
Foreign ditto (from 1806, Brazil and Span. colon.)		1,898	183,663	1,658,956	2,138,674					

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

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IV. Account of the different Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1832, 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Assaults	16,000	167,071	227,001	180,071	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Beef and mutton	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Arms and acc.	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	£ 200,000	£ 200,000	£ 200,000	£ 200,000
Barth and retail	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Blank for banking or shipping	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	700,000	£ 700,000	£ 700,000	£ 700,000	£ 700,000
Blank not for banking or shipping	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Bronze	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Brass	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Coal, unmanufactured	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	£ 1,000,000	£ 1,000,000	£ 1,000,000	£ 1,000,000
British platinum	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
East India and Mauritius	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Foreign platinum	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Total	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000	£ 50,000,000	£ 50,000,000	£ 50,000,000	£ 50,000,000
Cotton, viz.—																
British platinum	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
East India	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Foreign	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
All sorts	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Fishes and shells	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Chemicals and crown goods	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Cotton wool from foreign countries, viz.—																
Brazil	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Tulay and Egypt	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Other	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Cotton wool from British possessions, viz.—																
East India and Mauritius	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
British West Indies	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Other British possessions	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Total quantities	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	500,000,000	£ 500,000,000	£ 500,000,000	£ 500,000,000	£ 500,000,000
Cotton manufactures, viz.—																
From ports of call	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
From ports of call	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000
Cotton yarn	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000	£ 100,000

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

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Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., continued.

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities Imported.				Quantities Exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1882.	1884.	1885.		1882.	1884.	1885.		1882.	1884.	1885.		1882.	1884.	1885.	
	Value, £.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Cwt.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Cwt.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Cwt.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Value, £.	Cwt.
Herd wools, viz.	527	1,038	877		82	45	18		585	657	790		1,698	2,220	2,940	
Beeswax	1,137	1,574	15,097		731	1,236	1,712		11,522	12,635	13,712		2,177	2,320	2,360	
Machinery	15,564	15,557	2,473		105	105	42		1,745	1,745	1,415		1,670	2,280	1,302	
Books	582	1,677	2,473		188	105	42		1,745	1,745	1,415		1,670	2,280	1,302	
Iron, brass, &c.	No.	11,685	15,847		0	0	0		5,525	5,547	10,026		1,365	1,379	1,441	
Of straw	169,429	25,723	16,550		60,020	23,545	17,117		21,499	11,497	5,540		17,360	6,270	6,270	
Of wood	18,100	22,225	45,976		1,368	1,368	753		50	50	150		47	47	150	
Of iron	18,100	22,225	45,976		1,368	1,368	753		50	50	150		47	47	150	
Of brass, &c.	18,100	22,225	45,976		1,368	1,368	753		50	50	150		47	47	150	
Of other	18,100	22,225	45,976		1,368	1,368	753		50	50	150		47	47	150	
Unmanufactured straw for plaiting	5,400	5,400	5,400		14	14	29		17,811	17,811	21,811		15,174	15,174	20,812	
Hemp, unmanufactured	529	1,537	67,559		32	32	136		76,846	76,846	83,132		811	811	811	
Hides, unmanufactured	565,564	67,559	67,559		21,410	21,410	18,672		64,951	64,951	64,132		57,478	57,478	57,478	
Birds, salt, or cove, or horse hides	186,631	255,307	310,877		29,249	29,249	18		141,528	141,528	204,127		34,019	34,019	43,167	
Hides or pieces of hides unmanufactured	1,525	1,525	1,525		239	239	119		1,023	1,023	1,023		1,023	1,023	1,023	
Hides, tanned, viz.—	18,524	65,729	79,792		10,525	10,525	4,824		43,278	43,278	81,682		219	219	1,041	
Machinery or harness	1,865	5,139	5,139		4,650	4,650	48		9,405	9,405	9,405		3	3	1,285	
Hides and pieces of hides unmanufactured	29,249	45,705	61,111		9,383	9,383	10,509		14,008	14,008	20,536		1,761	1,761	2,445	
Ships	22,283	68,111	73,000		3,269	3,269	5,577		64,071	64,071	64,286		9,002	9,002	1,280	
Iron bar	19,248	18,915	19,750		9,054	9,054	2,225		14,679	14,679	17,972		21,097	21,097	21,097	
Iron pipes	1,919	1,976	1,976		21	21	41		1,955	1,955	1,955		1,955	1,955	1,955	
Leather shoes	1,000	790	1,372		9,015	9,015	28,025		1,000	1,000	1,000		1,000	1,000	1,000	
Leather	1,516,022	1,637,844	1,820,519		81,264	81,264	28,025		1,700,124	1,700,124	1,820,519		27,100	27,100	27,100	
Leather, viz.—	4,479	40,220	47,696		629	629	204		43,864	43,864	45,318		64,286	64,286	64,286	
Leather, viz.—	1,624	2,625	10,877		343	343	43		1,739	1,739	2,774		2,774	2,774	2,774	
Leather, viz.—	13,526	745	1,724		2,822	2,822	1,077		5,666	5,666	6,541		6,541	6,541	6,541	
Leather, viz.—	359	574	40		10	10	4		329	329	411		411	411	411	
Leather, viz.—	48,701	48,701	48,701		17,914	17,914	14,430		14,430	14,430	14,430		14,430	14,430	14,430	
Leather, viz.—	41,362	41,362	41,362		41,362	41,362	41,362		41,362	41,362	41,362		41,362	41,362	41,362	
Leather, viz.—	5,519	5,519	5,519		5,519	5,519	5,519		5,519	5,519	5,519		5,519	5,519	5,519	
Leather, viz.—	12,500	12,500	12,500		12,500	12,500	12,500		12,500	12,500	12,500		12,500	12,500	12,500	
Leather, viz.—	5,769	5,769	5,769		5,769	5,769	5,769		5,769	5,769	5,769		5,769	5,769	5,769	
Leather, viz.—	668,635	717,834	800,281		1,120	1,120	2,075		668,635	668,635	800,281		82,475	82,475	82,475	
Leather, viz.—	301,028	681,237	1,100,277		28,117	28,117	61,296		477,448	477,448	646,630		2,545	2,545	2,545	
Leather, viz.—	1,000	1,000	1,000		1,000	1,000	1,000		1,000	1,000	1,000		1,000	1,000	1,000	
Leather, viz.—	22,526	22,526	22,526		22,526	22,526	22,526		22,526	22,526	22,526		22,526	22,526	22,526	
Leather, viz.—	30,776	30,776	30,776		30,776	30,776	30,776		30,776	30,776	30,776		30,776	30,776	30,776	
Leather, viz.—	28,676	28,676	28,676		28,676	28,676	28,676		28,676	28,676	28,676		28,676	28,676	28,676	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761	
Leather, viz.—	1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761	1,761		1,761	1,761						

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., continued.

Description of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.						Quantities exported.						Quantities retained for Consumption.						Net Revenue.						
	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	
Spirits, &c.	8,671,809	8,282,515	8,170,597	8,165,756	8,177,553	8,177,553	812,236	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497	703,497
Wine, &c.	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540	270,540
Tea	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876	34,876
Opium	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119	1,119
... (many more rows) ...																									
TOTAL	16,936,311	16,936,311	16,936,311	16,936,311	16,936,311	16,936,311	4,453,992	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	3,447,677	

Quantities retained for Consumption.

Account of the real or de- United Kingdom, exports specifying the Countries each; and showing, also try, and to each Quarter whole Exports to be 1,00

Countries.	1880.
Europe.	1,499,532
Russia	40,422
Sweden	60,530
Norway	118,315
Denmark	177,522
Prussia	4,463,003
Germany	2,029,438
Holland	475,389
Belgium	30,412
France	36,412
Portugal, Proper	607,000
Algarve	42,000
Spain and the Balearic Islands	234,784
Canary Islands	67,000
Gibraltar	524,784
Italy and the Italian Islands	180,130
Malta	84,000
Ionian Islands	1,108,610
Turkey and Constantinople	9,994
Crete (exclusive of Morae)	344,000
Morae & Greek Islands	16,934,674
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	344,000
Asia.	4,453,992
Arabia	4,453,992
East Indies Comp. & Territories and Ceylon	189,108
China	1,100,000
Holland and Java	1,100,000
Philippine Islands	344,677
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	1,390
South Sea Islands	10,467
Port of Spain	4,453,992
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	110,297
Port of Spain	1,198
Port of Spain	10,467
Africa.	16,936,311
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	16,936,311
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	1,198
Western Coast of Africa	252,123
Cape of Good Hope	330,038
Cape of Verd Islands - St. Helena	1,710
Isle of Bourbon	89,918
Mauritius	10,028
Nauritius	161,028
TOTAL	905,230
Europe	15,964,767
Asia	4,453,992
Africa	905,230
American	16,936,311
TOTAL	28,271,897

J. B. - The reader will find a sequel to the above, in the countries to which articles during the six years ending with their average annual

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Account of the real or declared Value of the various Articles of the Manufacture and Produce of the United Kingdom, exported to Foreign Countries during each of the Six Years ending with 1835; specifying the Countries to which they were exported and the Value of those annually shipped for each; and showing, also, the average Amount of Exports during the said Six Years to each Country, and to each Quarter of the Globe; and the average Proportion exported to each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830-1835.	Average and Proportion exported to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.
Europe.								
Russia	1,488,538	1,101,545	1,597,850	1,651,003	1,592,300	1,752,775	1,488,073	87.187,767
Sweden	40,488	57,127	64,833	55,549	63,094	105,158	65,058	1.043,560
Norway	60,938	66,580	54,488	55,038	81,908	73,378	69,890	1.046,749
Denmark	118,818	92,884	93,988	99,961	94,958	107,979	101,111	1.048,598
Prussia	177,928	192,616	255,568	144,179	136,438	189,373	183,038	4.064,757
Germany	4,463,605	2,649,952	6,098,987	4,355,548	4,547,188	4,804,968	4,446,874	110,900,917
Holland	2,032,458	2,082,586	2,788,386	2,191,858	2,470,287	2,646,453	2,470,287	60,208,781
Belgium				885,439	705,059	918,467		
France	478,894	807,688	674,781	845,333	1,116,988	1,443,096	892,084	11.466,818
Portugal, Proper	1,104,695	975,981	640,785	967,081	1,000,128	1,554,326	1,124,169	28,037,010
Algarve	33,659	41,538	77,930	64,450	63,275	49,717	61,738	1,081,101
Madeira	36,444	36,980	35,038	33,411	36,455	40,068	36,936	903,459
Spain and the Baleares Islands	607,068	597,845	442,924	443,897	525,807	405,065	407,874	11,728,757
Canary Islands	45,640	53,342	51,053	30,507	30,698	34,508	30,408	748,477
Gibraltar	284,780	267,585	461,470	368,460	480,719	602,569	482,378	10,948,968
Italy and the Italian Islands	8,551,750	5,490,376	9,961,773	9,314,980	8,928,777	5,426,171	8,898,123	67,642,348
Malta	188,135	134,819	95,994	136,438	245,098	136,925	155,951	8,990,451
Ionian Islands	68,908	50,883	55,783	83,915	84,490	107,304	67,685	1,682,561
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of Moravia)	1,138,618	896,654	918,819	1,018,604	1,907,941	1,831,689	1,263,801	87,050,228
Moravia & Great Islands	9,984	10,446	10,148	23,814	37,179	23,354	30,369	508,007
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	344,036	324,684	317,496	336,954	260,866	351,612	339,068	8,456,903
Europe	16,934,674	13,875,074	18,901,802	15,947,728	18,267,086	16,816,845	16,477,120	410,948,819
Asia.								
Arabia					250	6,049	1,050	668,187
Bassindia Comp ^y Territories and Ceylon	6,886,530	2,377,412	3,514,779	4,496,901	6,478,569	3,192,682	6,842,681	68,684,081
China					842,952	1,074,706	316,903	7,970,718
Sumatra and Java	162,102	285,936	150,006	471,712	410,273	363,492	306,647	7,682,600
Philippine Islands	71,230	36,913	102,994	185,288	70,819	129,748	100,779	8,919,449
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and New South River	844,677	366,471	466,838	558,372	718,014	696,346	385,030	13,004,109
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,398	4,782	1,678	936		8,897	1,891	647,169
Ports of Siam	10,467				18,742		8,036	125,574
Asia	4,454,969	4,105,444	4,231,480	4,711,619	4,644,918	4,456,116	4,601,980	114,759,778
Africa.								
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	116,927	122,988	113,108	145,647	169,877	269,325	158,330	9,980,633
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	1,196	486	751	2,150	14,923	59,040	5,098	701,717
Western Coast of Africa	852,123	324,789	280,061	623,810	826,483	901,540	887,630	11,171,088
Capo de Good Hope	300,536	357,245	492,405	846,197	804,368	866,881	906,581	7,719,704
Capo de Verd Islands	1,710	516		148	680	679	689	318,168
St. Helena	36,918	86,431	31,898	60,041	91,618	31,187	32,071	799,858
Ile of Bourbon	10,042				7,091		2,845	671,214
Mauritius	161,059	148,475	163,191	83,424	149,319	198,569	162,833	9,748,358
Africa	905,220	808,392	880,753	907,015	983,120	1,146,047	944,367	33,649,967
America.								
British North American Colonies	1,667,138	2,090,337	2,075,798	3,002,550	1,671,000	2,159,158	1,990,680	68,647,474
British West Indies	2,836,446	2,591,949	2,436,808	2,527,549	2,690,044	3,197,540	2,720,463	87,599,810
Havti	321,768	378,103	643,104	861,826	367,997	666,796	800,937	9,700,630
Cuba, and other foreign West Indies	616,089	663,591	633,700	677,698	105,005	787,648	696,766	17,427,181
U. States of America	3,132,348	3,033,383	3,498,372	7,078,599	6,844,980	10,586,410	7,607,980	189,744,066
Mexico	974,441	748,960	196,841	461,487	430,910	608,335	331,840	10,964,201
Guatemala				5,710	30,968	15,914	5,813	214,431
Colombia	819,751	3,169,290	908,548	121,686	199,896	152,848	870,499	4,696,961
Brazil	2,484,103	1,358,371	2,144,303	2,516,660	2,480,970	2,600,797	2,360,417	66,145,870
States of the Rio de la Plata	682,172	309,870	680,168	815,808	661,664	686,985	608,574	18,120,870
Chili	840,626	651,617	648,183	918,217	896,321	608,178	702,375	17,539,995
Peru	988,469	469,058	875,010	897,584	296,685	441,064	363,588	8,068,484
America	16,966,311	16,960,496	18,432,958	18,070,980	17,644,055	21,964,006	18,073,122	450,747,436
Totals	38,271,697	37,184,373	48,480,584	39,687,847	41,642,181	47,878,870	40,098,896	1,000,000,000
Recapitulation.								
Europe	16,934,674	13,875,074	18,901,802	15,946,723	18,267,086	16,816,845	16,477,120	410,948,819
Asia	4,454,969	4,105,444	4,231,480	4,711,619	4,644,918	4,456,116	4,601,980	114,759,778
Africa	905,220	808,392	880,753	907,015	983,120	1,146,047	944,367	33,649,967
America	16,966,311	16,960,496	18,432,958	18,070,980	17,644,055	21,964,006	18,073,122	450,747,436
Totals	38,271,697	37,184,373	48,480,584	39,687,847	41,642,181	47,878,870	40,098,896	1,000,000,000

N.B.—The reader will find in the Supplement [to this article, p. 33] a table deduced from, and forming a sequel to, the above, but which we could not get inserted in this place. It exhibits the different countries to which articles of the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the six years ending with 1835, arranged in the order of the magnitude of the exports to them, with their average annual amount, and the proportional value of the exports to each.

VI. Account of the Value of the various Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Parts, according to the real or declared Value thereof, in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Articles.	1833.			1834.			1835.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
<i>Great Britain.</i>									
Alum	2,759	1	9	1,515	2	6	1,350	19	7
Apparel, slops, and negro clothing	405,785	6	10	435,297	18	1	484,961	6	6
Arms and ammunition	321,922	10	3	313,960	15	3	493,459	6	0
Bacon and hams	31,039	10	3	85,376	0	0	27,619	4	0
Beef and pork, salted	96,380	6	9	99,162	6	6	104,791	13	4
Beer and ale	323,195	14	1	185,954	4	5	325,641	3	0
Books, printed	124,265	7	7	122,028	0	5	148,098	0	8
Brass and copper manufactures	883,241	6	9	801,096	3	11	1,023,048	4	9
Bread and biscuits	9,231	5	11	7,371	8	8	5,409	4	9
Butter and cheese	105,983	5	6	164,246	6	10	178,666	4	9
Cabinet and upholstery wares	43,417	19	1	47,510	19	9	61,003	6	10
Coals and culm	234,949	6	9	316,205	14	3	222,748	19	5
Cordage	86,919	11	0	80,919	0	3	79,511	9	5
Corns, grain, meal, and flour	32,300	18	6	35,479	11	10	95,108	14	6
Cotton manufactures	13,754,992	17	10	15,981,494	13	0	16,393,170	5	7
yarn	4,304,008	9	1	5,411,014	17	8	5,708,369	11	9
Cows and oxen	654	0	0	1,235	0	0	1,445	0	0
Earthenware of all sorts	496,188	18	6	492,724	8	9	599,989	16	3
Fish of all sorts	234,591	18	0	303,034	6	0	317,552	1	6
Glass of all sorts	437,541	7	10	490,493	14	6	636,927	6	1
Haberdashery and millinery	381,505	16	9	344,515	15	4	516,774	14	6
Hairbrushes and cutlery	1,464,574	0	6	1,484,691	0	3	1,831,768	5	10
Hats, beaver and felt	180,820	9	11	182,644	19	6	185,046	6	10
of all other sorts	19,568	8	4	31,155	3	6	37,497	6	6
Horns	27,699	6	6	15,928	6	6	16,616	6	4
Iron	74,591	18	0	92,414	19	0	99,465	10	0
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	1,403,073	13	3	1,404,756	1	10	1,640,839	3	0
Land	968	17	3	7,187	10	0	11,981	8	0
Lead and shot	130,648	18	0	142,480	13	9	126,088	10	0
Leather, wrought and unwrought	272,985	6	9	242,498	18	0	278,977	18	9
saddlery and harness	49,110	13	6	52,708	6	3	73,947	13	3
Linen manufactures	9,026,692	10	2	9,264,960	5	0	9,838,050	1	4
yarn	72,008	5	0	136,818	11	9	216,694	19	10
Machinery and mill-work	126,697	10	11	211,959	19	8	297,316	7	0
Mathematical and optical instruments	17,792	7	0	31,037	0	4	31,652	1	1
Musical instruments	41,086	10	0	48,319	19	6	60,810	6	0
Oil, tins, or Greenland fishery	80,985	19	5	23,507	14	11	20,073	16	10
Painters' colours	135,417	13	7	192,909	15	5	169,361	5	9
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	179,319	19	6	191,654	3	0	231,900	13	6
Potatoes	10,443	15	6	6,455	17	8	5,993	16	9
Salt	19,380	0	2	149,642	7	6	148,411	14	8
Saltpetre, British refined	11,552	15	0	30,981	17	0	30,983	19	0
Seeds of all sorts	6,981	5	6	7,115	5	9	8,449	6	3
Silk manufactures	737,263	17	10	637,013	15	4	779,478	3	9
Soap and candles	342,684	6	9	243,988	17	0	248,803	10	6
Spirits	12,487	10	9	10,114	19	0	16,888	9	9
Stationery of all sorts	229,532	11	3	238,369	8	9	257,977	1	4
Sugar, refined	462,620	4	3	315,983	19	6	351,745	8	7
Tin, unwrought	86,966	15	0	33,227	1	9	32,299	11	6
and pewter wares and tin plates	233,168	17	4	33,927	14	11	32,810	11	11
Tobacco (manufactured) and snuff	15,778	9	10	18,987	17	0	13,993	11	0
Tongues	2,001	13	0	2,969	17	0	2,481	17	0
Umbrellas and parasols	43,041	9	4	43,761	5	5	45,461	11	4
Whalebone	15,170	18	3	21,437	4	0	13,953	16	0
Wool, sheep's	328,140	0	9	192,175	14	1	387,833	11	10
of other sorts	27,486	10	0	22,878	0	0	45,090	4	0
Woolens and worsted yarn	2,645,374	0	0	2,338,541	11	5	2,901,961	0	0
Woolen manufactures	6,286,648	9	11	5,734,017	6	6	6,336,738	5	7
All other articles	984,328	15	6	954,419	16	11	1,034,162	9	10
Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, exported from Great Britain to foreign parts	39,305,619	19	8	41,826,594	5	8	45,996,370	5	8
<i>Ireland.</i>									
Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, exported from Ireland to foreign parts	255,486	17	7	306,015	4	1	444,116	11	6
<i>United Kingdom.</i>									
Total	39,561,008	17	5	42,132,609	9	7	47,370,485	17	4

* There is a slight discrepancy between the numbers in this and the previous table. They were derived from different parliamentary papers, and these do not always agree.

Causes of the Magnitude of British Commerce.—The immediate cause of the rapid increase and vast magnitude of the commerce of Great Britain is, doubtless, to be found in the extraordinary improvements, and consequent extension, of our manufactures since 1770. The cotton manufacture may be said to have grown up during the intervening period. It must also be borne in mind, that the effect of an improvement in the production of any article in considerable demand is not confined to that particular article, but extends itself to others. Those who produce it according to the old plan, are undersold unless they adopt the same or similar improvements; and the improved article, by coming into competition with others for which it may be substituted, infuses new energy into their producers, and impels every one to put forth all his powers, that he may either preserve his old, or acquire new advantages. The cotton manufacture may be said to be the result of the stupendous inventions and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, and a few others; but we should greatly under-rate the importance of their inventions, if we supposed that their influence was limited to this single department. They imparted a powerful stimulus to every branch of industry. Their success, and that of Watt and Wedgwood, gave that confidence to genius so essential in all great undertakings. After machines had been invented for spinning and weaving cottons, whose fineness emulates the web of the gossamer, and steam-engines had been made "to engrave seals, and to lift a ship like a bauble in the air," every thing seemed

possible—*nil arduum visum*—distinction, and the intimation perpetuated the impulse given. The immense accumulation of war has been at once a cause. Those who reflect on the progress have no difficulty in seeing it cheaper, because they buy on the other hand, it gives them credit and an object of pride. An increase of capital is necessary in the best manner, most proper distribution of effects have been strikingly last half century; and thus in its turn, nourishment, and

The improvement that has been partly the effect, extension of commerce, ancestors, exertion and industry usurped the place of idleness under which he is sometimes, till, in highly civilized of the human mind; in the constant increase of industry as intense at one period as another. What is a luxury in one country both having worn a pair of historians; while, at present without them. The lower again, upon the higher; and as to increase the amount of industry, is not to be supplied, may be carried beyond their means. But it is, after all, confined within the resulting from the general science, industry, wealth,

We are also inclined to the improvement of the pressure of the public but corresponding efforts to produce either dejected to render a considerable encroaching on the fortune which they were previously rising in the world, the two together produced ration of either. We do not that the capital of the country of Europe been made. We do not state these as a heavy taxation; but merely augmented and kept with influence on a nation that private individual.

But after every fair and of others of a similar government, affording full power, and securing all the grand *sine qua non* of and tyranny prevail, the wealth, are invariably poor has a decided advantage former present, when con-

possibile—*nil arduum visum est*. And the unceasing efforts of new aspirants to wealth and distinction, and the intimate connection of the various arts and sciences, have extended and perpetuated the impulse given by the invention of the spinning-frame and the steam-engine.

The immense accumulation of capital that has taken place since the close of the American war has been at once a cause and a consequence of our increased trade and manufactures. Those who reflect on the advantages which an increase of capital confers on its possessors can have no difficulty in perceiving now it operates to extend trade. It enables them to buy cheaper, because they buy larger quantities of goods, and pay ready money; and, on the other hand, it gives them a decided superiority in foreign markets where capital is scarce, and credit an object of primary importance with the native dealers. To the manufacturer, an increase of capital is of equal importance, by giving him the means of constructing his works in the best manner, and of carrying on the business on such a scale as to admit of the most proper distribution of whatever has to be done among different individuals. These effects have been strikingly evinced in the commercial history of Great Britain during the last half century; and thus it is, that capital, originally accumulated by means of trade, gives, in its turn, nourishment, vigour, and enlarged growth to it.

The improvement that has taken place in the mode of living during the last half century has been partly the effect, and partly the cause, of the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of commerce. Had we been contented with the same accommodations as our ancestors, exertion and ingenuity would long since have been at an end, and routine have usurped the place of invention. Happily, however, the desires of man vary with the circumstances under which he is placed, extending with every extension of the means of gratifying them, till, in highly civilised countries, they appear almost illimitable. This endless craving of the human mind, its inability to rest satisfied with previous acquisitions, combined with the constant increase of population, renders the demand for new inventions and discoveries as intense at one period as at another, and provides for the continued advancement of society. What is a luxury in one age, becomes a necessary in the next. The fact of Queen Elizabeth having worn a pair of silk stockings was reckoned deserving of notice by contemporary historians; while, at present, no individual, in the rank of a gentleman, can go to dinner without them. The lower classes are continually pressing upon the middle; and these, again, upon the higher; so that invention is racked, as well to vary the modes of enjoyment, as to increase the amount of wealth. That this competition should be, in all respects, advantageous, is not to be supposed. Emulation in show, though the most powerful incentive to industry, may be carried to excess; and has certainly been ruinous to many individuals, obliged sometimes, perhaps, by their situation, or seduced by example, to incur expenses beyond their means. But the abuse, even when most extended, as it probably is in England, is, after all, confined within comparatively narrow limits; while the beneficial influence resulting from the general diffusion of a taste for improved accommodations adds to the science, industry, wealth, and enjoyments of the whole community.

We are also inclined to think that the increase of taxation, during the late war, contributed to the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of trade. The gradually increasing pressure of the public burdens stimulated the industrious portion of the community to make corresponding efforts to preserve their place in society; and produced a spirit of invention and economy that we should have in vain attempted to excite by any less powerful means. Had taxation been very oppressive, it would not have had this effect; but it was not so high as to produce either dejection or despair, though it was, at the same time, sufficiently heavy to render a considerable increase of exertion and parsimony necessary, to prevent it from encroaching on the fortunes of individuals, or, at all events, from diminishing the rate at which they were previously accumulating. To the excitement afforded by the desire of rising in the world, the fear of falling superadded an additional and powerful stimulus; and the two together produced results that could not have been produced by the unassisted operation of either. We do not think that any evidence has been, or can be, produced to show, that the capital of the country would have been materially greater than it is, had the tranquillity of Europe been maintained uninterrupted from 1793 to the present moment.

We do not state these circumstances in order to extenuate the evils of war, or of oppressive taxation; but merely to show the real influence of taxation on industry, when gradually augmented and kept within reasonable bounds. Under such circumstances, it has the same influence on a nation that an increase of his family, or of his unavoidable expense, has on a private individual.

But after every fair allowance has been made for the influence of the causes above stated, and of others of a similar description, still it is abundantly certain that a liberal system of government, affording full scope for the expansion and cultivation of every mental and bodily power, and securing all the advantages of superior talent and address to their possessors, is the grand *sine qua non* of commercial and manufacturing prosperity. Where oppression and tyranny prevail, the inhabitants, though surrounded by all the means of civilisation and wealth, are invariably poor and miserable. In respect of soil, climate, and situation, Spain has a decided advantage over Great Britain; and yet, what a miserable contrast does the former present, when compared with the latter! The despotism and intolerance of her

ruled, and the want of good order and tranquillity, have extinguished every germ of improvement in the Peninsula, and sunk the inhabitants to the level of the Turks and Moors. Had a similar political system been established in England, we should have been equally depressed. Our superiority in science, arts, and arms, though promoted by subsidiary means, is, at bottom, the result of *freedom and security*—freedom to engage in every employment, and to pursue our own interest in our own way, coupled with an intimate conviction, derived from the nature of our institutions, and their opposition to every thing like arbitrary power, that acquisitions, when made, may be securely enjoyed or disposed of. These form the grand sources of our wealth and power. There have only been two countries,—Holland and the United States,—which have, in these respects, been placed under nearly the same circumstances as England; and, notwithstanding they inhabit a morass, defended only by artificial mounds from being deluged by the ocean, the Dutch have long been, and still continue to be, the most prosperous and opulent people of the Continent; while the Americans, whose situation is more favourable, are advancing in the career of improvement with a rapidity hitherto unknown. In Great Britain we have been exempted, for a lengthened period, from foreign aggression and intestine commotion; the pernicious influence of the feudal system has long been at an end; the same equal burdens have been laid on all classes; we have enjoyed the advantage of liberal institutions, without any material alloy of popular licentiousness or violence; our intercourse with foreign nations, though subjected to many vexatious restraints, has been comparatively free; full scope has been given to the competition of the home producers; the highest offices have been open to deserving individuals; and, on the whole, the natural order of things has been less disturbed amongst us by artificial restraints than in most other countries. But without security, no degree of freedom would have been of material importance. Happily, however, every man has felt satisfied, not only of the temporary, but of the permanent tranquillity of the country, and of the stability of its institutions. The plans and combinations of capitalists have not been affected by misgivings as to what might take place in future. Monied fortunes have not been amassed in preference to others, because they might more easily be sent abroad in periods of confusion and disorder; but all individuals have unhesitatingly engaged, whenever an opportunity offered, in undertakings of which a remote posterity was alone to reap the benefit. No one can look at the immense sums expended upon the permanent improvement of the land, on docks, warehouses, canals, &c., or reflect for a moment on the settlements of property in the funds, and on the extent of our system of life insurance, without being deeply impressed with the vast importance of that confidence which the public have placed in the security of property, and the good faith of government. Had this confidence been imperfect, industry and invention would have been paralysed; and much of that capital which feeds and clothes the industrious classes would never have existed. The preservation of this security entire, both *in fact and in opinion*, is essential to the public welfare. If it be anywise impaired, the colossal fabric of our prosperity will crumble into dust; and the commerce of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, like that of Tyre, Carthage, and Palmyra, will, at no very remote period, be famous only in history.—(From the *Treatise on Commerce*, contributed by the author of this work to the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.)

(I. Table exhibiting the different Countries in which Articles of the Produce or Manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the Six Years ending with 1835, arranged in the Order of the Magnitude of the Exports to them; and specifying the average annual Amount of the Exports to each during the said Six Years, and the Portion of such Exports destined for each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830-1835.	Average an. Proportion exp. to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.	Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830-1835.	Average an. Proportion exp. to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.
United States of America	1,750,890	189,743,306	Cape of Good Hope	2,300,531	7,715,768
Germany	4,446,878	110,905,817	Somatra and Java	80,547	7,622,000
East India Comp.'s territories and Ceylon	3,343,331	83,359,961	Western Coast of Africa	28,500	7,171,058
Holland	2,774,988	69,208,781	Columbia	20,439	4,699,991
Belgium	2,720,993	67,419,640	Peruvia	18,086	4,564,767
British West Indies	2,694,183	67,042,848	Malta	15,911	3,849,151
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,280,417	56,138,570	Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	13,720	8,820,850
Brazil	1,900,890	48,447,474	Mauritius	10,000	1,682,591
British North American Colonies	1,489,074	37,137,797	Denmark	10,171	9,582,926
Russia	1,184,169	28,007,010	Philippine Islands	100,779	8,613,448
Foreign, Proper	1,083,901	27,030,223	Toulon Islands	67,463	1,682,591
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of Morea)	862,780	21,490,859	Sweden	64,004	1,682,591
France	703,376	17,538,323	Norway	50,800	4,488,739
Chili	691,756	17,427,121	Acorea	45,708	1,581,103
Cuba, and other foreign West Indies	608,274	15,120,600	Madraza	36,231	903,619
States of the Rio de la Plata	531,540	10,264,301	St. Helena	32,071	798,558
Mexico	525,020	13,094,109	Canary Islands	30,409	758,407
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	470,275	11,780,757	Morea and Greek Islands	30,569	1,080,000
Spain and the Balearic Islands	428,379	10,843,662	Gastemala	8,213	204,934
Gibraltar	380,997	9,790,050	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	6,068	201,717
Havill	368,528	9,066,444	Funk of sierra	5,013	124,274
Man	389,063	8,456,308	Isle of Bourbon	4,656	107,204
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	318,598	7,970,716	New Zealand, and South Sea Islands	1,891	947,182
China			Arniea	1,650	224,187
			Cape de Verd Islands	1,000	215,182
			Totals	40,093,496	1,000,000,000

II. Account of the Quantities into, exported from, and re-securing thereon, during the

Description of Merchandise.	into	from	re-securing thereon
Amber, pearl and pot	—	—	—
Barilla and stearl	—	—	—
Barb for tanning or dyeing	—	—	—
Coffee, viz.—	—	—	—
British plantation	—	—	—
East India and Mauritius	—	—	—
Foreign plantation	—	—	—
Totals	—	—	—
Cocoa	—	—	—
Hulls and shells	—	—	—
Cotton wool from foreign countries, viz.—	—	—	—
The United States of America	—	—	—
Brazil	—	—	—
Turkey and Egypt	—	—	—
Other foreign countries	—	—	—
Cotton wool from British possessions, viz.—	—	—	—
East India and Mauritius	—	—	—
British West India, the growth of	—	—	—
British West Indies, imported from	—	—	—
Other British possessions	—	—	—
Total quantities	—	—	—
Indigo	—	—	—
Lac dye	—	—	—
Logwood	—	—	—
Madder	—	—	—
Mastic	—	—	—
Vias and inv, or codilla of fish and lamp	—	—	—
Currants	—	—	—
Lemons and oranges	—	—	—
Raisins	—	—	—
Dates of sierra	—	—	—
Pitting of straw	—	—	—
Hides untanned, viz.—	—	—	—
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	—	—	—
Hides tanned, viz.—	—	—	—
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	—	—	—
Leather gloves	—	—	—
Limes	—	—	—
Oil—Olive	—	—	—
Palm	—	—	—
Traw, spermaceti, & blubber	—	—	—
Sulphur and suble silve	—	—	—
Flax and linseed	—	—	—
Silks, raw	—	—	—
Waxes and knobbies	—	—	—
Casia lignea	—	—	—
Pepper	—	—	—
Pimento	—	—	—
Sugar, viz.—	—	—	—
East India and Mauritius	—	—	—
Foreign	—	—	—
Tallow	—	—	—
Tea	—	—	—
Timber, viz.—	—	—	—
Balfum and bollen ends	—	—	—
Iron and steel ends	—	—	—
Mats, 8 and under 8 lbs. in diameter	—	—	—
Mats, 8 and under 18 inches in diameter	—	—	—
Mats, 18 and upwards	—	—	—
Oak plank	—	—	—
Sisal	—	—	—
Fir, 8 inches square and upwards	—	—	—
Wainscot logs ditto	—	—	—
Unmanufactured ditto	—	—	—
Wool, sheep and lambs	—	—	—
Manufactured or elgars	—	—	—
Snuff	—	—	—
Wool, sheep and lambs	—	—	—
Wine, viz.—	—	—	—
Cape	—	—	—
French	—	—	—
Portugal	—	—	—
Spanish	—	—	—
Madera	—	—	—
Other sorts	—	—	—
All sorts	—	—	—

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS;

N. Account of the Quantities of the Principal articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise Imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom, with the Net Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years ending the 5th January, 1867, and 1858.

Description of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Net Revenue.	
	1856.	1857.	1856.	1857.	1856.	1857.	£.	£.
Ashe, pearl and pot	146,956	147,339	12,137	14,910	130,176	129,098	996	100
Barilla and shell	70,314	102,136	1,630	3,441	67,208	81,404	9,978	6,395
						Drawbacks & repayments	5,508	4,019
Bark for tanning or dyeing	778,119	785,700	3,346	8,008	784,819	781,113	4,146	4,978
Coffee, viz.—							25,653	26,456
British plantation	16,877,913	15,106,418	108,480	328,017	17,326,731	17,158,158		
East India and Mauritius	9,904,710	9,840,003	6,622,595	1,300,255	7,418,725	9,205,634	601,616	686,645
Foreign plantation	5,576,919	11,775,088	6,900,910	8,411,708	2,254	3,168		
Totals	84,054,807	84,412,314	10,681,766	10,660,975	24,917,800	26,346,961		
Cocoa	2,798,200	2,848,000	332,897	593,276	1,150,108	1,416,813		13,922
Hides and shells	480,943	911,707	18,280		354,144	481,170	11,163	
Cotton wool from foreign countries, viz.—								
The United States of America	889,616,682	880,651,716						
Brazil	87,901,379	80,940,146						
Turkey and Egypt	2,424,731	7,881,648						
Other foreign countries	6,764,418	4,616,669						
Cotton wool from British possessions, viz.—								
East India and Mauritius	75,967,967	61,677,197						
British West Indies, the growth of	1,812,808	1,199,168						
British West Indies, imported from	401,601	368,540						
Other British possessions	8,26	23,654						
Total quantities	406,910,067	407,695,760	31,730,763	30,723,001	363,664,226	368,445,065	630,008	609,650
Indigo	7,710,544	6,548,373	6,981,351	9,267,541	2,940,399	3,236,194	86,266	39,899
Lad Gye	868,678	1,011,274	290,975	183,999	620,248	435,259	1,717	1,440
Lawgood	1,881	14,999	4,385	3,376	12,361	13,023	5,478	2,549
Slanider	106,906	84,341	894	222	105,445	78,350	10,718	6,077
Neckier root	9,361	106,353			9	9	3,114	3,688
Flax and tow, or codilla of flax and hemp	1,025,119	1,000,363	16,788	6,970	1,511,426	998,654	6,441	4,234
Curraie	178,661	217,361	1,788	17,341	174,842	194,367	194,367	188,320
Lemon and oranges	853,984	848,380	1,455	1,236	849,931	811,490	28,226	62,411
Limes	182,394	189,390	86,496	1,526	156,194	158,162	117,095	114,095
Hats of straw	14,033	26,226	16,173	12,714	8,437	6,814	1,068	1,091
Matting of straw	45,400	30,462	11,846	7,546	29,851	32,662	24,568	30,073
Hemp, undressed	684,008	773,621	85,105	16,574	367,589	651,919	6,428	9,766
Hides, untanned, viz.—								
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	865,061	889,608	87,795	46,849	800,314	230,739	43,789	36,028
Hides, tanned, viz.—								
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	70,410	87,678	32,305	18,903	63,010	63,985	794	814
Leather gloves	1,493,369	1,555,947	31,405	16,894	1,459,363	1,316,470	37,507	82,328
Curraie	895,326	946,359	1,909	1,611	871,082	695,019	295,845	293,324
Oil—Olive	9,892,019	1,721,914	180,581	208,472	1,844,228	1,496,636	46,114	84,096
Palm	177,017	283,367	24,979	16,758	234,357	311,319	14,679	29,599
Tallow, sperm-cand. & blubber	19,480	81,808	1,266	388	18,788	83,878	1,393	14,270
Salt-petre and cubic nitre	878,908	849,899	86,444	86,619	231,134	247,928	6,045	6,393
Flax and linseed	6,339,918	5,381,089	1,371	6,978	3,178,097	3,381,843	19,905	21,118
Silk, raw	4,453,091	4,146,481	113,603	245,971	4,286,254	3,525,106	18,078	15,454
Waste and knobbies	1,806,369	948,291	67,845	81,988	1,824,989	867,438	719	
Casia lignea	967,413	994,474	633,088	760,141	66,296	116,455	2,232	2,842
Pepper	7,74,832	5,391,988	4,181,598	4,763,980	2,734,461	9,638,076	86,134	68,981
Pimento	9,366,834	2,119,260	9,377,822	1,878,645	400,914	339,406	6,339	4,150
Sugar, viz.—								
West India	8,030,517	3,308,320	3,789,088	449,982				
East India and Mauritius	188,397	918,297	248,544	227,507	3,114,085	3,254,810	4,164,165	4,780,265
Foreign	827,547	885,073	18,769	52,375	1,288,514	307,789	209,977	209,977
Tallow	1,166,364	1,144,649	18,769	52,375	1,144,085	1,288,514	307,789	209,977
Tea	49,306,701	30,978,941	4,988,848	4,715,849	48,146,289	30,639,000	4,674,538	3,823,946
Timber, viz.—								
Balfano and balfano ends	17,347	15,983	80	126	16,677	14,491	156,566	130,806
Diel and diel ends	66,318	72,933	1,032	946	66,500	66,631	647,561	660,970
Masts, 8 and under 8 ins. in diameter	8,414	2,474	845	199	9,347	9,763	9,780	9,988
Masts, 8 and under 18 inches in diameter	8,361	8,628	288	180	8,291	8,444	2,119	2,319
Masts, 18 and upwards	9,649	4,973	55	18	9,200	4,077	3,443	4,371
Oak planks	15,048	1,308	1	6	8,971	5,189	11,430	8,919
Sive	66,668	83,711	2,124	1,636	69,111	84,451	67,350	69,696
Fir, 8 inches square and upwards	681,690	678,900	480	846	673,869	681,039	545,074	438,869
Oak ditto	93,964	81,818	15	9	91,063	79,548	91,818	81,818
Unenumerated ditto	36,423	48,481	72	80	36,314	48,026	10,043	12,073
Wainscot logs ditto	4,312	5,893			9,989	4,080	10,964	10,938
Tobacco, viz.—								
Unmanufactured	89,898,907	87,144,107	12,369,405	17,347,597	22,150,783	22,921,499		
Manufactured or cigars	18,868	692,182	482,981	309,869	168,152	144,365		
Snuff	15,661	1,968	4,773	628			4,997,102	8,417,638
Wool, sheep and lambs	64,349,977	46,379,708	613,707	2,831,359	60,368,416	42,515,929	189,324	118,169
Wine, viz.—								
Cognac	840,978	618,116	10,678	9,788	641,511	508,977	74,636	68,514
Port	583,241	795,140	89,412	108,981	342,089	498,894	86,504	138,328
Portugal	4,089,235	3,888,805	381,026	190,818	2,878,558	2,560,352		
Spanish	5,184,244	6,802,596	645,922	452,248	2,368,418	3,278,293	1,022,984	1,077,947
Other sorts	383,678	396,450	152,368	148,107	183,673	111,278		
Other sorts	383,109	804,865	383,260	391,123	614,193	608,919		
All sorts	8,404,068	8,093,489	1,474,284	1,334,793	6,309,518	6,291,591	1,728,268	1,897,024

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

III. An account of the Official Value of the Imports into and Exports from the United Kingdom, from and to all Countries, for the Year ending 5th January, 1855, with the Declared or Real Value of the Exports for the Years ended 5th January, 1835, and 1854, distinguishing each Country, and British and Colonial and Foreign Produce.

Names of Countries.	Official Value of Imports into the United Kingdom, 1854.	Official Value of Exports from the United Kingdom, 1854.			Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the U. K. in 1854.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the U. K. in 1855.
		British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports.		
Europe.						
Russia	4,125,844	1,897,039	775,969	5,844,187	1,989,300	1,751,275
Sweden	305,562	95,043	40,881	142,307	33,024	101,156
Norway	88,774	100,000	44,184	144,110	81,989	78,778
Denmark	231,818	194,438	49,944	344,293	84,490	107,979
Prussia	725,068	176,308	862,688	869,769	194,423	185,273
Germany	1,457,977	838,307	1,518,998	10,454,178	4,547,190	4,826,980
Holland	1,106,876	3,284,817	1,305,118	5,184,955	4,710,397	3,241,402
Belgium	304,356	1,187,185	1,689,937	1,689,937	750,998	816,367
France	2,304,398	2,800,977	648,484	1,081,541	1,116,895	1,455,088
Portugal, Proper	601,410	8,618,355	331,490	4,081,019	1,900,123	1,534,330
Azores	18,178	180,000	15,448	148,389	89,876	49,717
Madeira	63,381	88,000	2,418	30,478	26,454	49,682
Spain and the Balearic Islands	971,808	898,575	108,598	448,841	989,307	405,005
Canary Islands	79,794	66,078	17,968	55,844	80,998	34,309
Gibraltar	47,885	1,811,738	811,684	1,028,168	409,718	301,560
Italy and the Italian Islands	1,189,310	4,681,188	1,448,881	6,000,147	3,398,777	3,428,171
Malta	14,366	624,038	55,373	689,405	242,098	136,285
Ionian Islands	307,398	180,974	85,884	514,259	34,498	107,904
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea	741,280	5,487,844	357,308	5,798,249	1,907,841	1,301,089
Morea and Greek Islands	48,867	88,877	8,068	80,865	27,178	26,613
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	231,969	412,163	184,789	446,308	307,981	305,632
Africa.						
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	22,831	845,709	8,374	848,969	168,777	268,225
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	188,848	46,074	88,394	78,438	14,123	29,040
Western Coast of Africa	475,435	682,588	178,316	798,404	285,489	392,540
Cape of Good Hope	848,780	486,984	150,338	648,166	304,383	325,931
Eastern Coast of Africa	87					
Cape Verd Islands		800		800	800	675
St. Helena	2,184	28,341	38,868	80,868	81,618	21,187
Isle of Bourbon		11,754	1,383	15,047	7,091	
Mauritius	782,148	68,905	48,904	107,849	149,316	194,369
Madagascar	88					
Asia.						
Arabia		800		800	800	8,049
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	4,317,636	7,168,000	488,188	7,648,906	8,478,589	3,189,972
China	2,508,023			848,968	1,071,108	89,583
Sumatra and Java	141,289				410,273	253,289
Philippine Isles	64,882				76,818	129,745
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	247,488	860,848	327,308	1,077,454	716,014	696,345
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,660					5,687
Port of Siam		See India and China.				
Singapore	786,726					
America.						
British North America Colonies	1,157,889	3,281,678	380,408	3,566,181	1,471,009	1,159,148
British West Indies	8,416,114	4,684,582	823,977	5,118,547	2,980,023	2,197,540
Havill	14,108	854,743	80,781	875,484	307,397	267,788
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	398,187	3,198,011	95,880	3,293,981	318,006	787,043
United States of America	10,378,038	9,568,717	811,188	9,789,908	6,841,969	10,628,413
Mexico	391,417	682,588	183,082	862,904	439,610	409,320
Guatemala	13,738	64,078	67	84,198	80,369	1,214
Columbia	117,339	528,798	80,038	608,947	199,997	132,848
Brazil	1,297,205	5,678,148	157,933	6,013,088	3,490,678	3,800,767
States of the Rio de la Plata	693,180	1,283,515	85,383	1,818,408	681,564	658,525
Chili	148,765	1,286,187	48,330	1,344,947	996,321	626,718
Peru	123,086	408,880	81,488	507,548	309,535	441,594
Totals	49,051,416	78,885,036	11,568,086	85,997,075	41,849,016	47,372,270

IV. Account specifying the different Articles, and the Real or Declared Value of each, of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom, exported to Foreign Parts during each of the Three Years ending with 1837.

Species of Exports.	1835.	1836.	1837.
GREAT BRITAIN.			
Alum	1,359	3,806	3,761
Apparel, Stays, and Negro Clothing	494,861	604,868	538,301
Arms and Ammunition	87,490	411,286	289,143
Bacon and Hams	87,478	49,210	35,940
Beef and Pork, salted	184,788	186,898	119,117
Beer and Ale	225,841	263,500	268,235
Bonks, printed	148,098	178,034	147,430
Brass and Copper Manufactures	1,003,940	1,072,003	1,166,082
Bread and Biscuit	8,465	8,184	9,091
Butter and Cheese	178,637	805,858	170,073
Cabinet and Upholtery Wares	51,003	75,511	67,357
Coals and Culin	248,740	330,700	438,690
Cardage	79,841	84,475	73,231
Corn, Grain, Meal, and Flour	85,109	31,307	34,781
Cotton Manufactures	16,303,170	18,482,586	13,632,146
Yarn	1,415	6,190,393	6,935,036
Cows and Oxen		2,078	6,107
Earthenware of all sorts	539,900	827,493	563,093

Species of	1835.
Fish of all sorts	
Glass of all sorts	
Haberdashery and Mill	
Hardware and Cutlery	
Hats, Beaver and Felt	
of all other sorts	
Hops	
Horses	
Iron and Steel, wrought	
Lard	
Lead and Shot	
Leather, wrought and	
Saddlery and	
Linen Manufactures	
Yarn	
Machinery and Mill-w	
Mathematical and Opti	
Mutes	
Musical Instruments	
Oil, Train, of Greenlan	
Painters' Colours	
Plates, Plate Ware, Jew	
Potatoes	
Salt	
Saltpetre, British refine	
Seeds of all sorts	
Silk Manufactures	
Soap and Candles	
Spirits	
Stationery of all sorts	
Stear, refined	
Tin, unwrought	
and Pewter Ware	
Tobacco (manufactured	
Tongues	
Umbrellas and Parasols	
Whalebone	
Wool, Sheep's	
of other sorts	
Woolen and Worsted Y	
Woolen Manufactures	
All other Articles	
Total real or declared	
and Manufact. of the	
from Great Britain to	
ISLAND, Total Export	
Total from the United	

V. Account of the Real or Declared Value of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Parts during each of the Three Years ending with 1837; specifying annually shipped for each

Countries to which exported.	1835.
Russia	1,518,181
Sweden	63
Norway	111
Denmark	188
Prussia	1,858
Germany	4,394
Holland	2,142
Belgium	498
France	3,645
Portugal, Proper	27
Azores	64
Madeira	89
Spain and the Balearic Islands	801
Canary Islands	81
Gibraltar	1,036
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,178
Malta	238
Ionian Islands	410
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea	185,8
Morea and Greek Islands	8
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	25,9
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	18,4
Cape of Good Hope	18,7
Cape Verd Islands	4,8
St. Helena	81,3

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Table V.—continued.

Countries to which exported.	Exports.									
	1828.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1837.
Ile de Bourbon	28,180	30,042				7,081				3,786
Mauritius	185,872	181,029	148,975	165,181	23,484	168,219	194,558	229,254	268,458	268,458
Arabia						250	6,000	14,500		787
East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	4,866,882	3,865,500	3,377,412	3,514,779	3,485,301	3,578,028	3,749,082	3,888,028	3,919,727	3,919,727
China						842,282	1,074,700	1,238,000	1,376,976	1,376,976
Sumatra and Ava	188,000	168,102	225,286	180,622	471,712	410,372	324,682	284,222	218,791	218,791
Philippine Islands	300	71,320	28,513	102,284	185,288	78,816	128,743	81,778	30,808	30,808
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	448,800	814,877	888,471	488,238	558,372	716,014	696,345	835,871	882,568	882,568
New Zealand, and South Sea Islands	3,437	1,386	4,738	1,270	986		2,887			
Port of Spain		19,487				18,748				
British N. Amer. Colonies	1,881,044	1,857,130	2,088,227	2,078,736	2,098,450	1,871,089	2,159,166	2,788,291	3,141,036	3,141,036
British West India	3,286,704	3,838,448	3,581,349	3,439,926	3,567,248	3,280,844	3,187,540	3,748,418	4,467,745	4,467,745
Hayti	248,238	321,732	376,103	349,104	361,280	327,297	365,739	381,823	417,050	417,050
Cuba and other Foreign West India	569,788	818,089	888,531	828,708	877,888	818,000	787,000	897,102	981,718	981,718
United States of America	8,910,251	8,138,246	9,253,283	8,468,372	7,978,889	8,844,300	10,569,445	12,282,831	14,669,223	14,669,223
Mexico	307,088	978,441	726,469	198,821	431,487	458,818	402,320	284,223	340,000	340,000
Guatemala	1,191	318,751	548,280	208,588	3,700	30,888	18,324	794	78	78
Colombia	86,113	2,452,103	1,228,371	1,144,908	1,575,680	3,460,870	2,630,787	2,030,528	1,686,082	1,686,082
Brazil	3,318,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297	3,818,297
States of the Rio de la Plata	312,399	638,172	836,870	680,132	615,282	531,564	608,228	689,238	688,104	688,104
Chili	708,371	548,876	681,817	708,125	818,317	822,222	828,176	841,222	841,222	841,222
Peru	374,815	368,489	408,008	378,810	377,524	398,338	441,224	408,222	476,374	476,374
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	328,488	344,036	324,634	317,498	326,224	320,000	341,812	318,000	320,012	320,012
Total	36,812,256	36,371,597	37,164,372	36,456,584	36,997,347	41,646,191	47,872,370	53,288,572	62,070,744	62,070,744

Remarks on the above Tables.—Foreign Competition.—It is seen from the last of the above tables, that the falling off in the exports in 1837 was almost entirely owing to the decline in the exports to the United States, which fell off from 12,425,605*l.* in 1836, to 4,695,225*l.* in 1837. But this extraordinary decline was wholly owing to accidental causes, or to the pecuniary difficulties in which the mercantile class in the United States were involved in the latter part of 1836 and 1837, through the previous abuses of credit, and the revulsion occasioned by the universal stoppage of the banks. It was clear, that how severe soever in the meantime, any check to commerce originating in such circumstances would be of a very evanescent description; and, in point of fact, its influence has already almost ceased to be felt, and our exports to the United States were last year almost as large as ever. We subjoin

An Account of the Real or Declared Value of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported in 1837 and 1838.

Articles.	Declared Value.	
	1837.	1838.
Corns and Culin	431,545	484,305
Cotton Manufactures	13,640,181	16,700,469
Yarn	6,935,037	7,430,582
Earthenware	588,327	670,985
Glass	477,707	376,584
Hardware and Cutlery	1,460,808	1,507,478
Linen Manufactures	2,123,744	2,919,719
Yarn	479,307	655,699
Metals; viz. Iron and Steel	2,009,259	2,530,903
Copper and Brass	1,166,377	1,226,258
Lead	155,251	156,150
Tin, in Bars, &c.	74,737	163,230
Tin Plates	350,665	434,749
Salt	183,631	223,372
Silk Manufactures	509,873	776,031
Sugar, refined	453,084	558,266
Wool, Sheep's or Lambs'	185,350	423,067
Woolen Manufactures	4,660,019	5,792,156
Yarn	333,088	365,657
Total of the above Articles	36,225,468	43,338,839

It is obvious, from this and the previous tables, that the statements that have recently been put forth with so much misplaced confidence, as to the influence of foreign competition on our trade, and the consequent decay of our exports, if not wholly unfounded, are, at all events, very grossly exaggerated. Provided tranquillity be maintained at home, and that Britain continues to be exempted from that political agitation that is the bane of industry and the curse of every country in which it prevails, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition. Our natural and acquired advantages for the prosecution of manufactures and trade, are vastly superior to those of every other country; and though foreigners do excel us in a few departments, and may come to excel us in others, so that the character and

channels of our trade may, in shadow of a foundation for a contrary, it is all but certain that population of the innumerable Our restrictive regulation (preserved) it is at all reasonable has been much modified dur still further diminished. The tion, but give a handle to all when there is really little or n in the recent discussions as to seem generally to entertain the The truth is, that, in ordinary ment, all but imperceptible. wheat in Great Britain was 5 evidence has been, or can be a quarter had the ports been a Hence, were our manufactures are not, it is idle to suppose the the Corn Laws. The influen home crops are deficient, and the agriculturists have nothing suggest that foreign corn shoul a reasonable constant duty (5 required to countervail the b the timber duties equalled, the oppressive duties in our tarif foreign competition to which advantage. Such competition *mortalia corda*. It gives a ne supplies new products and ne It must ever be borne in mind upon, and is, in fact, measured the latter continues to increase and climates, we may be euro market.—*Sup.*)

[The tables which follow (a commerce of the United States copied from Mr. Hazard's Com to Congress of the present Ses It was intended to have add merce of our principal ports; rary has been found impracti on the subject, afforded by th ports separately.—*Am. Ed.*

A Statement exhibiting the Value Year

Year ending 30th of September.	Free of duty.
1834	68,393,180
1835	77,940,493
1836	92,056,481
1837	60,250,031
1838	60,860,005
1839	72,040,719

Year ending 30th of September.	Domestic Produce.
1834	81,024,162
1835	101,189,082
1836	106,916,880
1837	95,561,414
1838	80,033,821
1839	100,951,004

channels of our trade may, in consequence, be partially changed, there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for supposing that its amount will be at all affected. On the contrary, it is all but certain that it will continue to augment with the augmenting wealth and population of the innumerable nations with which we have commercial relations.

Our restrictive regulations are the only thing from which (supposing tranquillity to be preserved) it is at all reasonable to apprehend any serious injury; and though their influence has been much modified during the last few years, it were much to be wished that it were still further diminished. They not only lead to lessen exportation, by diminishing importation, but give a handle to all sorts of misrepresentation, and enable a clamour to be raised when there is really little or no foundation for one. This has been very strikingly evinced in the recent discussions as to the Corn Laws. All parties, manufacturers and agriculturists, seem generally to entertain the most erroneous notions as to the influence of these statutes. The truth is, that, in ordinary years, it is now, thanks to the spread of agricultural improvement, all but imperceptible. During the six years ending with 1837, the average price of wheat in Great Britain was 50s. 2d. a quarter; and we are bold to say, that not a tittle of evidence has been, or can be produced, to show that this price would have been reduced 5s. a quarter had the ports been all the while open to unconditional importation from abroad. Hence, were our manufactures really declining, or in a perilous state, which happily they are not, it is idle to suppose that this decline or danger could be obviated by the repeal of the Corn Laws. The influence of the latter is now nearly restricted to years when the home crops are deficient, and then, certainly, it is very injurious. Seeing, therefore, that the agriculturists have nothing to fear from the opening of the ports, sound policy would suggest that foreign corn should be admitted at all times for home consumption, under such a reasonable constant duty (5s. or 6s. on wheat and other grain in proportion) as may be required to countervail the burdens peculiarly affecting the land; and were this done, and the timber duties equalised, the sugar duties placed on a fair footing, and some of the more oppressive duties in our tariff, as those on brandy and holland, adequately reduced, the foreign competition to which we might be exposed would be productive of nothing but advantage. Such competition is, in reality, the vivifying principle of industry, *curis acens mortalia corda*. It gives a new stimulus to the inventive powers, at the same time that it supplies new products and new modes of enjoyment to reward the labour of the industrious. It must ever be borne in mind that the amount of the exports from a country always depends upon, and is, in fact, measured by the amount of its imports; and while the magnitude of the latter continues to increase, and we freely open our ports to the products of all countries and climates, we may be sure that our exports will equally increase, and be found in every market.—*Sup.*)

[The tables which follow (and which give a very interesting and satisfactory view of the commerce of the United States), with the exception of what is expressly stated to have been copied from Mr. Hazari's *Commercial and Statistical Register*, are derived from the reports to Congress of the present Secretary of the Treasury.

It was intended to have added to them a table exhibiting a comparative view of the commerce of our principal ports; but to prepare such a table with the desirable degree of accuracy has been found impracticable; and the reader must be left to gather the information on the subject, afforded by this work, by consulting the articles relating to each of those ports separately.—*Am. Ed.*

A Statement exhibiting the Value of Imports into and Exports from the United States, during the Years 1834, 1835, 1836, 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Year ending 30th of September.	Value of Imports.			
	Free of duty.	Paying duty ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.
1834	68,393,180	35,608,308	22,519,944	126,521,332
1835	77,940,493	45,817,740	26,137,509	149,895,742
1836	95,056,384	59,343,358	35,580,166	189,980,035
1837	69,250,031	37,716,374	34,022,812	140,989,217
1838	60,880,005	27,090,460	25,766,910	113,717,404
1839	72,040,719	42,563,739	42,005,102	157,609,560

Year ending 30th of September.	Value of Exports.			Value of Imports.
	Domestic Produce.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total.	
1834	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,693,577	149,895,742
1836	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,035
1837	95,561,414	21,854,963	117,416,376	140,989,217
1838	90,033,821	12,452,795	102,486,616	113,717,404
1839	100,951,001	17,408,000	118,359,001	157,609,560

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

"The following table, compiled from Wiltworth's 'Trade of Great Britain,' Macpherson's 'Annals of Commerce,' and Anderson's 'History of Commerce,' exhibits an interesting view of the trade between the American Colonies and the mother country, from 1697 to 1776, which, in fact, formed almost the only commerce of this country, prior to the Revolution."—*Hazard's U. S. Com. and Stat. Reg.*, vol. i. p. 3.

Year.	New England.		New York.		Pennsylvania.		Virginia & Maryland.		Carolina.		Georgia.	
	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
1697	20,389	68,468	10,093	4,579	3,347	2,097	227,766	58,796	12,374	6,399		
1698	31,854	93,517	8,763	23,379	2,790	10,704	174,053	310,135	9,263	18,492		
1699	26,660	137,379	16,818	48,729	1,477	17,064	196,115	205,078	12,372	11,401		
1700	41,486	91,918	17,567	49,410	4,008	18,329	317,302	173,481	14,058	11,603		
1701	32,656	86,322	18,347	31,910	5,390	18,003	235,738	190,683	16,978	12,006		
1702	37,026	64,625	7,965	29,991	4,145	9,343	274,793	73,391	11,870	10,460		
1703	33,330	69,608	7,471	17,562	5,160	9,899	144,928	196,713	13,197	12,428		
1704	30,623	74,996	10,540	22,394	2,430	11,819	264,112	60,438	14,067	6,966		
1705	22,793	62,504	7,393	27,903	1,309	3,308	116,768	174,829	2,096	19,756		
1706	22,210	67,030	8,849	31,588	4,810	11,087	141,138	58,015	6,653	4,001		
1707	38,793	120,631	14,283	29,853	786	14,365	207,622	237,901	23,311	10,492		
1708	49,635	115,503	10,847	26,699	2,120	6,723	313,493	79,061	10,340	11,996		
1709	29,559	120,249	19,359	34,777	617	5,581	361,668	80,269	20,431	28,331		
1710	31,112	106,339	8,203	31,476	1,377	6,594	188,420	127,639	20,793	19,613		
1711	26,415	137,421	12,193	26,856	38	19,406	273,181	91,535	12,871	20,400		
1712	24,699	128,105	12,406	18,324	1,471	4,464	297,941	134,683	20,391	20,015		
1713	40,904	190,778	14,493	40,479	178	17,037	266,368	76,504	29,449	23,959		
1714	31,541	181,288	20,810	44,643	2,063	14,927	280,470	182,873	31,300	23,772		
1715	66,555	164,650	31,166	54,629	5,461	17,189	174,736	199,274	30,158	16,631		
1716	69,545	131,150	21,071	52,173	5,103	21,642	261,343	179,595	46,287	27,372		
1717	58,998	192,001	24,534	44,140	4,999	28,505	296,584	215,062	41,375	25,058		
1718	61,591	131,863	27,331	62,966	5,688	22,716	316,376	191,925	46,285	15,841		
1719	64,542	125,317	19,596	56,355	6,564	27,068	332,069	164,630	50,373	19,030		
1720	40,306	128,769	16,636	37,397	7,928	24,531	331,489	110,717	62,736	16,296		
1721	50,493	114,524	15,961	50,754	6,037	31,548	357,612	137,376	61,838	37,373		
1722	47,953	135,728	20,119	37,478	6,882	30,397	388,001	174,764	79,050	34,574		
1723	49,339	108,489	37,992	32,413	6,332	15,929	297,097	183,839	76,103	16,861		
1724	69,585	168,507	21,191	63,020	4,057	30,391	277,344	161,994	60,506	37,899		
1725	72,921	201,768	24,070	70,650	11,981	48,309	214,730	195,884	61,942	39,189		
1726	63,816	200,882	28,307	84,666	5,060	67,634	234,707	185,931	93,453	43,934		
1727	75,052	187,277	31,617	67,452	12,823	31,979	421,588	192,965	60,035	23,234		
1728	64,689	194,500	31,141	81,634	15,330	37,478	413,060	171,092	61,175	33,607		
1729	68,512	161,192	15,833	64,760	7,434	26,799	286,174	108,491	113,329	58,306		
1730	64,701	209,196	6,740	64,336	10,582	48,592	246,923	150,931	151,739	61,765		
1731	49,043	183,497	20,756	65,116	12,766	44,360	406,598	171,276	193,771	71,148		
1732	64,085	216,000	9,411	65,540	8,524	41,698	216,790	148,289	126,207	58,298		
1733	61,983	154,570	11,626	65,417	14,776	49,585	403,198	186,177	177,545	70,466		
1734	82,352	146,460	15,307	81,758	20,217	39,392	373,090	172,080	120,466	99,658	203	629
1735	72,999	180,125	14,155	80,405	21,019	48,804	384,995	220,381	145,348	117,337	3,010	12,119
1736	66,788	222,158	17,914	86,000	20,786	61,513	360,183	204,794	214,083	101,147		2,012
1737	63,347	223,922	16,633	123,833	15,198	56,999	492,346	211,301	197,756	58,966		5,701
1738	59,116	303,433	16,228	135,438	11,916	61,450	391,814	259,860	141,119	87,938		17
1739	46,604	220,375	18,459	106,070	5,134	54,482	444,654	217,200	226,192	94,445		3,242
1740	72,399	171,021	21,408	118,777	15,048	56,751	341,997	231,426	205,360	181,891		924
1741	60,022	198,147	21,149	140,430	17,158	91,010	277,109	219,588	226,830	224,370		2,553
1742	53,106	148,999	13,830	167,591	8,327	75,395	427,769	284,186	154,667	127,063		1,622
1743	63,185	172,461	15,067	134,487	9,596	79,340	657,821	328,195	235,136	111,499		2,718
1744	60,248	148,982	14,527	119,920	7,446	62,214	492,709	234,655	192,594	79,141		760
1745	38,918	140,163	14,063	54,957	10,130	64,280	399,423	196,799	91,847	86,816		989
1746	36,612	209,177	8,841	86,719	15,779	73,699	419,371	282,545	76,897	108,939		984
1747	41,771	210,610	11,992	137,964	3,832	95,404	492,610	300,069	107,500	95,529		6,426
1748	20,748	197,695	12,388	143,311	12,303	78,301	491,832	252,024	107,305	160,172		1,314
1749	39,999	228,286	32,413	265,773	14,944	238,637	481,618	323,600	120,490	164,085		5
1750	48,455	348,659	35,032	207,130	98,191	217,713	508,999	849,419	191,607	134,037		1,942
1751	63,287	203,974	42,369	248,941	22,870	190,917	600,085	247,027	245,491	136,314		355
1752	74,313	273,340	40,648	191,030	29,978	201,666	569,453	325,151	289,204	150,777		1,526
1753	83,395	345,322	40,553	277,664	36,527	245,644	632,255	356,770	104,634	219,009		8,057
1754	66,538	329,433	36,663	127,497	30,649	244,647	573,435	323,513	307,238	199,215		2,236
1755	59,333	341,796	29,035	151,071	22,399	144,456	489,698	298,157	325,325	189,867		4,437
1756	47,359	384,571	18,073	230,426	20,991	90,169	337,759	334,597	222,915	181,740		7,155
1757	27,536	303,404	19,166	325,319	14,190	108,496	419,881	426,687	130,889	219,949		2,871
1758	30,304	465,094	14,290	356,555	21,583	200,953	454,309	438,471	156,511	181,002		10,213
1759	25,985	657,007	21,664	630,735	22,404	498,161	357,328	459,007	200,511	215,235		6,074
1760	37,599	599,647	31,125	609,106	22,754	707,998	504,451	605,882	162,769	218,131		12,198
1761	46,222	334,225	68,648	289,570	39,170	204,067	455,083	545,360	235,009	254,587		5,764
1762	41,733	247,385	68,882	268,010	38,091	206,199	415,709	415,599	181,995	194,170		6,522
1763	74,515	228,854	53,998	228,560	38,228	284,132	649,294	585,391	282,366	250,132		14,469
1764	88,157	459,765	63,007	615,410	30,248	436,191	559,398	513,192	341,727	305,808		31,325
1765	145,819	451,309	64,889	388,319	33,118	303,368	505,671	883,224	585,918	334,709		34,183
1766	141,732	406,819	67,090	329,829	26,857	397,314	461,093	372,548	393,387	398,716		58,074
1767	192,307	406,061	61,492	417,987	37,641	371,830	437,926	457,626	395,077	244,003		33,856
1768	48,275	419,797	87,115	482,030	59,404	438,107	406,048	475,484	508,108	489,898		42,402
1769	192,353	207,092	73,400	74,918	26,111	199,006	361,993	489,392	667,114	306,600		62,470
1770	148,011	394,451	69,882	478,991	28,109	131,881	435,004	177,782	278,007	146,273		55,532
1771	150,381	1,420,119	95,875	653,621	31,615	728,744	577,816	920,326	120,311	100,169		63,510
1772	190,285	824,830	99,707	313,070	20,133	607,999	598,404	793,910	426,993	440,610		60,069
1773	139,091	627,035	76,010	269,214	30,058	490,448	600,803	328,904	434,529	344,859		62,833
1774	118,218	508,476	69,016	437,037	69,611							

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1879, to the 30th September, 1883.

Years	Total value of Imports*	Value in the Country for Consumption†		Woolens	Wines	Spirits	Teas	Salt	Miscellaneous	Iron & steel	Crockery	Silks	Coffee	Sugar	Spices	Lead	Linen	Hemp	Specie and Bullion
		D.	C.																
1879	D. 23,030,000	D. 22,469,544			D. 855,121	D. 355,975	D. 352,569	D. 1,057,947	D. 1,438,361				D. 589,719	D. 1,679,085		D. 71,441			
1880	D. 23,210,000	D. 22,827,634			D. 855,121	D. 355,975	D. 352,569	D. 1,057,947	D. 1,438,361				D. 589,719	D. 1,679,085		D. 71,441			
1881	D. 23,300,000	D. 22,917,634			D. 855,121	D. 355,975	D. 352,569	D. 1,057,947	D. 1,438,361				D. 589,719	D. 1,679,085		D. 71,441			
1882	D. 23,400,000	D. 23,017,634			D. 855,121	D. 355,975	D. 352,569	D. 1,057,947	D. 1,438,361				D. 589,719	D. 1,679,085		D. 71,441			
1883	D. 23,500,000	D. 23,117,634			D. 855,121	D. 355,975	D. 352,569	D. 1,057,947	D. 1,438,361				D. 589,719	D. 1,679,085		D. 71,441			

* For the early years, the aggregate of the value of imports does not appear on the official statement, and has been estimated at different amounts by different persons; and has been estimated at different amounts by different persons; and has been estimated at different amounts by different persons.

† The value of imports is based on the value of the goods as they are imported, and not on the value of the goods as they are consumed in the country.

‡ The practice of making regular reports of the value and quantity of each article imported, did not commence till 1881. Previous to that time, the value of imports was estimated by collectors of the customs in their quarterly statements of exports for each month, and by the value of the goods as they are consumed in the country.

§ The value has been estimated approximately on the basis of the value of the goods as they are imported, and not on the value of the goods as they are consumed in the country.

¶ The exports of sugar and salt were not tallied the imports, though below that proportion.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1838.—*continues.*

Year.	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Louisiana.	Mississippi.	Alabama.	Ohio.	Michigan.	Tennessee.	Kentucky.	Missouri.	Florida.
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The value of articles paying ad valorem rates of duty, in 1789 amounted to about one-third of the amount, and consisted of cotton, molasses, hides, skins, honey, iron, crockery, &c. The value of the articles which has been estimated by adding one-third to the ad valorem. They consisted of spirits, molasses, coffee, sugar, tallow, &c. The ad valorem articles imported into each State are taken from actual returns; the others are appraised among the States, by estimate, in a like ratio.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1879, and ending on the 30th of September, 1880.

Years	Value of exports from the United States.										Value of the principal articles.									
	Total	Domestic.	Foreign.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Manufactures.	Specie and bullion.	Flour.	Lumber.	Rice.	Pork, hogs, &c.	Fish.	Beef, cattle, &c.	Butter and cheese.	Skins and furs.					
1870	90,271,146	19,626,000	658,154	4,200,000	4,200,000	1,855,000	1,855,000	5,017,799	9,800,000	2,455,000	1,900,000	8,120,000	1,145,000	835,000	501,000					
1871	100,012,041	18,300,000	52,007	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	7,100,000	2,540,000	2,851,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	826,000						
1872	100,734,094	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1873	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1874	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1875	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1876	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1877	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1878	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1879	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						
1880	100,012,041	17,750,000	61,670	4,200,000	4,200,000	2,100,000	2,100,000	2,907,000	2,907,000	1,705,000	1,900,000	10,000,000	1,520,000	827,000						

Not less than 1000 pounds in the quantity and value of the different articles. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid.

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1879, and ending on the 30th of September, 1880.

Years	EXPORTED FROM																				
	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Ohio.	Alabama.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Florida.
1870	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1871	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1872	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1873	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1874	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1875	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1876	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1877	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1878	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1879	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
1880	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000

Not less than 1000 pounds in the quantity and value of the different articles. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid. The price is paid in advance, but the goods are not shipped until the price is paid.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, Imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1833, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.—continued.

Species of Merchandise	1834-1835.			1835-1836.			1836-1837.			1837-1838.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.
Spices—Mace	9,873	11,071	20,944	9,928	10,978	20,906	14,525	4,831	19,356	5,055	4,831	9,886
Nutmegs	145,410	174,673	319,083	173,258	106,970	280,228	74,425	21,330	95,755	49,524	20,777	70,301
Pepper	107,507	8,750	116,257	113,338	17,054	130,392	52,238	16,683	68,921	81,132	4,725	86,856
Cloves	4,013,379	178,554	4,191,933	4,004,577	7,435	4,012,012	3,815,116	6,577	3,821,693	3,877,459	47,225	3,924,684
Cardamoms	1,480,378	86,891	1,567,269	2,487,573	314,388	2,801,961	1,847,547	107,570	1,955,117	877,459	47,677	2,432,796
Vanilla	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Ginger	94,044	4,077	98,121	87,488	310	87,898	1,213,288	17,432	1,230,720	474,330	1,186	475,516
Campbell	64,000	18,071	82,071	187,188	4,068	191,256	204,538	4,579	209,117	13,333	5,000	18,333
Other than India, Java, Malacca, Moluccas, &c.	14,500,000	11,164	14,511,164	871,598	3,331	874,929	397,468	10,000	407,468	10,000	1,000	11,000
Manufactures of silk and woolen	320,000	11,164	331,164	3,118,730	64,258	3,182,988	1,770,258	37,717	1,807,975	1,463,561	1,000	1,464,561
Woolen goods, not of the country	30,110	10,774	40,884	270,551	16,000	286,551	58,744	6,500	65,244	97,448	1,000	98,448
Woolen goods, of the country	5,555,156	677,142	6,232,298	6,565,477	1,400,000	7,965,477	2,101,702	246,702	2,348,404	2,677,500	1,000	2,678,500
Linen, bleached and unbleached	108,000	16,128	124,128	398,018	133,170	531,188	238,363	30,000	268,363	277,544	1,000	278,544
Cottons, raw and manuf.	47,208	61,000	108,208	48,448	64,448	112,896	133,170	164,448	297,618	300,000	1,000	301,000
Wool, not counting 8 cents per pound	5,200,400	100,168	5,300,568	8,877,803	2,775,717	11,653,520	48,918	2,807,889	5,061,409	6,898,918	1,000	6,899,918
Woolen manufactures	174,200	7,126	181,326	116,803	18,070	134,873	18,070	116,803	134,873	116,803	1,000	135,803
Cotton manufactures	532,644	1,916,208	2,448,852	418,000	61,128	479,128	658,548	6,448	485,576	5,000	4,500	5,500
Other articles	6,031,690	7,950,056	13,981,746	6,246,788	1,411,841	7,658,629	6,364,586	2,008,286	8,372,872	4,314,237	1,000	9,387,109
Total	66,251,407	7,950,056	74,201,463	54,758,508	7,950,056	62,708,564	6,730,294	7,950,056	14,680,350	14,680,350	55,971,114	20,651,464
Manufactures of paper, steel and cutlery.	6,075,000	73,228	6,148,228	9,711,918	214,444	9,926,362	3,958,586	187,234	4,145,820	6,000,000	1,000	6,001,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	584,774	27,728	612,502	235,643	45,164	280,807	438,201	43,200	481,401	320,722	1,000	321,722
Manuf. of cotton.	70,375	82,536	152,911	1,275,310	140,000	1,415,310	432,069	425,000	857,069	525,401	1,000	858,069
Manuf. of woolen goods.	408,203	13,204	421,407	675,644	38,118	713,762	18,310	6,500	24,810	26,000	1,000	27,000
Manuf. of linen goods.	10,764,307	44,115	10,808,422	11,205,039	9,700	11,214,739	101,789	10,500	112,289	103,500	1,000	114,500
Manuf. of silk goods.	8,554,188	162,285	8,716,473	2,536,401	177,000	2,713,401	1,444,457	3,000	1,447,457	2,000	2,000	2,000
Manuf. of paper.	694,025	21,280	715,305	777,000	670,000	1,447,000	648,986	600,000	1,248,986	3,000	3,000	3,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	1,081	1,081	2,162	25,348	46,151	71,499	10,000	10,000	20,000	10,000	10,000	20,000
Manuf. of cotton.	685,000	68,448	753,448	1,884,180	107,024	1,991,204	678,846	85,465	764,311	1,173,107	1,000	1,174,107
Manuf. of woolen goods.	30,227	1,970	32,197	48,548	1,000	49,548	2,300	200	2,500	1,000	1,000	2,000
Manuf. of silk goods.	1,400,000	48,200	1,448,200	697,021	42,810	739,831	264,000	61,122	325,122	318,356	1,000	319,356
Manuf. of iron and steel.	115,000	115,000	230,000	1,187,000	300,000	1,487,000	300,000	18,070	318,070	300,000	1,000	301,000
Manuf. of paper.	381,000	54,000	435,000	650,000	50,000	700,000	430,000	45,000	475,000	475,000	1,000	476,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	27,708	41,724	69,432	48,378	47,487	95,865	10,000	10,000	20,000	10,000	1,000	21,000
Manuf. of cotton.	329,148	5,654	334,802	665,034	26,058	691,092	81,000	81,000	162,000	80,753	1,000	163,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	18,310	5,208	23,518	24,471	4,314	28,785	11,000	11,000	22,000	11,000	1,000	23,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	20,944	24,497	45,441	31,908	4,261	36,169	4,261	4,261	8,522	4,261	4,261	8,522
Manuf. of paper.	250,000	26,738	276,738	581,500	5,000	586,500	485,738	41,767	527,505	485,738	1,000	528,505
Manuf. of iron and steel.	1,170	1,170	2,340	13,000	1,000	14,000	15,000	1,000	16,000	15,000	1,000	16,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of paper.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of iron and steel.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of cotton.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000
Manuf. of woolen goods.	10,000	10,000	20,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	10,000	110,000	100,000	1,000	111,000

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States during the Four Years commencing on the 1st of October, 1894, and ending on the 30th of September, 1898.

	1894-1895.			1895-1896.			1896-1897.			1897-1898.		
	Free of duty.	Paying duties at valorem.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties at valorem.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties at valorem.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties at valorem.	Total.
Whichever exported.												
British East India	576,077	1,280	577,357	44,289	31,782	76,071	71,074	3,333	74,407	84,710	4,677	89,387
British West India	1,280	14,184	15,464	44,289	31,782	76,071	71,074	3,333	74,407	84,710	4,677	89,387
British North American colonies	13,598	6,544	20,142	103,655	27,127	130,782	203,645	19,951	223,596	182,300	5,084	187,384
Holland	14,009	22,077	36,086	1,123	5,117	6,240	12,156	4,469	16,625	18,390	6,382	24,772
France	666,468	194,500	860,968	707,870	274,731	982,601	797,454	312,077	1,109,531	838,327	312,000	1,150,327
France Atlantic ports	1,008,108	75,184	1,083,292	1,678,788	47,288	1,726,076	1,694,577	100,418	1,794,995	1,593,359	201,636	1,794,995
France West India ports	76,536	3,288	79,824	4,728	1,000	5,728	18,640	3,800	22,440	22,440	1,188	23,628
French West Indian ports	76,536	3,288	79,824	4,728	1,000	5,728	18,640	3,800	22,440	22,440	1,188	23,628
Spanish Mediterranean ports	4,728	700	5,428	45,905	276	46,181	11,470	11,469	22,939	11,470	1,188	12,658
Spanish West Indian ports	4,728	700	5,428	45,905	276	46,181	11,470	11,469	22,939	11,470	1,188	12,658
Manilla and Philippine Islands	46,000	1,785	47,785	1,785	500	2,285	1,785	500	2,285	1,785	500	2,285
Cuba	30,000	1,100	31,100	1,100	500	1,600	1,100	500	1,600	1,100	500	1,600
Portugal	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Mexico	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Madagascar	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Asia	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Europe	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Africa	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Oceania	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other America	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Islands	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Miscellaneous	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Total	12,780,540	5,907,831	18,688,371	15,000,000	4,912,550	19,912,550	17,448,919	5,414,686	22,863,605	17,868,411	5,916,187	23,784,598

Not certified to drawback.
 15,780,540 1,745,568 17,526,108
 1,780,540 1,745,568 3,526,108

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Manufacture of the United States, exported during the Four Years commencing on the 1st day of October, 1894, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1898.

	1894-1895.			1895-1896.			1896-1897.			1897-1898.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.
Whichever exported.												
British	517,465	24,005	541,470	218,411	24,181	242,592	141,871	9,509	151,380	140,000	24,047	164,047
France	1,008,108	66,468	1,074,576	1,678,788	66,468	1,745,256	1,694,577	100,418	1,794,995	1,593,359	100,608	1,693,967
Germany	76,536	3,288	79,824	4,728	1,000	5,728	18,640	3,800	22,440	22,440	1,188	23,628
Holland	14,009	22,077	36,086	1,123	5,117	6,240	12,156	4,469	16,625	18,390	6,382	24,772
Spain	4,728	700	5,428	45,905	276	46,181	11,470	11,469	22,939	11,470	1,188	12,658
Portugal	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Mexico	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Madagascar	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Asia	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Europe	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Africa	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Oceania	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other America	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Islands	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Other Miscellaneous	10,000	300	10,300	300	100	400	300	100	400	300	100	400
Total	12,780,540	5,907,831	18,688,371	15,000,000	4,912,550	19,912,550	17,448,919	5,414,686	22,863,605	17,868,411	5,916,187	23,784,598

Not certified to drawback.
 15,780,540 1,745,568 17,526,108
 1,780,540 1,745,568 3,526,108

IMPRESSMENT, the forcible taking away of seamen from their ordinary employment and compelling them to serve, against their will, in his Majesty's ships.

1. *Regulations as to Impressment.*—This practice is not expressly sanctioned by any act of parliament; but it is so indirectly by the numerous statutes that have been passed, granting exemptions from it. According to Lord Mansfield, it is "a power founded upon immemorial usage," and is understood to make a part of the common law. All sea-faring men are liable to impressment; specially protected by custom or statute. Seamen executing particular services for government, not unfrequently get protections from the Admiralty, Navy Board, &c. Some are exempted by local custom; and ferrymen are every where privileged from impressment. The statutory exemptions are numerous.

1. Every ship in the coal trade has the following persons protected, viz. 2 able seamen (such as the master shall nominate) for every ship of 100 tons; and for every 50 tons for every ship of 100 tons and upwards; and any officer who presumes to impress any of the above, shall forfeit, to the master or owner of such vessel, 10*l.* for every man so impressed; and such officer shall be incapable of holding any place, office, or employment in any of his Majesty's ships of war. (2 & 3 Will. 3. c. 18. sect. 18.)

2. No parish apprentice shall be compelled or permitted to enter into his Majesty's sea service till he arrives at the age of 18 years.—(2 & 3 Anne, c. 5. sect. 4.)

3. Persons voluntarily binding themselves apprentices to sea service, shall not be impressed for 3 years from the date of their indentures. But no persons above 18 years of age shall have any exemption or protection from his Majesty's services, if they have been at sea before they became apprentices.—(2 & 3 Anne, c. 5. sect. 15. 4 Anne, c. 18. sect. 17.; and 13 Geo. 2. c. 17. sect. 2.)

4. *Apprentices.*—The act 4 Geo. 4. c. 25. makes some new regulations with respect to the number of apprentices that may be taken on board according to their tonnage, and grants protection to such apprentices till they have attained the age of 21 years.—(For the regulations of this act, see *Apprentices*.)

5. *Persons employed on the Fisheries.*—The act 50 Geo. 3. c. 106. grants the following exemptions from impressment, viz.:

1*o.* Masters of fishing vessels or boats, who either themselves or their owners or within 6 months before applying for a protection shall have had 1 apprentice or more under 18 years of age, bound for 5 years, and employed in the business of fishing.

2*o.* All such apprentices, not exceeding eight to every master or owner of any fishing vessel of 50 tons or upwards; not exceeding seven to every vessel or boat of 35 tons and under 50; not exceeding six to every vessel of 30 tons and under 35 tons; and not exceeding five to every vessel or boat under 30 tons burden, during the time

2. *Policy of Impressment.*—This practice, so subversive of every principle of Justice, is vindicated on the allegor ground of its being absolutely necessary to the manning of the fleet. But this position, notwithstanding the confidence with which it has been taken up, is not quite so tenable as has been supposed. The difficulties experienced in procuring sailors for the fleet at the breaking out of a war, are not natural but artificial, and might be got rid of by a very simple arrangement. During peace, not more than a fourth or a fifth part of the seamen are retained in his Majesty's service; that are commonly required during war; and if peace continue for a few years, the total number of sailors in the King's and the merchant service is limited to that which is merely adequate to supply the reduced demand of the former, and the ordinary demand of the latter. When, therefore, war is declared, and 30,000 or 40,000 additional seamen are wanted for the fleet, they cannot be obtained, unless by withdrawing them from the merchant service, which has not more than its proper complement of hands. But to do this by offering the seamen higher wages would be next to impossible, and would, supposing it were practicable, impose such a sacrifice upon the public as could hardly be borne. And hence, it is said, the necessity of impressment, a practice which every one admits can be justified on no other ground than that of its being absolutely essential to the public safety.

It is plain, however, that a necessity of this sort may be easily obviated. All, in fact, that is necessary for this purpose, is merely to keep such a number of sailors in his Majesty's service during peace as may suffice, with the ordinary proportion of landmen and boys, to man the fleet at the breaking out of a war. Were this done, there would not be the smallest ground of a pretence for resorting to impressment; and the practice, with the cruelty and injustice inseparable from it, might be entirely abolished.

But it is said that, though desirable in many respects, the expense of such a plan will always prevent it from being adopted. It admits, however, of demonstration, that instead of being dearer, this plan would be actually cheaper than that which is now followed. Not more than 1,000,000*l.* or 1,200,000*l.* a year would be required to be added to the navy estimates, and that would not be a real, but merely a nominal advance. The violence and injustice to which the practice of impressment exposes sailors, operates at all times to raise their wages; by creating a disinclination on the part of many young men to enter the sea service; and this disinclination is vastly increased during war, when wages usually rise to four or five times their previous amount, imposing a burden on the commerce of the country, exclusive of other equally mischievous consequences, many times greater than the tax that would be required to keep up the peace establishment of the navy to its proper level. It is really, therefore, a vulgar error to suppose that impressment has the recommendation of cheapness in its favour; and, though it had, no reasonable man would contend that it is the only, or even the principal, circumstance to be attended to. In point of fact, however, it is as costly as it is oppressive and unjust.—(The reader is referred, for a fuller discussion of this interesting question, to the note on *Impressment* in the 4th volume of the *Health of Nations*.)

INDEMNITY, is where one person secures another from responsibility against any particular event; thus, a policy of insurance is a contract of indemnity against any particular loss. Where one person also becomes bail for another, a bond of indemnity is frequently executed; and where a bond or bill of exchange has been lost or mislaid, the acceptor or obligee would not act prudently in paying it, without being secured by a bond of indemnity.

INDIAN RUBBER. See **CAOUTCHOUC.**

INDIGO (Fr. Indigo; Ger. Indigo; Sans. Nili; Arab. Neel; Malay, Taroom), the drug

* In order that these men shall be thus protected, it is necessary for the master to name them, before they are impressed: this is to be done by going before the mayor or other chief magistrates of the place, who is to give the master a certificate, in which is contained the names of the particular men whom he thus nominates; and this certificate will be their protection.

of their apprenticeship, and till the age of 20 years; they continuing for the time, in the business of fishing only.

3*o.* One mariner, towards the master and apprentices, to every fishing vessel of 10 tons or upwards, employed on the sea coast, during his continuance in such service.

4*o.* Any landman above the age of 18, entering and employed on land such vessel, for 3 years from his first going to sea; and if he be of the voyage then engaged in, if he so long continue in such service.

An affidavit sworn before a Justice of the peace, containing the tonnage of such fishing vessel or boat, the port or place to which she belongs, the names and dwell places of the master, the age of every apprentice, the term for which he is bound, and the date of his indenture, and the names, ages, and descriptions of every such mariner and landman respectively, and the time of such landman's first going to sea, is to be transmitted to the Admiralty; who, upon finding the facts correctly stated, grant a separate protection to every individual, in case, however, of an actual insurrection of these *Abdalgans*, or men-of-war, or any other persons, such protection may be impugned; but except upon such an emergency, any officer or officers impressing such protected person shall respectively forfeit 50*l.* to the party injured, if not an apprentice, or to his master if he be an apprentice.—(Sect. 2, 3, 4.)

6. *General Exemptions.*—All persons 55 years of age and upwards, and under 18 years. Every person being a foreigner, who shall arrive in any merchant ship, or other trading vessel, or privateer, belonging to a subject of the Crown of Great Britain; and all persons, of what age soever, who shall use the sea shall be protected for 5 years, to be computed from the time of their first being.—(13 Geo. 2. c. 17.)

7. *Harpooners, line managers, or boat steersmen, engaged in the southern whale fishery, are also protected.*—(26 Geo. 3. c. 60.)

8. *Structures employed in the herring fishery are exempted while actually employed.*—(48 Geo. 3. c. 110.)

which yields the beautiful blue in water of certain tropical from leguminous plants of the *fera tinctoria*; and that in leaves and a slender lignaceous stem, 3, 4, or 5 feet high, and 6 feet.

It appears pretty certain that the drug, have been practised in India; but as it would seem, with indeed, whether the *indico* but, as it would seem, with India; that when diluted in *distillato misturam purpur* the genuine drug might be egregiously mistaken as to be examples in modern as we brought from a distance im followed in its manufacture. Dr. Bancroft (*Pernament*) with great learning and sagacity was real indigo, and not, as at all events, there can be no way of Alexandria, previous Hope. When first introduced and improve the colour of the and woad was, at last, entirely indigo did not make its way *grouers of woad* prevailed, many, an Imperial edict was *dye*," and directing each country says the edict, "the trade of the country!" The magistrates that city to take an oath one to a late period. In 1598, solicitation of the woad growers was not till 1737, that the d in such a way, as they please happen to throw their eyes *Mutato nomine, de te fabula* the importation of many in the sixteenth century, against t

Indigo is at present produced in name, from the 20th to the 30th of Madras government in Java and the Caracass, in Central A tity produced in the other pla

Raynal was of opinion that t but this is undoubtedly an error. Spaniards used it as a substitute

the *Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. III. For the first 20 years after t Indigo, now of such importance but trifling. The European m however, the attention of the p pursued by them he nearly t and capital, give them immen has become the most important country. The Indigo made by Europeans is exported.

In the Delta of the Ganges, w only for a single season, being in western provinces, one or tw

are enabled to furnish a large t The fixed capital required is for erecting the plant, and p dwelling house for the planter average, 12,500*l.* of indigo, buildings and machinery nece about 4,000*l.* This fact, there answer to the question which engaged in the manufacture o

During the 9 years which p produce of Indigo in Bengal, 5 4 last years of this period s Indigo produced for exportat with 1820-30, being above 7,4 increase, taking the average

which yields the beautiful blue dye known by that name. It is obtained by the maceration in water of certain tropical plants; but the indigo of commerce is almost entirely obtained from leguminous plants of the genus *Indigofera*: that cultivated in India being the *Indigofera tinctoria*; and that in America the *Indigofera anil*. The Indian plant has pinnate leaves and a slender ligneous stem; and when successfully cultivated, rises to the height of 20, and even 6 feet.

It appears pretty certain that the culture of the indigo plant, and the preparation of the drug, have been practised in India from a very remote epoch. It has been questioned, indeed, whether the *indicum* mentioned by Pliny (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxv. c. 6.) was indigo, but, as it would seem, without any good reason. Pliny states that it was brought from India; that when diluted it produced an admirable mixture of blue and purple colours (*in diluendo misturam purpuree caeruleique mirabilem reddit*); and he gives tests by which the genuine drug might be discriminated with sufficient precision. It is true that Pliny is egregiously mistaken as to the mode in which the drug was produced; but there are many examples in modern as well as ancient times, to prove that the possession of an article brought from a distance implies no accurate knowledge of its nature, or of the processes followed in its manufacture. Beckmann (*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Indigo*) and Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 241—252.) have each investigated this subject with great learning and sagacity; and agree in the conclusion that the *indicum* of Pliny was real indigo, and not, as has been supposed, a drug prepared from the *isatis* or woad. At all events, there can be no question that indigo was imported into modern Europe, by way of Alexandria, previously to the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. When first introduced, it was customary to mix a little of it with woad to heighten and improve the colour of the latter; but, by degrees, the quantity of indigo was increased; and woad was, at last, entirely superseded. It is worth while, however, to remark, that indigo did not make its way into general use without encountering much opposition. The growers of woad prevailed on several governments to prohibit the use of indigo! In Germany, an Imperial edict was published in 1654, prohibiting the use of indigo, or "*devil's dye*," and directing great care to be taken to prevent its clandestine importation, "because," says the edict, "the trade in woad is lessened, dyed articles injured, and money carried out of the country!" The magistrates of Nuremberg went further, and compelled the dyers of that city to take an oath once a year not to use indigo; which practice was continued down to a late period. In 1598, upon an urgent representation of the states of Languedoc, at the solicitation of the woad growers, the use of indigo was prohibited in that province; and it was not till 1737, that the dyers of France were left at liberty to dye with such articles, and in such a way, as they pleased.—(Beckmann, vol. iv. p. 142.) Let not those who may happen to throw their eyes over this paragraph, smile at the ignorance of our ancestors—*Mutato nomine, de te fabula narratur*. How much opposition is made at this moment to the importation of many important articles, for no better reasons than were alleged, in the sixteenth century, against the importation of indigo!

Indigo is at present produced in Bengal, and the other provinces subject to the presidency of that name, from the 20th to the 30th degree of north latitude; in the province of Thuevely, under the Madras government; in Java; in Luconia, the principal of the Philippine Islands; and Guatemala, and the Caraccas, in Central America. Bengal is, however, the great mart for indigo; and the quantity produced in the other places is comparatively inconsiderable.

Raynal was of opinion that the culture of indigo had been introduced into America by the Spaniards; but this is undoubtedly an error. Several species of *indigofera* belong to the New World; and the Spaniards used it as a substitute for ink very soon after the conquest.—(Humboldt, *Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. iii. p. 54. 2d ed.)

For the first 20 years after the English became masters of Bengal, the culture and manufacture of indigo, now of such importance, was unknown as a branch of British industry; and the exports were but trifling. The European markets were, at this period, principally supplied from America. In 1763, however, the attention of the English began to be directed to this business; and though the processes pursued by them be nearly the same as those followed by the natives, their greater skill, intelligence, and capital, give them immense advantages. In their hands, the growth and preparation of indigo has become the most important employment, at least in a commercial point of view, carried on in the country. The indigo made by the natives supplies the internal demand; so that all that is raised by Europeans is exported.

In the Delta of the Ganges, where the best and largest quantity of indigo is produced, the plant lasts only for a single season, being destroyed by the periodical inundation; but in the dry central and western provinces, one or two ratoon crops are obtained; and owing to this circumstance, the latter are enabled to furnish a large supply of seed to the former.

The fixed capital required in the manufacture of indigo consists of a few vnts of common masonry for steeping the plant, and precipitating the colouring matter; a boiling and drying house; and a dwelling house for the planter. These, for a factory of 10 pair of vats, capable of producing, at an average, 12,500 lbs. of indigo, worth on the spot about 2,500*l.*, will not cost above 1,500*l.* sterling. The buildings and machinery necessary to produce an equal value in sugar and rum, would probably cost about 4,000*l.* This fact, therefore, without any reference to municipal regulations, affords a ready answer to the question which has been frequently put, why the British planters in India have never engaged in the manufacture of sugar.

During the 9 years which preceded the opening of the trade with India, in 1814, the annual average produce of indigo in Bengal, for exportation, was nearly 5,000,000 lbs.; but the average produce of the 4 last years of this period scarcely equalled that of the preceding 5. But since the ports were opened, indigo produced for exportation has increased fully a third; the exports during the 16 years ending with 1820-30, being above 7,400,000 lbs. a year. The following brief statement shows the rate of this increase, taking the average produce of each 4 years:—

1814	Lbs.	1815	Lbs.	1822	Lbs.	1825	Lbs.
1815	- - 7,040,000	1819	- - 6,000,000	1823	- - 8,000,000	1827	- - 9,000,000
1816		1820		1824		1828	
1817		1821		1825		1829	

and it has continued about the same since. It deserves to be remarked, that since the opening of the trade, Indian capitalists have betaken themselves to the manufacture of indigo on the European method, and that at present about a fifth part of the whole annual produce is prepared by them. The culture of indigo is very precarious, not only in so far as respects the growth of the plant from year to year, but also as regards the quantity and quality of the drug which the same amount of plant will afford even in the same season. Thus, the produce of 1825-26 was 41,000 chests, while the produce of the following year was but 25,000 chests; and the produce of 1827-28 was about 42,000 chests, and that of 1828-29 only 26,500 chests! The average of these years, that is, about 9,000,000 lbs., may be considered as the present annual produce of Bengal. The price of indigo in India increased, for a while, in a far greater ratio than its quantity. In 1818-19 the real value of that exported from Calcutta was 1,461,000l.; but in 1827-28, although the quantity had increased but 20 per cent., the value rose to 8,220,000l., or was about doubled. There was no corresponding rise in the price in Europe, but, on the contrary, a decline; and the circumstance is to be accounted for by the restraints placed on the investment of capital in the production of colonial articles suited to the European market, the consequent difficulty of making remittances from India, and an unnatural flow of capital to the only great article of Indian produce and export that is supposed capable of bearing its application.

But the effects of the profuse advances made by the Calcutta capitalists to those engaged in the indigo culture, coupled with the increasing imports from Madras, and the stationary demand for the drug in this country, have at length manifested themselves in the most distressing manner. Prices have been so much reduced that a ruinous reaction has taken place; most of the Calcutta merchants engaged in the trade having been obliged to stop payment, involving in their fall several opulent houses in this country. It remains to be seen whether this will occasion any diminution in the supplies of indigo, or whether the supply may not be maintained even at the reduced prices by increased economy. The subjoined Table shows that prices advanced considerably in 1833; but it is doubtful whether this advance will be sustained.

The consumption of indigo has varied but little in this country during the last dozen years, having been, at an average of that period, about 8,500,000 lbs. a year. This stationary demand, notwithstanding the fall in the price of the drug and the increase of population, is principally to be ascribed to the decreasing use of blue cloth, in the dyeing of which it is principally made use of. Its consumption in France is about as great as in Britain. Besides the exports to Great Britain, France, and the United States, a good deal of Bengal indigo is exported to the ports on the Persian Gulf, whence it finds its way to southern Russia. It is singular that it is not used by the Chinese, with whom blue is a favourite colour.

The indigo of Bengal is divided into two classes, called, in commercial language, *Bengal and Oude*; the first being the produce of the southern provinces of Bengal and Bahar, and the last that of the northern provinces. The first is, in point of quality, much superior to the other. This arose at one time, in a considerable degree, from the practice which prevailed in the northern provinces, of the European planter purchasing the wet fecula from the native manufacturer, and completing the processes of curing and drying the drug. This is at present in a great measure discontinued; and the Oude indigo has, in consequence, considerably improved in quality. Its inferiority is probably more the result of soil and climate, than of any difference in the skill with which the manufacture is conducted.

In 1827-28, and we are possessed of no later data, the export of indigo from the port of Madras amounted to 890,850 lbs. weight; having more than quadrupled in the course of the preceding 5 years. Besides the export from Madras, there is also a considerable one from the French settlement of Pondicherry; of which, however, we have no detailed statement. In 1827, the export of indigo from Manila amounted to about 290,000 lbs. avoirdupois; but it is understood to have materially increased since. The export from Batavia, in 1829, amounted to 152,000 lbs. weight, and the production is rapidly increasing. According to the statement now given, the annual exports of Asiatic indigo are as follow:—Bengal, 9,000,000 lbs.; Madras, 900,000 lbs.; Manila, 300,000 lbs.; Batavia, 150,000 lbs. Hence the annual average produce for foreign markets, making allowance for a trifling augmentation in the exports from Madras, Java, and the Philippines, is certainly not less than 10,500,000 lbs.

According to M. Humboldt, the exportation of indigo from Guatemala, in 1825, amounted to 1,800,000 lbs. Indigo is also produced in some of the West India islands, but not in large quantities. Good indigo is known by its lightness or small specific gravity, indicating the absence of earthy impurities; by the mass not readily parting with its colouring matter when tested by drawing a streak with it over a white surface; but, above all, by the purity of the colour itself. The first quality, estimated by this last test, is called, in commercial language, *fine blue*; then follow *ordinary blue*, *fine purple*, *purple and violet*, *ordinary purple and violet*, *dull blue*, *inferior purple and violet*, *strong copper*, and *ordinary copper*. These distinctions refer to the Bengal indigo only, the Oude being distinguished only into *fine and ordinary*. The qualities of Madras and Manila indigo are nearly the same, and equal to ordinary Bengal indigo. The indigo of Java is superior to these.

We are indebted to Mr. Cook for the following Table, which gives a very comprehensive view of the state of the crops of indigo in Bengal, and the imports, consumption, and prices of Bengal indigo, since 1811-12:—

Crops in Bengal.		Years.	Total Import from India into Great Britain.		Total Deliveries for Export and Home Con.		Stock in Great Britain and India.	Average Prices in London.		
Years.	Mounds.		Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Years.		Fine Bengal. per lb.	Ord. Bengal. per lb.	Low Oude. per lb.
1811-1812	70,000 = 19,500	1812	17,300	14,600	29,500	1812	8 0	10 6	4 0	
1812-1813	75,000 = 22,000	1813	14,500	15,300	24,500	1813	10 0	14 0	6 2	
1813-1814	74,500 = 21,300	1814	24,300	23,900	24,900	1814	10 0	14 6	6 9	
1814-1815	102,500 = 27,000	1815	23,900	23,400	30,400	1815	8 0	11 0	5 7	
1815-1816	115,000 = 29,000	1816	15,500	20,300	25,700	1816	6 6	10 3	5 6	
1816-1817	87,000 = 23,500	1817	13,500	15,700	23,500	1817	7 0	10 0	5 6	
1817-1818	72,800 = 19,000	1818	16,600	16,100	24,000	1818	8 0	9 0	6 6	
1818-1819	68,000 = 17,000	1819	11,500	15,800	19,700	1819	7 6	9 0	5 6	
1819-1820	72,000 = 19,000	1820	16,500	21,900	14,500	1820	7 0	9 0	5 6	

Years.	Mounds.	Chests.
1820-1821	107,000 = 25,500	1820
1821-1822	72,400 = 19,500	1821
1822-1823	90,000 = 24,000	1822
1823-1824	113,000 = 28,000	1823
1824-1825	79,000 = 23,000	1824
1825-1826	141,000 = 41,000	1825
1826-1827	90,000 = 25,000	1826
1827-1828	149,000 = 42,000	1827
1828-1829	68,000 = 26,500	1828
1829-1830	141,000 = 40,000	1829
1830-1831	116,000 = 33,500	1830
1831-1832	122,000 = 35,000	1831
1832-1833	122,000 = 35,000	1832

of 7,899,605 lbs of indigo, 10,349 lbs. from the British West Indies. Of the total quantity imported, the imports of indigo, in 1833, of indigo of British possession (4, r. 48.) For further information see *Orient. Con.; Bell's Review of MacLaine, Esq., East India Company*. [Indigo is imported into the and the Philippine islands, a INK (Du. *Ink, Inkt*; F. Rus. *Tschernilo*; Sp. *Tinta*.)

Every liquor or pigment upon practice knows only black 2. Printer's ink; and 3. Writing for painting upon the soft flexible experiment as from information plus, with the addition of perfumy fine soot from the flame of a lamp from shreds of parchment Good printer's ink is a black paste possesses a singular aptitude to Common ink for writing is iron, dissolved in water. A variety is prevented by the addition to give the black colour, or is a good red. They are ground among the amusing experiment distinguished place. With these links have been proposed as the in this respect, because the proper have more or less of a tinge when paper till it begins to be scorched

INKLE, a sort of broad other towns in Lancashire. INSOLVENCY AND BANKRUPTCY to designate the condition of usage of trade. A bankrupt without having committed act of bankruptcy.

We have, under the article the law as to insolvency and the article CREDIT, some of these laws more in harmony more conducive to the interests of the article, therefore, we shall content the existing laws.

Under the bankrupt laws entire possessions of their debtors voluntary surrender of his property in the initiative process result in bankrupt and insolvent acts. T

* These numbers R 2

Table—continued.

Crops in Bengal.			Years.	Total Import from India into Great Britain.	Total Deliveries for Export and Home Con.	Stock in Great Britain & Ind.	Average Prices in London.										
Years.	Mansads.	Chests.					Chests.	Chests.	Years.	Fine Bengal. per lb.			Ord. Bengal. per lb.			Low Onda. per lb.	
1890-1891	107,000 = 25,600	1891	13,000	17,300	9,500	1891	7	0	6	6	10	7	0	4	0	5	9
1891-1892	72,400 = 19,500	1892	13,600	15,100	8,200	1892	11	0	12	6	8	6	10	3	0	5	0
1892-1893	90,000 = 24,000	1893	21,700	18,800	13,100	1893	9	6	11	0	5	9	8	6	3	6	4
1893-1894	113,000 = 29,000	1894	16,300	17,200	12,200	1894	12	0	13	6	8	0	10	6	5	0	6
1894-1895	79,000 = 20,000	1895	25,300	21,100	16,400	1895	13	0	15	0	8	6	10	6	4	3	5
1895-1896	141,000 = 41,000	1896	27,800	21,900	22,300	1896	8	0	9	6	4	6	7	0	2	3	3
1896-1897	80,000 = 25,000	1897	19,000	18,500	22,800	1897	11	6	13	0	7	0	9	6	3	0	4
1897-1898	149,000 = 43,000	1898	35,800	37,500	31,100	1898	8	0	10	0	5	3	7	3	2	0	2
1898-1899	98,000 = 26,500	1899	23,200	22,100	21,900	1899	7	4	8	6	3	9	6	6	2	6	6
1899-1900	141,000 = 40,000	1900	32,120	25,700	37,600	1900	6	6	7	6	3	3	4	6	2	0	3
1900-1901	116,000 = 33,600	1901	23,330	24,960	35,970	1901	6	0	6	3	0	4	4	2	0	2	6
1891-1892	122,000 = 35,000	1892	25,470	28,920	32,550	1892	5	6	6	3	3	3	4	6	2	3	2
1892-1893	122,000 = 35,000	1893	25,000	23,000	35,000	1893	7	0	7	9	5	0	6	0	3	0	4

Of 7,299,665 lbs of indigo imported into Great Britain in 1831, 6,996,063 lbs. were from India, 19,249 lbs. from the British West Indies, 81,991 lbs. from Guatemala, 16,014 lbs. from Colombia, &c. Of the total quantity imported, 2,490,000 lbs. were retained for consumption.

The imports of indigo, in 1832, were 6,353,665 lbs.; of which 2,565,653 lbs. were retained. Indigo of British possessions, not deemed their produce unless imported from thence.—*J. Geo. 4. c. 48.*

For further information as to indigo, see *Colbrooke's Husbandry of Bengal*, p. 151; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Bell's Review of Commerce of Bengal*; *Wilson's Review of do.*; evidence of Gillian MacLaine, Esq., East India Committee, 1830-31, &c.

[Indigo is imported into the United States chiefly from the British East Indies, Manilla and the Philippine islands, and the republic of Colombia.—*Am. Ed.*]

INK (Du. *Ink*, *Inkt*; Fr. *Encre*; Ger. *Dinte*; It. *Inchoistro*; Lat. *Atramentum*; Rus. *Tschernilo*; Sp. *Tinta*; Sw. *Blak*.)

"Every liquor or pigment used for writing or printing is distinguished by the name of ink. Common practice knows only black and red. Of black ink there are three principal kinds: 1. Indian ink; 2. Printer's ink; and 3. Writing ink. The Indian ink is used in China for writing with a brush, and for painting upon the soft flexible paper of Chinese manufacture. It is ascertained, as well from experiment as from information, that the cakes of this ink are made of lampblack and size, or animal glue, with the addition of perfumes or other substances not essential to its quality as an ink. The fine soot from the flame of a lamp or candle received by holding a plate over it, mixed with clean size from shreds of parchment or glove-leather not dyed, will make an ink equal to that imported. Good printer's ink is a black paint, smooth, and uniform in its composition, of a firm black colour, and possesses a singular aptitude to adhere to paper thoroughly impregnated with moisture.

"Common ink for writing is made by adding an infusion or decoction of the nut-gall to sulphate of iron, dissolved in water. A very fine black precipitate is thrown down, the speedy subsidence of which is prevented by the addition of a proper quantity of gum Arabic. Lampblack is the common material to give the black colour, of which 2½ ounces are sufficient for 16 ounces of the varnish. Vermilion is a good red. They are ground together on a stone with a muller, in the same manner as oil paints. Among the amusing experiments of the art of chemistry, the exhibition of 'sympathetic inks holds a distinguished place. With these the writing is invisible, until some reagent gives it opacity. These inks have been proposed as the instruments of secret correspondence. But they are of little use in this respect, because the properties change by a few days' remaining on the paper; most of them have more or less of a tinge when thoroughly dry; and none of them resist the test of heating the paper till it begins to be scorched."—(*Ure's Dictionary*.)

INKLE, a sort of broad linen tape, principally manufactured at Manchester and some other towns in Lancashire.

INSOLVENCY and BANKRUPTCY. Insolvency is a term in mercantile law, applied to designate the condition of all persons unable to pay their debts according to the ordinary usage of trade. A bankrupt is an insolvent; but persons may be in a state of insolvency without having committed any of the specific acts which render them liable to a commission of bankruptcy.

We have, under the article **BANKRUPTCY**, explained the most important differences in the law as to insolvency and bankruptcy; and have also briefly stated in that article, and in the article **CREDIT**, some of the alterations which seem to be imperatively required to make these laws more in harmony, than they are at present, with the principles of justice, and more conducive to the interests of commerce and the public advantage. In the present article, therefore, we shall confine ourselves to a summary statement of the proceedings under the existing laws.

Under the bankrupt laws, the creditors have a compulsory authority to sequester the entire possessions of their debtor; under the insolvent laws, the debtor himself may make a voluntary surrender of his property for the benefit of all his creditors. From this diversity in the initiative process results the greatest diversity in the ultimate operation of the bankrupt and insolvent acts. The proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy being insti-

* These numbers are partly from estimate; but they cannot be far wrong.

distinction to every class of persons actually in prison for debt; the benefits of the Bankrupt Act extend to traders only. But persons relieved under a commission of bankruptcy for the first time are for ever discharged from all debts proveable against them, and their property from any future liability; whereas, if relieved under the Insolvent Act, their persons only are protected from arrest, while any property they may subsequently acquire continues liable to their creditors till the whole amount of their debts is paid in full. It follows that the Insolvent Act affords merely a personal relief; while the Bankrupt Act discharges both person and property, and even returns the bankrupt a certain allowance out of the produce of his assets, proportioned to good behaviour, and the amount of his dividend.

Having already treated of insolvency, we shall now proceed to describe the proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy, as regulated by the act of Lord Brougham, the 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 56, and the 6 Geo. 4. c. 16, which are the last general acts on the subject, and by which former statutes have been consolidated, and several important improvements introduced; leaving, however, untouched, many of the radical defects inherent in this branch of the law. The chief points to be considered, are—1. The persons who may become bankrupt; 2. Acts constituting bankruptcy; 3. Proceedings of petitioning creditor; 4. New Court of Bankruptcy; 5. Debts proveable under the commission; 6. Official assignees; 7. Assignees chosen by creditors; 8. Property liable under bankruptcy; 9. Examination and liabilities of bankrupt; 10. Payment of a dividend; 11. Certificate and allowance to bankrupt.

1. *Who may become Bankrupt.*—Generally all persons in trade, capable of making binding contracts, whether natural-born subjects, alien, or denizens, are within the extent of the bankrupt laws; and the statute expressly includes builders, bankers, brokers, grocers, carpenters, scriveners, ship insurers, warehousemen, wharfingers, shipwrights, vicars; keepers of inns, taverns, hotels, and colleges; dyers, printers, bleachers, fullers, scolders, callers or sheep shears, factors, agents, and all persons who use the trade of merchandise by bargaining, bartering, commission, consignment, and otherwise; and all persons who seek their living by buying and selling, letting for hire, or by the manufacturing of goods and commodities. Persons who cannot become bankrupt, are, graniers, millers, bakers, brewers, distillers, and all persons who are not members to any commercial or trading company established by charter or act of parliament.

A foreigner, and a trader, cannot be made a bankrupt; nor an attorney, in the common course of his profession; nor an infant, nor a lunatic, nor a married woman, except in those cases where she may be sued and taken in execution for her debts.—(8 T. R. 645.)

A single act of buying or selling is not sufficient to make a trader; as a schoolmaster selling books to his scholars only, or a keeper of a house buying dead horses and selling the skin and bones.—(6 Moore, 85.) But the quantity of dealing is immaterial, where an intention to deal generally may be inferred.—(1 Ross, 84.) A buyer or seller of land, or any interest in land, is not a trader within the act; and on this principle it has been decided, that a brick maker, selling bricks made in his own field, or the owner of a mine selling minerals from his own quarry, is not liable, because such business is carried on only as a mode of enjoying the profits of a real estate.—(3 Wils. 108.)

Traders having privileges of parliament are subject to the bankrupt laws, and may be proceeded against as other traders; but such persons cannot be arrested or imprisoned, except in cases made felony by the statute.

2. *Acts constituting Bankruptcy.*—In general, any act which is intended to delay or defraud creditors, is an act of bankruptcy; such as a trader concealing himself from his creditors, leaving the country, making himself to be arrested or his goods taken in execution, or making any fraudulent conveyance, gift, or delivery of his property. A trader keeps his house committed an act of bankruptcy, if he gives a general order to be detained. So is closing the door, and not admitting persons till ascertained who they are from window, though no actual denial.—(1 Bur. & Cr. 54.) But it is no act of bankruptcy if the denial be on Sunday, or at an unreasonable hour of the night, or to prevent interruption at dinner time.

Traders held in prison for any really subsisting debt for the period of 60 days or who, being arrested, makes their escape out of prison or custody, commit acts of bankruptcy. A penalty due to the Crown is a sufficient debt, and the time is computed from the first arrest, unless any time is previously specified, and the day of arrest is included, and the whole of the last day.

Filing a petition, in order to take the benefit of the Insolvent Act, is an act of bankruptcy, and a fiat may be issued any time before the petition is heard by the Insolvent Court, or within Calendar months. A trader may make a declaration of his insolvency, signed and attested by an attorney or solicitor, and afterwards to be filed in the Bankrupt Office, and the attorney or solicitor a memorandum thereof, is authority for advertising it in the Gazette. Upon this act of bankruptcy an commission can issue, if not within two calendar months after the date of the declaration, and unless such advertisement be within 8 days after filing the declaration; and no docket can be struck till 4 days after advertisement, if the commission is to be executed in London, and until the 15 days after notice thereof within 9 months, if elsewhere, given in the Gazette, and 3 daily newspapers; or, if the trader reside more than 50 miles from London, notice may be given in the Gazette, and two newspapers.

3. *Proceedings of Petitioning Creditors.*—A person being a trader, and having committed an act of bankruptcy, the next step in the proceeding is to petition the Lord Chancellor to issue his fiat. No fiat is issued, unless the petitioning creditor's debt, if a person or firm, amounts to 10*l.*; if 2 creditors, to 100*l.*; if 3 or more creditors, to 500*l.* or upwards. The petitioning creditor must make an affidavit

before a Master in Chancery, of the truth of his debt, and give bond in 20*l.* to prove it, and the act of bankruptcy. If the debt prove insufficient to support a fiat, the Lord Chancellor, upon the application of another creditor who has proved a sufficient debt, contracted posterior to that of the petitioning creditor, may order the bankruptcy to be proceeded in.

The petitioning creditor proceeds at his own cost until the choice of assignees, when his expenses are paid out of the first money received under the bankruptcy.

Creditors entitled to sue out a fiat against all the partners in a firm, may elect to petition only against one or more of such partners; and the commission may be superseded as to one or more partners, without affecting its validity as to the other partners.

Creditors who have sued out a fiat compounding with the bankrupt, or receiving more in the pound than other creditors, forfeit the benefit of their debt, and whatever they received, for the benefit of the other creditors, and the Lord Chancellor may either order the commission to be proceeded in or superseded.

4. *New Court of Bankruptcy.*—Formerly the bankrupt business of the metropolis was transacted by 10 commissioners, appointed by the Lord Chancellor. They received no regular commission, but derived their authority from a letter written to them by the Chancellor, informing them of their appointment. The whole proceedings under a laws commission, from its issuing to the winding up of the bankrupt's affairs, were managed by these commissioners, who acted by rotation, in lots of 5 each. In place of these an entire new court has been substituted, consisting of a chief judge, with 3 puisne judges, and 6 commissioners. There are also 3 principal registrars, and 2 deputy registrars. The secretary of bankrupts is also constituted as one of the officers under the new system.

The judges, or any 3 of them, sit as a Court of Review, to adjudicate in all matters of bankruptcy brought before them, subject to an appeal to the Lord Chancellor. The 6 commissioners sit occasionally in 2 subdivision courts of 3 commissioners each. The powers of the single commissioner are nearly the same as the old commissioners. The examination of any bankrupt or other person, or of a proof of debt, may be adjourned by a single commissioner to a subdivision court; and disputed debts, if all parties consent, may be tried by a jury. An appeal lies from a single commissioner, or a subdivision court, to the Court of Review; and a decree of the court is final, unless appealed against within 1 month.

The London commissioners under the old law had a jurisdiction for 40 miles round London, which is continued to their successors. Commissioners in the country beyond this distance were directed to barristers, or, if these could not be had, to solicitors, resident near the spot where the commission was to be executed. Under the new act, the Judges of assize name to the Lord Chancellor such barristers and solicitors in the county as they think fit for the office; and if he agrees, they are to appoint the same commissioners for the execution of all bankruptcy business in the county; and flats, not referred to the Court of Bankruptcy in London, are directed to them.

Let us now proceed with the powers and duties of the commissioners.

Commissioners are empowered to summon persons, examine them on oath, and call for any deeds or documents necessary to establish the trading and act of bankruptcy; and upon full proof thereof, to adjudge the debtor a bankrupt. Notice of such adjudication must be given in the Gazette, and 3 public notices appointed for the bankrupt to surrender the act of bankruptcy, to which notice he has 40 days after. A bankrupt refusing to attend at the appointed time may be apprehended; and no refusing to answer any question touching his business or property, may be committed to prison.

By warrant of the commissioners, persons may break open any house, premises, door, chest, or trunk of any bankrupt, and seize on his body or property; and if the bankrupt be in prison or custody, they may seize any property necessary for the purposes of the execution of such bankruptcy, or any other person. Authorized by a justice's warrant, premises may be searched not belonging to the bankrupt, on suspicion of property being concealed there; and persons suspected to have any of the bankrupt's property in their possession, refusing to obey the summons of commissioners, or refusing to answer interrogatories, or to surrender documents, without lawful excuse, may be imprisoned. The wife of the bankrupt may be examined, or, on refusal, committed.

Persons summoned are entitled to testify in their expenses; and those attending, whether summoned or not, to assist the commissioners in their inquiries, are protected from arrest on any civil suit.

5. *Debt proveable under Commission.*—At the 3 meetings ap

INSURANCE.

er, in contemplation of bankruptcy, has destroyed or falsified his books, or concealed property in amount of 10%; or, if any person being proved a false debtor under the commission, such bankruptcy being given thereon, or afterwards knowing the same, has not disclosed it to his assignees within 1 month after such knowledge. Lastly, upon request by the bankrupt, the official assignee is re-

quired to declare to him how he has disposed of his property, and account to him for the surplus, if any; but before any surplus can be admitted, interest must be paid, first, on all debts proved that carry interest, at the rate payable thereon; and next, upon all other debts, at the rate of 4l. per cent., to be calculated from the date of the commission.

I. Account of the Number of Commissions of Bankruptcy issued from 1790 to 1821.

Years.	Commissions.										
1790	747	1796	954	1802	1,090	1807	1,362	1812	2,229	1817	1,927
1791	769	1797	1,115	1803	1,314	1808	1,433	1813	1,834	1818	1,245
1792	934	1798	911	1804	1,117	1809	1,352	1814	1,612	1819	1,499
1793	1,956	1799	717	1805	1,120	1810	2,314	1815	2,284	1820	1,381
1794	1,041	1800	951	1806	1,268	1811	2,500	1816	2,731	1821	1,233
1795	879	1801	1,199								

II. Account of the Number of Commissions of Bankrupt and Flats issued each Year, from 1822 to 1832 both included; distinguishing Town Commissioners and Flats, and showing how many Country Commissions and Flats were opened in each Year.—(Part. Paper, No. 242, Sess. 1833.)

Years.	Commissions sealed.	Town Commissions opened.	Country Commissions opened.	Years.	Commissions sealed.	Town Commissions opened.	Country Commissions opened.
1822	1,419	468	534	1831	1,336	693	770
1823	1,250	592	390				
1824	1,240	574	396				
1825	1,475	683	448	1832			
1826	3,307	1,223	1,220	Comms.	61	20	37
1827	1,938	671	748	Flats	1,661	623	703
1828	1,519	601	620		1,772	643	740
1829	2,150	809	910				
1830	1,720	661	748		19,376	7,563	7,524
Total commissions and flats sealed and signed in the above period							19,376
Total town commissions and flats opened							7,563
Total country commissions and flats opened							7,524

III. Total Number of Persons discharged from Prison under the Acts for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors since the Constitution of the present Court in 1820; and the Number who have been ordered to be detained in Custody for contravening the Provisions of the Acts for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors.—(Part. Paper, No. 141, Sess. 1831, and Papers published by Board of Trade.)

N. B.—The Court makes no orders of detention; and the following Table shows all the judgments given to the 30th of June, 1831.

Years.	Ordered to be discharged forthwith.				Ordered to be discharged at some future Period.				Total.
	In London.	On Circuit.	Before Justices.	Total.	In London.	On Circuit.	Before Justices.	Total.	
1830	830	nona.	1,495	2,325	61	nona.	96	157	2,482
1821	2,317	nona.	2,516	4,833	219	nona.	208	427	5,260
1822	2,074	nona.	2,469	4,573	161	nonc.	221	382	4,955
1823	1,811	nonc.	2,017	3,828	181	nonc.	202	383	4,211
1824	1,745	388	1,255	3,318	142	18	115	275	3,593
1825	1,055	1,312	73	3,370	196	161	8	365	3,665
1826	2,120	1,865	89	4,383	110	183	5	298	4,681
1827	1,929	1,988	69	4,006	60	128	10	222	4,224
1828	1,913	1,450	112	3,475	127	131	6	264	3,739
1829	2,067	1,580	100	3,747	158	152	10	320	4,067
1830	2,056	1,823	111	3,990	189	191	9	389	4,379
1831	1,553	2,031	135	3,719	159	178	8	345	4,064
Totals	22,709	12,397	10,521	45,027	1,723	1,142	698	3,763	49,390

[By the constitution of the United States "Congress shall have power to establish uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies through the United States." This power, however, has only been exercised for a very short period. An act establishing a uniform system of bankruptcy was passed on April 4th, 1800. It was limited to five years, and thence to the end of the next session of Congress, but was repealed by the act of December 19th, 1803.

The power of Congress in respect to bankruptcies has been adjudged not to be exclusive. So long as Congress refuse to exercise it, the respective states may pass bankrupt, or, what amounts to the same thing, insolvent laws; but such laws must not be of a nature to impair the obligation of contracts made prior to their passage. State insolvent laws are, moreover, invalid as to all contracts, whether prior or posterior to their existence, to which citizens of other states are parties.—See Kent's *Commentaries on American Law*, Sect. 37.—*Am. Ed.*]

INSURANCE, a contract of indemnity, by which one party engages, for a stipulated sum, to insure another against a risk to which he is exposed. The party who takes upon him the risk, is called the *Insurer*, *Assurer*, or *Underwriter*; and the party protected by the insurance is called the *Insured*, or *Assured*; the sum paid is called the *Premium*; and the instrument containing the contract is called the *Policy*.

- I. INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).
 II. INSURANCE (MARINE).
 III. INSURANCE (FIRE).
 IV. INSURANCE (LIFE).

I. INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).

It is the duty of government to assist, by every means in its power, the efforts of individuals to protect their property. Losses do not always arise from accidental circumstances, but are frequently occasioned by the crimes and misconduct of individuals; and there are no means so effectual for their prevention, when they arise from this source, as the establishment of a vigilant system of police, and of such an administration of the law as may be calculated to afford those who are injured a ready and cheap method of obtaining every practicable redress; and, as far as possible, of insuring the punishment of culprits. But in despite of all that may be done by government, and of the utmost vigilance on the part of individuals, property must always be exposed to a variety of casualties from fire, shipwreck, and other unforeseen disasters. And hence the importance of inquiring how such unavoidable losses, when they do occur, may be rendered least injurious.

The loss of a ship, or the conflagration of a cotton mill, is a calamity that would press heavily even on the richest individual. But were it distributed among several individuals, each would feel it proportionally less; and provided the number of those among whom it was distributed were very considerable, it would hardly occasion any sensible inconvenience to any one in particular. Hence the advantage of combining to lessen the injury arising from the accidental destruction of property: and it is the diffusion of the risk of loss over a wide surface, and its valuation, that forms the employment of those engaged in insurance.

Though it be impossible to trace the circumstances which occasion those events that are, on that account, termed accidental, they are, notwithstanding, found to obey certain laws. The number of births, marriages, and deaths; the proportions of male to female, and of legitimate to illegitimate births; the ships cast away; the houses burned; and a vast variety of other apparently accidental events; are yet, when our experience embraces a sufficiently wide field, found to be nearly equal in equal periods of time: and it is easy, from observations made upon them, to estimate the sum which an individual should pay, either to guarantee his property from risk, or to secure a certain sum for his heirs at his death.

It must, however, be carefully observed, that no confidence can be placed in such estimates, unless they are deduced from a very wide induction. Suppose, for example, it happens, that during the present year one house is accidentally burned, in a town containing 1,000 houses; this would afford very little ground for presuming that the average probability of fire in that town was as 1 to 1,000. For it might be found that not a single house had been burned during the previous 10 years, or that 10 were burned during each of these years. But supposing it were ascertained, that, on an average of 10 years, 1 house had been annually burned, the presumption that 1 to 1,000 was the real ratio of the probability of fire would be very much strengthened; and if it were found to obtain for 20 or 30 years together, it might be held, for all practical purposes at least, as indicating the precise degree of probability.

Besides its being necessary, in order to obtain the true measure of the probability of any event, that the series of events, of which it is one, should be observed for a rather lengthened period, it is necessary also that the events should be numerous, or of pretty frequent occurrence. Suppose it were found, by observing the births and deaths of 1,000,000 individuals taken indiscriminately from among the whole population, that the mean duration of human life was 40 years; we should have but very slender grounds for concluding that this ratio would hold in the case of the next 10, 20, or 50 individuals that are born. Such a number is so small as hardly to admit of the operation of what is called the *law of average*. When a large number of lives is taken, those that exceed the medium term are balanced by those that fall short of it; but when the number is small, there is comparatively little room for the principle of compensation, and the result cannot, therefore, be depended upon.

It is found, by the experience of all countries in which censuses of the population have been taken with considerable accuracy, that the number of male children born is to that of female children in the proportion nearly of 22 to 21. But unless the observations be made on a very large scale, this result will not be obtained. If we look at particular families, they sometimes consist wholly of boys, and sometimes wholly of girls; and it is not possible that the boys can be to the girls of a single family in a ratio of 22 to 21. But when, instead of confining our observations to particular families, or even parishes, we extend them so as to embrace a population of 500,000, these discrepancies disappear, and we find that there is invariably a small excess in the number of males born over the females.

The false inferences that have been drawn from the doctrine of chances, have uniformly, almost, proceeded from generalising too rapidly, or from deducing a rate of probability from such a number of instances as do not give a fair average. But when the instances on which

we found our conclusions events, such as suicides, do without any address, &c. estimatéd *à priori*.

The business of insurance has been remarked that of a given trade, 1 is annually *fortieth*. And if an individual in this trade, he ought to be exclusive of such an additional trouble, and to leave him a pail; and if it fall below it

Insurances are effected being in either case diffuse on the business have generally enables them to raise, with make good losses. Societies do not often refuse to insure their capitals afford them being proportioned to their agencies.

Individuals, it is plain, large capitals; and besides, that few would be disposed 20,000L., upon a single ship cases, take a greater risk than added together, amount to supposing 1 or 2 ships to lessen his profits. Hence a ship insured by a company same thing done at Lloyd's manner, the business of insurance engage.

To establish a policy of paid by the insured shall be ous necessary expense to vary, as previously remarked is not, however, at all need lead to those events that are would, indeed, be entirely ignorant of the causes of them

It appears, from the accounts Regions, that of 588 ships em whale fishery, during being at the rate of about 1 to be about the average loss be 1l. 7s. 4d. per cent., excepter. Both the insurer and on this fair principle. Wherever a considerable number and may be as fairly calculated other hand, the individual chances of loss, and placed

It is easy, from the brevity of navigation and commerce that it affords, comparative property to the risk of long absence security, and the capital exposed to all the perils of blue his measures and arrangements. The chances of shipwreck, He has purchased an exemption the prosecution of his business of security can inspire. 'tôme des assurances a paru interrogé ce terrible élément épici la politique: il a reco

we found our conclusions are sufficiently numerous, it is seen that the most anomalous events, such as suicides, deaths by accidents, the number of letters put into the post-office without any address, &c., form pretty regular series, and consequently admit of being estimated *à priori*.

The business of insurance is founded upon the principles thus briefly stated. Suppose it has been remarked that of forty ships, of the ordinary degree of sea-worthiness, employed in a given trade, 1 is annually cast away, the probability of loss will plainly be equal to *one fortieth*. And if an individual wish to insure a ship, or the cargo on board a ship, engaged in this trade, he ought to pay a premium equal to the 1-40th part of the sum he insures, exclusive of such an additional sum as may be required to indemnify the insurer, for his trouble, and to leave him a fair profit. If the premium exceed this sum, the insurer is overpaid; and if it fall below it, he is underpaid.

Insurances are effected sometimes by societies, and sometimes by individuals, the risk being in either case diffused among a number of persons. Companies formed for carrying on the business have generally a large subscribed capital, or such a number of proprietors as enables them to raise, without difficulty, whatever sums may at any time be required to make good losses. Societies of this sort do not limit their risks to small sums; that is, they do not often refuse to insure a large sum upon a ship, a house, a life, &c. The magnitude of their capitals affords them the means of easily defraying a heavy loss; and their premiums being proportioned to their risks, their profit is, at an average, independent of such contingencies.

Individuals, it is plain, could not act in this way, unless they were possessed of very large capitals; and besides, the taking of large risks would render the business so hazardous, that few would be disposed to engage in it. Instead, therefore, of insuring a large sum, as 20,000*l.*, upon a single ship, a private underwriter or insurer may not, probably, in ordinary cases, take a greater risk than 200*l.* or 500*l.*; so that, though his engagements may, when added together, amount to 20,000*l.*, they will be diffused over from 40 to 100 ships; and supposing 1 or 2 ships to be lost, the loss would not impair his capital, and would only lessen his profits. Hence it is, that while one transaction only may be required in getting a ship insured by a company, 10 or 20 separate transactions may be required in getting the same thing done at Lloyd's, or by private individuals. When conducted in this cautious manner, the business of insurance is as safe a line of speculation as any in which individuals can engage.

To establish a policy of insurance on a fair foundation, or in such a way that the premiums paid by the insured shall exactly balance the risks incurred by the insurers, and the various necessary expenses to which they are put, including, of course, their profit, it is necessary, as previously remarked, that the experience of the risks should be pretty extensive. It is not, however, at all necessary, that either party should inquire into the circumstances that lead to those events that are most commonly made the subject of insurance. Such a research would, indeed, be entirely fruitless: we are, and must necessarily continue to be, wholly ignorant of the causes of their occurrences.

It appears, from the accounts given by Mr. Scoresby, in his valuable work on the Arctic Regions, that of 586 ships which sailed from the various ports of Great Britain for the northern whale fishery, during the 4 years ending with 1817, 8 were lost—(vol. ii. p. 131),—being at the rate of about 1 ship out of every 73 of those employed. Now, supposing this to be about the average loss, it follows that the premium required to insure against it should be 1*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* per cent., exclusive, as already observed, of the expenses and profits of the insurer. Both the insurer and the insured would gain by entering into a transaction founded on this fair principle. When the operations of the insurer are extensive, and his risks spread over a considerable number of ships, his profit does not depend upon chance, but is as steady, and may be as fairly calculated upon, as that of a manufacturer or a merchant; while, on the other hand, the individuals who have insured their property have exempted it from any chance of loss, and placed it, as it were, in a state of absolute security.

It is easy, from the brief statement now made, to perceive the immense advantage resulting to navigation and commerce from the practice of marine insurance. Without the aid that it affords, comparatively few individuals would be found disposed to expose their property to the risk of long and hazardous voyages; but by its means insecurity is changed for security, and the capital of the merchant whose ships are dispersed over every sea, and exposed to all the perils of the ocean, is as secure as that of the agriculturist. He can combine his measures and arrange his plans as if they could no longer be affected by accident. The chances of shipwreck, or of loss by unforeseen occurrences, enter not into his calculations. He has purchased an exemption from the effects of such casualties; and applies himself to the prosecution of his business with that confidence and energy which nothing but a feeling of security can inspire. "Les chances de la navigation entravaient le commerce. Le système des assurances a paru; il a consulté les saisons; il a porté ses regards sur la mer; il a interrogé ce terrible élément; il en a jugé l'inconstance; il en a pressenti les orages; il a épilé la politique: il a reconnu les ports et les côtes des deux mondes; il a tout soumis à des

calculs savans, à des théories approximatives; et il a dit au commerçant habile, au navigateur intrépide: certes, il y a des désastres sur lesquels l'humanité ne peut que gémir; mais quant à votre fortune, allez, franchisez les mers, déployez votre activité et votre industrie; je me charge de vos risques. Alors, Messieurs, s'il est permis de le dire, les quatre parties du monde se sont rapprochées."—(Code de Commerce, Exposé des Motifs, liv. ii.)

Besides insuring against the perils of the sea, and losses arising from accidents caused by the operation of natural causes, it is common to insure against enemies, pirates, thieves, and even the fraud, or, as it is technically termed, *barratry*, of the master. The risk arising from the sources of casualty being extremely fluctuating and various, it is not easy to estimate it with any considerable degree of accuracy; and nothing more than a rough average can, in most cases, be looked for. In time of war, the fluctuation in the rates of insurance are particularly great: and the intelligence that an enemy's squadron, or even a single privateer, is cruising in the course which the ships bound to or returning from any given port usually follow, causes an instantaneous rise in the premium. The appointment of convoys for the protection of trade during war, necessarily tends, by lessening the chances of capture, to lessen the premium on insurance. Still, however, the risk in such periods is, in most cases, very considerable; and as it is liable to change very suddenly, great caution is required on the part of the underwriters.

Provision may also be made, by means of insurance, against loss by fire, and almost all the casualties to which property on land is subject.

But, notwithstanding what has now been stated, it must be admitted, that the advantages deriv'd from the practice of insuring against losses by sea and land are not altogether unmixed with evil. The security which it affords tends to relax that vigilant attention to the protection of property which the fear of its loss is sure otherwise to excite. This, however, is not its worst effect. The records of our courts, and the experience of all who are largely engaged in the business of insurance, too clearly prove that ships have been repeatedly sunk, and houses burned, in order to defraud the insurers. In despite, however, of the temptation to inattention and fraud which is thus afforded, there can be no doubt that, on the whole, the practice is, in a public as well as private point of view, decidedly beneficial. The frauds that are occasionally committed raise, in some degree, the rate of insurance. Still it is exceedingly moderate; and it is most probable, that the precautions adopted by the insurance offices for the prevention of fire, especially in great towns, where it is most destructive, outweigh the chances of increased conflagration arising from the greater tendency to carelessness and crime.

The business of life insurance has been carried to a far greater extent in Great Britain than in any other country, and has been productive of the most beneficial effects. Life insurances are of various kinds. Individuals without any very near connections, and possessing only a limited fortune, are sometimes desirous, or are sometimes, from the necessity of their situation, obliged, annually to encroach on their capitals. But should the life of such persons be extended beyond the ordinary term of existence, they might be totally unprovided for in old age; and to secure themselves against this contingency, they pay to an insurance company the whole or a part of their capital, on condition of its guaranteeing them, as long as they live, a certain annuity, proportioned partly, of course, to the amount of the sum paid, and partly to their age when they buy the annuity.

But though sometimes serviceable to individuals, it may be questioned whether insurances of this sort are, in a public point of view, really advantageous. So far as their influence extends, its obvious tendency is to weaken the principle of accumulation; to stimulate individuals to consume their capitals during their own life, without thinking or caring about the interest of their successors. Were such a practice to become general, it would be productive of the most extensively ruinous consequences. The interest which most men take in the welfare of their families and friends affords, indeed, a pretty strong security against its becoming injuriously prevalent. There can, however, be little doubt that this selfish practice may be strengthened by adventitious means; such, for example, as the opening of government loans in the shape of life annuities, or in the still more objectionable form of tontines. But when no extrinsic stimulus of this sort is given to it, there do not seem to be any very good grounds for thinking that the sale of annuities by private individuals or associations can materially weaken the principle of accumulation.

Unluckily, however, the species of insurance now referred to is but inconsiderable compared with that which has accumulation for its object. All professional persons, or those living on salaries or wages, such as lawyers, physicians, military and naval officers, clerks in public or private offices, &c., whose incomes must, of course, terminate with their lives, and a host of others, who are either not possessed of capital, or cannot dispose of their capital at pleasure, must naturally be desirous of providing, so far as they may be able, for the comfortable subsistence of their families in the event of their death. Take, for example, a physician or lawyer, without fortune, but making, perhaps, 1,000*l.* or 2,000*l.* a year by his business; and suppose that he marries and has a family: if this individual attain to the average duration of human life, he may accumulate such a fortune as will provide for the adequate support of his family at his death. But who can presume to say that such

will be the case?—that he And suppose that he were destitute. Now, it is again chiefly to provide. An individual to pay a certain sum annually for the support of his family, at his death, a and the profits of the insurance interest would amount to, a human life. Though he would be as simply provided for the ordinary duration of life to an average age, their are prolonged beyond the security which they must of time when they effect their ration of human life, they relies sufficiently provided for term is nothing more than those who insure houses against an indemnity for losses after the event of accident, is a property. The case of life proper footing, the extra sum but the value of the premium.

In order so to adjust the too much nor too little, it is a prudent year should be determined.

To ascertain this probability and periods, showing, out of place, how many complete extinct. The results of such are called Tables of Mortality, ing to the number and species the observations were made accuracy, the expectation of be learned from them; and of any age. Thus, in the Life Office, and which is but very considerable accuracy, year; and it further appears 124; so that the probability hence is $\frac{124}{1000}$. But, reckoning ANNUITIES, that the present, if its receipt be age will fall in the 66th year $\frac{124 \times 65 - 5692}{4000} = 2.094$, or 2*l.* of a party now 56 years of up to its extreme limit (which calculated in this way, the whenever the life may fail, made to it for the profits a

More compendious processes; but the above statement In practice, a life insurance effected, but almost always the first being paid down adopted by the insurers fall it follows that when a part Table, the insurers will when, on the other hand average, the profits of the extensive as to enable the will be balanced by the p mean duration of life for profits of the society will

will be the case?—that he will not be one of the many exceptions to the general rule?—And suppose that he were hurried into an untimely grave, his family would necessarily be destitute. Now, it is against such calamitous contingencies that life insurance is intended chiefly to provide. An individual possessed of an income terminating at his death, agrees to pay a certain sum annually to an insurance office; and this office binds itself to pay to his family, at his death, a sum equivalent, under deduction of the expenses of management and the profits of the insurers, to what these annual contributions, accumulated at compound interest would amount to, supposing the insured to reach the common and average term of human life. Though he were to die the day after the insurance has been effected, his family would be as amply provided for as it is likely they would be by his accumulations were his life of the ordinary duration. In all cases, indeed, in which those insured die before attaining to an average age, their gain is obvious. But even in those cases in which their lives are prolonged beyond the ordinary term, they are not losers—they then merely pay for a security which they must otherwise have been without. During the whole period, from the time when they effect their insurances, down to the time when they arrive at the mean duration of human life, they are protected against the risk of dying without leaving their families sufficiently provided for; and the sum which they pay after having passed this mean term is nothing more than a fair compensation for the security they previously enjoyed. Of those who insure houses against fire, a very small proportion only have occasion to claim an indemnity for losses actually sustained; but the possession of a security against loss in the event of accident, is a sufficient motive to induce every prudent individual to insure his property. The case of life insurance is in no respect different. When established on a proper footing, the extra sums which those pay whose lives exceed the estimated duration is but the value of the previous security.

In order so to adjust the terms of an insurance, that the party insuring may neither pay too much nor too little, it is necessary that the probability of his life failing in each subsequent year should be determined with as much accuracy as possible.

To ascertain this probability, various observations have been made in different countries and periods, showing, out of a given number of persons born in a particular country or place, how many complete each subsequent year, and how many die in it, till the whole be extinct. The results of such observations, when collected and arranged in a tabular form, are called Tables of Mortality; being entitled, of course, to more or less confidence, according to the number and species of lives observed; the period when, and the care with which, the observations were made, &c. But, supposing these Tables to be formed with sufficient accuracy, the expectation of life at any age, or its mean duration after such age, may readily be learned from them; and hence, also, the value of an annuity, or an assurance on a life of any age. Thus, in the Table of Mortality for Carlisle, framed by Mr. Milne, of the Sun Life Office, and which is believed to represent the average law of mortality in England with very considerable accuracy, out of 10,000 persons born together, 4,000 complete their 56th year; and it further appears, that the number of such persons who die in their 66th year is 124; so that the probability that a life now 56 years of age will terminate in the 10th year hence is $\frac{124}{4000}$. But, reckoning interest at 4 per cent., it appears (Table II. INTEREST AND ANNUITIES), that the present value of 100*l.* to be received 10 years hence is 67.556*l.*; consequently, if its receipt be made to depend upon the probability that a life now 56 years of age will fail in the 66th year, its present value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{124 \times 67.556}{4000} = 2.094*l.*, or 2*l.* 1*s.* 10½*d.* The present value of 100*l.* receivable upon the life of a party now 56 years of age terminating in the 57th or any subsequent year of his life, up to its extreme limit (which, according to the Carlisle Table, is the 105th year), being calculated in this way, the sum of the whole will be the present value of 100*l.* receivable whenever the life may fail, that is, of 100*l.* insured upon it, supposing no additions were made to it for the profits and expenses of the insurers.$

More expeditious processes are resorted to for calculating Tables of insurances at all ages; but the above statement sufficiently illustrates the principle on which they all depend. In practice, a life insurance is seldom made by the payment of a single sum when it is effected, but almost always by the payment of an annual premium during its continuance, the first being paid down at the commencement of the insurance.* If the Table of Mortality adopted by the insurers fairly represent the law of mortality prevailing among the insured, it follows that when a party insured does not attain to the average age according to the Table, the insurers will either lose by him, or realise less than their ordinary profit; and when, on the other hand, the life of an insured party is prolonged beyond the tabular average, the profits of the insurers are proportionally increased. But if their business be so extensive as to enable the law of average fully to apply, what they lose by premature death will be balanced by the payments received from those whose lives are prolonged beyond the mean duration of life for the ages at which they were respectively insured, so that the profits of the society will be wholly independent of chance.

* For the method of calculating these annual premiums, see *post*, INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

The relief from anxiety afforded by life insurance very frequently contributes to prolong the life of the insured, at the same time that it materially augments the comfort and well-being of those dependent on him. It has, also, an obvious tendency to strengthen habits of accumulation. An individual who has insured a sum on his life, would forfeit all the advantages of the insurance, were he not to continue regularly to make his annual payments. It is not, therefore, optional with him to save a sum from his ordinary expenditure adequate for this purpose. He is compelled, under a heavy penalty, to do so; and having thus been led to contract a habit of saving to a certain extent, it is most probable that the habit will acquire additional strength, and that he will either insure an additional sum, or privately accumulate.

The practice of marine insurance, no doubt from the extraordinary hazard to which property at sea is exposed, seems to have long preceded insurances against fire and upon lives. We are ignorant of the precise period when it began to be introduced; but it appears most probable that it dates from the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century. It has, however, been contended by Loccenius (*De Jure Maritimo*, lib. ii. c. 1.), Puffendorf (*Droit de la Nature et des Gens*, lib. v. c. 9.), and others, that the practice of marine insurances is of much higher antiquity, and that traces of it may be found in the history of the Punic wars. Livy mentions, that during the second of these contests, the contractors employed by the Romans to transport ammunition and provisions to Spain, stipulated that government should indemnify them against such losses as might be occasioned by the enemy, or by tempests, in the course of the voyage. (*Impetratum fuit, ut quæ navibus imponerentur ad exercitum Hispaniensem deferenda, ab hostium tempestatisque vi, publico periculo essent.*—Hist. lib. xxiii. c. 49.) Malynes (*Lex Mercatoria*, 3d ed. p. 105.), founding on a passage in Suetonius, ascribes the first introduction of insurance to the emperor Claudius, who, in a period of scarcity at Rome, to encourage the importation of corn, took upon himself all the loss or damage it might sustain in the voyage thither by storms and tempests.—(*Negotiatoribus certa lucra propositis, suscepto in se damno, si cui quid per tempestates accidisset, et naves mercaturæ causâ, fabricantibus, magna commoda constituit.*—c. 18.) It is curious to observe that this stipulation gave occasion to the commission of acts of fraud, similar to those so frequent in modern times. Shipwrecks were pretended to have happened, that never took place; old shattered vessels, freighted with articles of little value were purposely sunk, and the crew saved in boats; large sums being then demanded as a recompense for the loss. Some years after, the fraud was discovered, and some of the contractors were prosecuted and punished. (Lib. xv. c. 3.) But none of these passages, nor a similar one in Cicero's letters—(*Ad Fam.* lib. ii. c. 17.), warrant the inferences that Loccenius, Malynes, and others have attempted to draw from them. Insurance is a contract between two parties; one of whom, on receiving a certain premium (*pretium periculi*), agrees to take upon himself the risk of any loss that may happen to the property of the other. In ancient no less than in modern times, every one must have been desirous to be exonerated from the chance of loss arising from the exposure of property to the perils of the sea. But though, in the cases referred to, the carriers were exempted from this chance, they were not exempted by a contract *propter aversionem periculi*, or by an insurance; but by their employers taking the risk upon themselves. And it is abundantly obvious that the object of the latter in doing this was not to profit, like an insurer, by dealing in risks, but to induce individuals the more readily to undertake the performance of an urgent public duty.

But with the exception of the instances now mentioned, nothing bearing the remotest resemblance to an insurance is to be met with till a comparatively recent period. If we might rely on a passage in one of the Flemish chroniclers, quoted by the learned M. Pardessus,—(see his excellent work, *Collection des Loix Maritimes*, tome i. p. 356.), we should be warranted in concluding that insurances had been effected at Bruges so early as the end of the thirteenth century: for the chronicler states that, in 1311, the Earl of Flanders consented, on a requisition from the inhabitants, to establish a chamber of insurance at Bruges. M. Pardessus is not, however, inclined to think that this statement should be regarded as decisive. It is evident, from the manner in which the subject is mentioned, that the chronicler was not a contemporary; and no trace can be found, either in the archives of Bruges, or in any authentic publication, of any thing like the circumstance alluded to. The earliest extant Flemish law as to insurance is dated in 1537; and none of the early maritime codes of the North so much as alludes to this interesting subject.

Beckmann seems to have thought that the practice of insurance originated in Italy, in the latter part of the fifteenth or the early part of the sixteenth century.—(*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. art. *Insurance*.) But the learned Spanish antiquary, Don Antonio de Capmany, has given, in his very valuable publication on the History and Commerce of Barcelona (*Memorias Historicas sobre la Marina, &c. de Barcelona*, tomo ii. p. 383.), an ordinance relative to insurance, issued by the magistrates of that city in 1435; whereas the earliest Italian law on the subject is nearly a century later, being dated in 1523. It is, however, exceedingly unlikely, had insurance been as early practised in Italy as in Catalonia, that the

former should have been so it is still more unlikely that any previous Italian writer until some authentic evidence the birthplace of this most (Tomo i. p. 237.)

A knowledge of the principles According to Malynes—(The Lombards, who were established was introduced some time in the statute 43 Eliz. c. 12 had been an immemorial made any great adventure, tured. From this it may re for at least a century previous usual to refer all disputes the discreet" merchants appoint practice, the statute authori of insurance cases; and in enlarged. But this court s now be discovered of any p. 26.)

Few questions as to insu after the middle of last cen have fixed, and in a consid were not bottomed on narrow those great principles of p approved by universal expe consulting the most intelligi and by carefully studying digested body of maritime comprehensiveness and exc justly commended in all co greater degree than any oth law of which Cicero has been *alia posthac, sed et omnes continebit, unusque erit con lib. iii. de Republicâ.)*

Insurance against fire an perils of the sea. The for some extent at least, for ne upon lives, was established London Assurance Compan I; and the Equitable Socie rance, and the principles o understood; and the practi us, till the Equitable Societ career of prosperity about has made very little progres French ordinance of 1681 at Amsterdam in 1612 (art with the 334th art. of the C of security, more than any progress of life insurance d debt may be productive, it investments, and the punct have been the principal cau even fire insurance has bee

There are few persons who security which they afford to able circumstances, is willing professing to afford this secur the nature and principles of it rance is a subject which is of we should refer to that small beyond seas with capital and

former should have been so much behind the latter in subjecting it to any fixed rules; and it is still more unlikely that the practice should have escaped, as is the case, all mention by any previous Italian writer. We, therefore, agree entirely in Capmany's opinion, that, until some authentic evidence to the contrary be produced, Barcelona should be regarded as the birthplace of this most useful and beautiful application of the doctrine of chances.—(Tomo i. p. 237.)

A knowledge of the principles and practice of insurance was early brought into England. According to Malynes—(*Lex Mercat.* p. 105.), it was first practised amongst us by the Lombards, who were established in London from a very remote epoch. It is probable it was introduced some time about the beginning of the sixteenth century; for it is mentioned in the statute 43 Eliz. c. 12.—a statute in which its utility is very clearly set forth—that it had been an *immemorial usage* among merchants, both English and foreign, when they made any great adventure, to procure insurance to be made on the ships or goods adventured. From this it may reasonably be supposed that insurance had been in use in England for at least a century previous. It appears from the same statute, that it had originally been usual to refer all disputes that arose with respect to insurance to the decision of "grave and discreet" merchants appointed by the Lord Mayor. But abuses having grown out of this practice, the statute authorised the Lord Chancellor to appoint a commission for the trial of insurance cases; and in the reign of Charles II. the powers of the commissioners were enlarged. But this court soon after fell into disuse; and, what is singular, no trace can now be discovered of any of its proceedings.—(*Marshall on Insurance*, Prelim. Disc. p. 26.)

Few questions as to insurance seem to have come before the courts of Westminster till after the middle of last century. The decisions of Lord Mansfield may, indeed, be said to have fixed, and in a considerable degree formed, the law upon this subject. His judgments were not bottomed on narrow views, or on the municipal regulations of England; but on those great principles of public justice and convenience which had been sanctioned and approved by universal experience. His deep and extensive information was acquired by consulting the most intelligent merchants, and the works of distinguished foreign jurists; and by carefully studying the famous French ordinance of 1681, the most admirably digested body of maritime law of which any country has ever had to boast. Hence the comprehensiveness and excellence of his Lordship's decisions, and the respect they have justly commanded in all countries.* In his hands the law of insurance became, in a far greater degree than any other department of English law, a branch of that national or public law of which Cicero has beautifully said, "*Non erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis, alia nunc, alia posthac, sed et omnes gentes et omni tempore una lex et sempiterna, et immortalis continebit, unaque erit communis quasi magister et imperator omnium Deus.*"—(*Fragm. lib. iii. de Republicâ.*)

Insurance against fire and upon lives is of much later origin than insurance against the perils of the sea. The former, however, has been known and carried on amongst us, to some extent at least, for nearly a century and a half. The Amicable Society, for insurance upon lives, was established by charter of Queen Anne, in 1706; the Royal Exchange and London Assurance Companies began to make insurances upon lives in the reign of George I.; and the Equitable Society was established in 1762. But the advantages of life insurance, and the principles on which the business should be conducted, were then very ill understood; and the practice can hardly be said to have obtained any firm footing amongst us, till the Equitable Society, by adopting the judicious suggestions of Dr. Price, began its career of prosperity about 1775. Notwithstanding the example of England, life insurance has made very little progress on the Continent. It was, indeed, expressly forbidden by the French ordinance of 1681 (liv. iii. tit. 6. art. 10.); by the regulations as to insurance issued at Amsterdam in 1612 (art. 24.); and it is doubtful whether the practice be not inconsistent with the 334th art. of the *Code de Commerce*. But we are inclined to think that the want of security, more than any positive regulations, has been the principal cause of the little progress of life insurance on the Continent. Of whatever disadvantages our large public debt may be productive, it is not to be doubted that the facilities it has afforded for making investments, and the punctuality with which the national engagements have been fulfilled, have been the principal causes of the extraordinary extent to which the business of life and even fire insurance has been carried in this country.

II. INSURANCE (MARINE).

There are few persons who are not acquainted, in some degree, with fire and life insurances. The security which they afford to individuals and families is a luxury which nobody, in tolerably comfortable circumstances, is willing to be without. Hence the great increase, in our days, of companies professing to afford this security; and hence the knowledge, on the part of the public generally, of the nature and principles of the engagements into which these companies enter. But marine insurance is a subject which is of immediate interest only to merchants and ship owners; unless, indeed, we should refer to that small portion of the community, who have occasion to transport themselves beyond seas with captives and effects for purposes of colonization, or to fill some official situation

* See Emerigon's famous *Traité des Assurances*, tome ii. p. 67.

from the outports and manufacturing towns. They charge the whole premium to their principals, and their profit consists in 5 per cent. upon the premium, 12 per cent. upon the money that they pay to the underwriters, and 4 per cent. that they deduct from all the claims which they recover from the underwriters. It is proper to remark, that this is the established or regular profit; but competition has occasioned numerous deviations from it by the brokers, many of whom consent to divide the profit with the principals who employ them. The insurance brokers are not unfrequently underwriters also; and as some insurances are considered far more lucrative than others to underwriters, and as the brokers have particular facilities, in some respects, of judging of the goodness of their own risks, so likewise have they an inducement to play into one another's hands, and they do so accordingly.—(See BOOKS.)

It will at once be seen, that the trouble of effecting insurances at Lloyd's is considerable; that a good deal of time must be consumed; and that merchants and ship owners, therefore, have great inducement to consign their insurance business to brokers. But where the business is transacted with a company, this inducement, if not destroyed altogether, is, at all events, very much diminished. Any party having property to insure, has merely to go in the manager of the company, and state the particulars of the risk to be insured; the premium being agreed upon, the manager writes out a memorandum for the policy, which the party signs, and he is thus effectually insured. The companies procure the stamp and write out the policy, which is ready for delivery in 4 or 5 days. The companies, like the underwriters, charge the premium less 5 per cent. In other respects they vary.

The Royal Exchange Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premium, with credit till March for the premiums of the preceding year, and 5 per cent. for prompt payment.

The Alliance Marine Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premium, with credit till March; or 10 per cent. for prompt payment.

The Indemnity Mutual Marine Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premium, with credit till June; or 10 per cent. for prompt payment.

The allowances of the London Assurance Company are the same as those of the Indemnity.

Payment of Losses.—Losses are paid at all the offices promptly, and without deduction. A month's credit is allowed to the underwriters; and another month, and sometimes 2 months, are given to the broker, to collect from the underwriters, and pay over to his principals.

Clubs.—Besides the individual underwriters and companies above noticed, there are clubs or associations formed by ship owners, who agree, each entering his ships for a certain amount, to divide among themselves one another's losses. These clubs are institutions of long standing; but since the alteration of the law in 1824, appear to be on the decline. Their formation originated in a twofold reason: 1st, that the underwriters charged premiums more than commensurate with the risk; 2dly, that they did not afford adequate protection. To avoid the first of these two evils, instead of paying a fixed premium, they pay among themselves the actual losses of their several members as they occur; and to avoid the second, they lay down certain principles of settlement in accordance with their views of indemnity. Each member of one of these clubs gives his power of attorney to the selected manager; and this manager issues a policy for each ship, which policy is subscribed by him as attorney for all the members, the premium inserted in the policy being understood to be nominal. These clubs are open to the leading objections that apply to individual underwriters; for the members are not collectively, but only individually, liable to those of their number who happen to sustain a loss; and the delay of settlement is such, that more than 12 months have been known to elapse before the payment of a loss has been obtained from all the members.

Rate of Premium.—But little need be said upon the circumstances that influence the rate of premium demanded by the insurers. It must be self-evident that premiums will vary according to the seasons, the quality of the vessel, the known character of the captain, the nature of the commodity, and the state of our political relations. All these, of course, are matters upon which each individual must exercise his own discretion, partly from general experience, and partly from particular information; exaggeration of risk, and consequent exorbitancy of premium for any length of time, being out of the question, where so many individual underwriters, in addition to the companies, are in competition with one another, and where the merchants have the means at hand of effecting their insurances abroad. We have already taken notice of the intelligence of which Lloyd's is the focus. In addition to this, there are 2 subscription register books for shipping maintained by the principal merchants, ship owners, and underwriters. These books profess to give an account of the tonnage, build, age, repairs, and quality of almost all the vessels that frequent our ports; and, although exceedingly defective in many respects, are material assistants to the insurers, who have no means of ascertaining by their own observation the particulars of 1 in 100 of the ships they are called upon to insure. But active measures are now in progress for superseding these two register books by one, giving a much more accurate and faithful account of the state of the mercantile shipping. We doubt, however, whether its real state will ever be revealed, as it ought to be, for the general benefit, until public officers are appointed to perform this duty. This might be done at a trifling expense; and the advantage to the owners of good ships, to merchants, and to passengers, would be immense.

CONTRACT OF INSURANCE.

Having thus given a general outline of the mode of transacting business between the insurers and insured, and the means used to enable both parties to come, as near as possible, to a due estimate of the risk to be insured against, our next step will be to explain the nature of the contract, and the bearing of its more important clauses.

It is unnecessary to state that the object of those who are engaged in commerce, or in moving articles of merchandise from one part of the world to another, is to buy at such a price that, after paying all the expenses of transport, the sale price may leave them a surplus in the shape of profit. If there were no such contrivance as insurance, merchants would be obliged to calculate upon the probability of the occasional loss of their property, and to regulate their transactions accordingly; but it must be obvious that enterprise, under such circumstances, would be very much crippled. Now, insurance, in as far as it approaches perfection in guaranteeing the merchant against all loss, except that of the market, substitutes a fixed charge for uncertain and contingent loss, and enables him to confine his attention exclusively to price and quality, and to charges of transport; in which latter, of course, the premium of insurance is included, as, however, in practice, insurance is by no means a perfect protection, either to the merchant or ship owner, against all loss that may occur *in transitu*, there is, even after insurance, some contingencies remaining to be taken into consideration; and we do not know that we can do better, by way of explaining the contract of insurance, than state, as briefly and succinctly as possible, what are the losses against which the merchant and ship owner are not protected by an insurance effected in this country.

1. **Acts of our own Government.**—All losses arising from the acts of our own government. Thus, if an embargo were laid on vessels about to sail for a particular quarter, and the merchant obliged to unload his goods; or if his goods were condemned to be destroyed in quarantine; or purposely destroyed at sea by some of our cruisers; no part of his loss would be made good by the insurer. The insurer in this country, although liable for the acts of foreign powers, is not liable for such acts of

rected against the property of their own subjects. Thus, if French property, insured in this country, were confiscated by the French government, the owner would have no remedy against his insurer.

2. Breaches of the Revenue Laws.—All losses arising from a breach of the revenue laws. It may be observed, that if the owner of the ship, by his act, expose the goods of the merchant to loss, the merchant so injured, although he cannot recover from his insurers, may claim from him. It may also be observed, that if the captain of the vessel, by his act, to which neither the owner of the ship nor the merchant is a party, expose the ship and cargo to loss, the insurers, in such case, are bound to make good the loss; the insurers being liable for all damage arising from illegal acts of the captain and crew, supposing the owner of the ship not to be accessory. The illegal acts of the captain and crew, contrary to the instructions and without the consent of the owners, are termed "barratry" in the policy.—(See *BARRATRY*.)

3. Breaches of the Law of Nations.—All losses arising from a breach of the law of nations. Thus, if any port is declared by a foreign power to be in a state of blockade, and such blockade is acknowledged by our government; and if a ship, in defiance of that notification, attempt to break the blockade, and is taken in the attempt; the insurer is not liable to the loss. It will often happen, when a port is under blockade, that the profit is so great upon goods introduced in defiance of the blockade, as to tempt adventurers to break it, and to enable them to afford a very high premium to insure against the risk. But as policies for such an object are not acknowledged in our courts of law, when offered, they are understood to be *policies of honour*. The same kind of policy is adopted by the underwriters, to protect foreign merchants who prefer insuring in this country against British capture.

1. Consequences of Deviation.—All losses subsequent to any deviation from the terms of the policy. Thus, if a merchant, in a policy on produce from the West Indies to London, warrant a ship to sail on or before the 1st of August, and the ship sail after that day and be lost, the insurer is exonerated. Or, if a merchant insure from London to Lisbon, and the ship call at Havre and is afterwards lost, the insurer is not liable. It will be understood, of course, that the owner of the ship is liable to the merchant for any breach of contract on his part, as well as that the insurer is liable for the barratry of the master; a deviation on the part of the master, not intended for the benefit of the owner, and contrary to his instructions, being considered barratry. Should the owner of the goods neglect to describe accurately the voyage for which he wishes to be insured, the loss would be a consequence of his own negligence.

There is a doctrine connected with barratry which it will here be proper to notice. A captain, owner or part owner of the ship in which he sails, cannot commit an act of barratry. In other words, the insurers are not, in such a case, liable for an act of his which would otherwise be barratrous. The equity of this doctrine, as far as regards the interests of the captain himself, cannot be called in question; but it is difficult to understand why the merchant who ships goods on board such a captain's vessel should not be permitted to insure, among other risks, against the captain's illegal acts. We have heard, that a clause has occasionally been introduced into policies to protect merchants against captain-owners, and we do not suppose that our courts of law would refuse to enforce such a clause. Indeed, we cannot discover any reason why every party, saving the captain, should not have the power of insuring against the consequences of illegal acts of the captain. We believe, that among the life offices, which protect themselves from loss by suicide and the hands of justice, there are some which make a distinction in favour of those who merely hold policies on the lives of others as a collateral security. The propriety of such a distinction must strike every body.

5. Unseaworthiness.—All losses arising from unseaworthiness. Unseaworthiness may be caused in various ways, such as want of repair, want of stores, want of provisions, want of nautical instruments, insufficiency of hands to navigate the vessel, or incompetency of the master. It might be supposed, at first sight, that insurance affords a much less perfect security than it really does, seeing on how many pleas it is possible for the insurer to dispute his liability; but when it is considered that the proof of unseaworthiness is thrown upon the defendant, and that the leaning of the courts is always in favour of the insured, it will be easy to suppose that no respectable insurers would ever plead unseaworthiness, unless they could make out a case of more than ordinary strength and clearness. The degree of unseaworthiness which merchants and ship owners at their liability to be involved in loss by cargo unseaworthiness may be guessed from the fact, that although the Indemnity Assurance Company at one time pleaded themselves from pleading unseaworthiness by a special clause in their policy, not only did they obtain no additional premium in consequence thereof, but they did not even obtain a preference over other companies and individuals at the same premium. At least, this fact must either be admitted as a proof of the absence of unseaworthiness on this head, or of that inveteracy of habit which seems to lead the great bulk of mankind always, if possible, to continue undeviatingly in those courses to which they are accustomed, even where the benefits to be derived from a deviation are undeniable.

6. Protraction of the Voyage.—All loss arising from unusual protraction of the voyage. Thus, if a ship meet with an accident in the Baltic, and the repairs detain the vessel till the close of the season, when the passage home is rendered impracticable by the ice till the opening of the ensuing season, no payment is made to the merchant, in mitigation of his loss from interest of money, loss of market (if the market fall), or deterioration in the quality of his goods (unless arising from actual sea damage); nor to the ship owner, in mitigation of his loss from the extra wages and maintenance of his crew. In most foreign countries the ship owner is remunerated by the insurers for the wages and maintenance of his crew while his ship is detained in consequence of any loss for the making good of which they are liable.

7. Liability for doing Damage to other Vessels.—All loss to which the ship owner is liable when his vessel does damage to others. According to our laws, the owner of every ship not in charge of a pilot, that does damage, by negligence of the master and crew, to any description of craft or vessel, is liable to make good the same to the extent of value of his own ship and freight: for beyond this he is not liable. The common policy in use among the underwriters at Lloyd's and the companies does not protect the ship owner from this loss. But the clubs or associations before mentioned almost universally take this risk. Indeed, this is one of the purposes which gave rise to their formation. But even they limit their liability to the amount of the policy; so that if a ship insured with them were to run down another, and to sink herself in the concussion, the owner would only receive the value of his own vessel from the club, and still be liable to the owner of the other vessel. The Indemnity Company, by a clause in their policy, make themselves liable for 3-4ths of the loss which the owner of the vessel insured with them may sustain from damage done by his vessel to those of others. If such a case as the one just supposed should occur under their policy, the insured would receive the value of his own vessel and 3-4ths of the loss to be made good by him to the owner of the other vessel. The policies of this Company approach in this respect the nearest of any to perfect protection to the ship owner. But the loss from running down other vessels, although serious, nay, sometimes ruinous, seldom occurs; and many ship owners trust so confidently that it will never fall upon them, that they are as well satisfied to be without as with this protection.

8. Average Clause.—The next description of loss of which we shall treat, against which the insured are not protected, is described in the following clause of the policy:—"Corn, fish, salt, seed, flour, and fruit, are warranted free from average, unless general, or the ship be stranded; sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from average under 5 per cent., unless general, or the

ship be stranded; and all other goods under 3 per cent., unless general.

The language employed in this clause is the general reading. A vessel and ship owner are liable for the loss of goods comprehended in the clause, made by the captain or crew, or cut from an anchor or other cause, and fairly submitted to for the benefit of the cargo, and is called "general average."

Particular Average comprehends a serious nature as to debar the ship to be so extensive as to render it such a state as to be unfit to undergo to repair, are called "particular average and salvage loss, is the damage sustained, or part made good by the insurer; and the value insured claimed from the insurer.

Particular Average on Goods.—The property insured we shall refer what the practical difference is for which sum it is insured from which the merchant is subjected to a loss, on its arrival, is so damaged as to be a total loss. The insurer will not be bound to pay the value of the property insured, or that it would not

If the hemp upon arrival in this country have fetched in a sound state

Loss duty, freight, and charges

But in its damaged state is only worth

Loss duty, freight, and charges

The merchant's loss by the damage

Whereas he only receives from the insurer a salvage loss he would also receive

If the hemp would have fetched in a sound state

Loss duty, freight, and charges

But in its damaged state is only worth

Loss duty, freight, and charges

The merchant's loss by the damage

It will be observed that the market. It may also be observed, that the whole amount of the loss that must usually be so well as the losing one, his policy does not

The argument in favour of the observed that the subject has is, that the insurer's liability is consideration; that he is not price of the sound, and the rate of damage upon the amount of the extra charges arising out of the contract. In the first case stated, the total loss, 100, upon 100, or 100 per cent. and charges were diminished would be fifty per cent. upon duty is concerned, government value of the goods; and if the be indemnified for his loss by a sum of 50, or such arrangement.

To make the principle upon clearer, we shall illustrate it by a case of rice and a cask of 100, the freight of each 10s. per cwt. at a market where no more than 50 per cent.—the rice by loss

10 cwt. of rice, had it arrived sound

Freight on 100 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.

But being damaged, did only produce

Loss freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.

Merchant's loss

In each case the merchant sum insured, which, although his loss upon the rice. If the for freight, as to reduce the sum insured, he would be completely insured from loss by reduction

ship be stranded; and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average under 3 per cent., unless general, or the ship be stranded."

The language employed in this clause, being technical, requires explanation, to render it intelligible to the general reader. Average is a name applied to certain descriptions of loss, to which the merchant and ship owner are liable. There are two kinds of average, general and particular.

General Average comprehends all loss arising out of a voluntary sacrifice of a part of either vessel or cargo, made by the captain for the benefit of the whole. Thus, if a captain throw part of his cargo overboard, cut from an anchor and cable, or cut away his masts, the loss so sustained, being voluntarily submitted to for the benefit of the whole, is distributed over the value of the whole ship and cargo, and is called "general average."

Particular Average comprehends all loss occasioned to ship, freight, and cargo, which is not of so serious a nature as to debar them from reaching their port of destination, and when the damage to the ship is not an extensive as to render her unworthy of repair. Losses where the goods are saved, but in such a state as to be unfit to forward to their port of destination, and where the ship is rendered unfit to repair, are called "partial or salvage loss." The leading distinction between particular average and salvage loss is, that, in the first, the property insured remains the property of the assured—the damage sustained, or part thereof, as the case may be, and as will be hereafter explained, being made good by the insurer; and in the second, the property insured is abandoned to the insurer, and the value insured claimed from him, he retaining the property so abandoned, or its value.

Particular Average on Goods.—A few cases illustrative of the method of stating a claim for particular average will best explain the nature of this description of loss, and will at the same time show the reader what the practical distinction is between particular average and salvage loss.

The property insured we shall suppose to be a *tea of Assam*, the cost of which at Petersburg is 30*l.*, for which sum it is insured from Petersburg to London, and that the duty, freight, and charges to which the merchant is subject on landing at London are 10*l.* We shall likewise suppose that the hemp, on its arrival, is so damaged as not to be worth more than half what it would have fetched had it been sound. The insurer would then be called upon to make good to the insured 15*l.*, or 50 per cent. upon the sum insured. But it does not follow that this payment of 15*l.* would indemnify the merchant, or that it would not more than indemnify him, for the loss sustained.

	L. s. L. s.
If the hemp upon arrival in this country would have fetched in a sound state	50 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
But in its damaged state is only worth	25 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
	15 0
The merchant's loss by the damage is	L. 35 0

Whereas he receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would receive 30*l.*

	L. s. L. s.
If the hemp would have fetched in a sound state	50 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
But in its damaged state is only worth	15 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
	5 0
The merchant's loss by the damage is	L. 15 0

Whereas he only receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would also receive 15*l.*

	L. s. L. s.
If the hemp would have fetched in a sound state	50 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
But in its damaged state is only worth	10 0
Less duty, freight, and charges	10 0
	L. 10 0

And he receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would receive 30*l.*

It will be observed that the merchant's loss by the damage of his goods varies with the state of the market. It may also be observed, that in general the merchant will not receive from the insurer the whole amount of the loss that he sustains. Whenever his market is a profitable one (and that it must usually be so will be obvious to every body), whenever, indeed, his market is not a decidedly losing one, his policy does not afford him a complete protection.

The argument in favour of this mode of settling claims for particular average—and it should be observed that the subject has been discussed, and the principle acknowledged in the courts of law—is, that the insurer's liability is to be guided by the amount upon which he has received a premium or consideration; that he is not to be affected by the rise or fall of markets; but that the *gross* market price of the sound, and the *gross* market price of the damaged goods, are to be the test by which the rate of damage upon the amount insured is to be adjusted; the insurer being liable, besides, for all the extra charges arising out of the damage.

In the first case stated, the merchant's loss by damage is 25*l.* upon 40*l.*, or 62½ per cent.; in the second, 10*l.* upon 10*l.*, or 100 per cent.; in the third, 15*l.* upon 20*l.*, or 75 per cent. If the duty, freight, and charges were diminished in proportion to the diminished value of the goods, the loss in each case would be fifty per cent. upon the net price, as it is 50 per cent. upon the gross price. As far as the duty is concerned, government, upon many articles, reduces it in proportion to the diminution in the value of the goods; and if the freight were reduced in a similar manner, the merchant would always be indemnified for his loss by the insurer. But the practice with regard to freight in this country admits of no such arrangement; freight being paid according to the quantity delivered.

To make the principle upon which claims for particular average are adjusted, and its bearing, still clearer, we shall illustrate it by a few more cases. Suppose two packages to be insured at cost price—a cask of rice and a cask of sugar—each weighing 10 cwt.; the cost of each at the port of shipment 10*l.*, the freight of each 10*l.* per cwt. at the port of delivery, both articles free from duty, and to arrive at a market where no more than the cost price is realised; assuming that both packages are damaged 50 per cent.—the rice by loss of quality, the sugar by loss of weight—the statement will be as follows:—

	L. s. L. s.
10 cwt. of rice, had it arrived sound, would have produced	15 0
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10 <i>l.</i> per cwt.	5 0
	10 0
But being damaged, did only produce	7 10
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10 <i>l.</i> per cwt.	5 0
	2 10
Merchant's loss	L. 7 10

	L. s. L. s.
10 cwt. of sugar, if sound, would have produced	15 0
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10 <i>l.</i> per cwt.	5 0
	10 0
The barrel being damaged, did only weigh 5 cwt., and produce	7 10
Less freight on 5 cwt. at 10 <i>l.</i> per cwt.	2 10
	5 0
Merchant's loss	L. 5 0

In each case the merchant is entitled to recover from his insurer 5*l.*, or 50 per cent., upon 10*l.*, the sum insured, which, although an indemnity to him for his loss on the sugar, is far from being so for his loss upon the rice. If the merchant would contrive so to shape his contract with the ship owner for freight, as to reduce the freight in proportion to the depreciation in the value of the damaged commodity, he would be completely protected. The ship owner might on his side protect himself by insurance from loss by reduction of quality, as he now does from loss by reduction of quantity. But

articles to be peculiarly susceptible of damage, will not consent to take that risk, except on some extraordinary occasion. A ship, laden with corn, makes a very stormy passage from the Baltic to London, and damages the wheat of her cargo. Upon arrival off our coast she is stranded, but got off without stranding or sustaining any damage. The insurer is held to be liable for the damage to the corn, under the clause of the policy. On another occasion, after a very favourable passage to our coast, a ship strikes upon a shoal, but is not stranded, sustaining, however, so much damage that she arrives at London with 8 feet water in her hold, and her cargo almost wholly spoiled. The insurer is held out to be liable under the clause of the policy.

General Average.—The insurer is bound to make good all general average without exception, however trifling the amount. General average is treated as though altogether unconnected with particular average; and damage to the goods not amounting to 3 per cent. is not payable by the insurer, although there may be also a general average, and the general and particular average together may amount to more than 3 or 5 per cent. General average is a charge which must be paid by the merchant and ship owner, even if uninsured; although, when insured, he transfers, as it were, in virtue of his insurance, the charge from himself to his insurer. All the elements that can be possibly entered into general average may be classed under four heads—1. Sacrifice of part of the ship and stores; 2. Sacrifice of part of the cargo and freight; 3. Remuneration of services required for general preservation; 4. Expense of raising money to replace what has been sacrificed, and to remunerate services.

1. When any part of the ship is sacrificed for the general benefit, the owner is entitled to receive (deducting of course, his share of contribution) the amount of his outlay in the replacing of such sacrifice; allowances being made, on the principle stated above, where old works and materials are replaced with new. The deduction of 1-3d, however, does not invariably apply. For instance, 1-4th only is taken off the price of an iron cable that is slipped from for the general benefit, because iron cables are calculated to last for a great number of years; and no deduction is ever made from the price of anchors. The charge of replacing the loss may amount to considerably more than the value lost, computing the value at the place where the ship was originally fitted. Thus, the cost of replacing an anchor and cable slipped from in the Downs, is frequently double the value of the anchor and cable at London. But whatever the charge may be, such charge forms the basis of settlement.

2. Sacrifice of the cargo and freight takes place in jettison, or where part of the cargo is flung overboard to lighten the vessel. Upon arrival in port, after such jettison, the owner of the goods jettisoned is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) what the goods would have produced net to him, supposing them to have arrived sound; and the owner of the ship is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) the freight to which he would have been entitled upon the safe delivery of the goods.

3. Remuneration of services and other charges. When a ship loses her anchors and cables, very large sums are frequently awarded to boatmen who venture off to her with new ones at the immediate hazard of their lives. A ship doubled at sea is towed into port by another, and remunerations for such service is awarded according to the value saved, the detention occasioned, and the loss sustained. The ship rendering the service may be laden with fish or fruit, that may be totally spoiled by the detention, or may be in ballast. A ship captured by the enemy may be re-captured by a man of war or armed merchant vessel; here, again, salvage is awarded according to the circumstances of the case. All these charges are general average; that is to say, must be distributed over ship, freight, and cargo. When a ship, with her cargo, is driven on shore, the expense of attempting to get her off is general average. If she cannot be got off without discharging, the expense of discharging is general average; but the expense of getting the ship off after her cargo has been taken out falls exclusively upon the ship. The warehousing of the cargo, and other expenses incurred for its preservation, are charges exclusively upon the cargo. The expense of reloading is borne by the freight. When a ship puts into port in distress, the pilotage inwards is general average; the pilotage outwards is a charge upon the freight. This distribution of charges has settled into a tolerably well established practice; and upon this principle claims are settled at the offices, and at Lloyd's.

4. The money required to meet the above charges is sometimes attainable without expense. If the accident happen near home, and the ship owner be respectable, he advances the money, and recovers from the various parties concerned as soon as the accounts can be made up; or if the accident happen in a foreign port, where the owner of the ship is well known, the captain's bill upon him will sometimes be received in payment of the charges incurred. But where such facilities do not exist, the captain is empowered to pledge his ship, freight, and cargo, as security in any one he may prevail upon to supply the necessary funds. This pledge is termed a bottomry bond. By it the captain admits the receipt of the money; consents to the payment of a premium (which varies with the distance of the port of destination, the risk of the voyage, the respectability of the owner, and the necessities of the captain); and assigns the ship, freight, and cargo, as security for the repayment of the money advanced and the stipulated premium. Should the captain consider the bottomry premium demanded of him exorbitant, or should he deem it preferable in other respects, he may sell a portion of the cargo for the purpose of raising such money as he may stand in need of towards the prosecution of his voyage. The expense of raising the requisite funds, whether by commission, by bottomry premium, or by loss on the sale of the cargo, is charged to those parties for whose interest the money is required. Thus, if a ship, having struck upon a rock, puts into port in distress, and is obliged to unload to repair; supposing the particular average upon the ship to amount to 500*l.*; the general average, consisting of assistance into port and expense of unloading, 200*l.*; particular charges on freight, consisting of expense of reloading and pilotage outwards, 100*l.*; and particular charges on cargo, consisting of warehouse rent and repair of packages, 200*l.*; and the expense of raising money should be 2*l.* per cent.—these sums would be severally increased by this addition, and would be raised to 600*l.*, 210*l.*, 120*l.*, and 210*l.*—(See *BOTTOMRY*.)

It will remain to be inquired in what proportion the general average is to be paid by the different owners of the cargo, and the owner of ship and freight. Almost all general averages are adjusted at the ship's port of destination, and the value of the ship and cargo are taken at what they would produce in their actual state upon arrival, and the freight according to what is actually receivable, less the wages of the captain and crew; the general average being distributed in proportion to these values. Should the cargo be altogether worthless, it cannot be made to contribute; and should the wages of the crew exceed the freight, then the freight is not liable to contribute. In case of jettison, the party whose property has been sacrificed for the general benefit receives indemnity on the same principle; the value to which he is entitled being what his property would have produced *net*, supposing it to have been sold on the arrival of the vessel—the same value serving for the basis of his proportion of contribution. Some few cases occur, where the general average is adjusted at the port of departure. Thus, if a ship, outward bound to the British colonies, cut from an anchor and cable in the Downs, or incur other general average on our own coast, the insurances being principally effected in this country, it is the custom to adjust it on the spot, by which means both delay and expense are avoided. On these occasions, the values at the port of shipment are taken as the basis of contribution. A total loss, subsequently to a general average, does not exonerate the insurer from his prior liability; and although it is customary with the ship owner, or his agent, specifically to in-

peruse this article with ordinary attention will, we hope, gain a tolerably clear insight into the principles and practice of the business. But a perfectly familiar acquaintance with it can only be acquired by those who are daily conversant with its details.

Duty on Policies of Marine Insurance.—Amount and Expediency of such Duty.—All policies of marine insurance must be on stamped paper, the duties on which are as follows:—

For every 100*l.* insured on a voyage in the coasting trade of the kingdom, where the premium does not exceed 30*s.* per cent., 1*s.* 3*d.*

Where the premium does exceed 30*s.* per cent., 2*s.* 6*d.*

For every 100*l.* insured to or from any colonial or foreign port, where the premium does not exceed 15*s.* per cent., 1*s.* 3*d.*

Where the premium does exceed 15*s.* per cent., but does not exceed 30*s.* per cent., 2*s.* 6*d.*

Where the premium exceeds 30*s.* per cent., 5*s.*

For every 100*l.* insured for a period of time not exceeding 3 months, 2*s.* 6*d.*; exceeding 3 months (no ship can be insured on one stamp for a longer period than 12 months), 5*s.*

This duty was reduced in the year 1833. It is now about two thirds of what it was before. The reduction, so far as it goes, must of course be beneficial. But the tax is altogether wrong in principle, and ought to be repealed altogether. Its obvious tendency is to discourage the coasting trade, by imposing a duty on goods carried by sea, from which those carried by land and canal are exempted; and we believe it will be found that this unjust preference costs more to the public in the greater carriage of goods sent, through its means, by the more expensive channel of inland conveyance, than all that portion of the duty which affects coasting vessels produces to the revenue. But the other portion of the tax, or that which affects vessels engaged in the foreign or colonial trade, is still more objectionable. It is immaterial to a merchant sending a ship to sea, whether he insure her in London, Amsterdam, or Hamburgh; and as policies executed in the last two cities are either wholly exempted from duties, or subject to such only as are merely nominal, the effect of the duty is to transfer to the Continent a considerable part of the business of marine insurance, that would otherwise be transacted in London. It is plain, therefore, that this duty operates to drive a valuable branch of business from amongst us; and even though it had no such effect, still it is sufficiently clear that a tax on providence, or on the endeavour to guarantee the safety of property at sea, is not one that ought to exist in any country, and least of all in so commercial a country as England. Where the latitude given is so great, doubt will arise whether one stamp be adequate to cover a long voyage. And when difficulties are made to the settlement of a loss on such grounds, they are very prejudicial to the interests of the assured, and by no means creditable to the character of the underwriter.

If the trifling revenue (amounting in 1832 to only 210,000*l.*) derived from these stamps cannot be spared, a very small addition to the import duties would more than cover its amount, save the expense of collection, and relieve the mercantile public from the annoyance and loss above alluded to.*

Form of a Policy of Insurance executed at Lloyd's.

S. G. IN THE NAME OF GOD, Amen. Charles Brown and Co., as well in their own names as for and in the name and names of all and every other person or persons to whom the same doth, may, or shall appertain, in part or in all, doth make assurance, and cause themselves and them and every of them, to be insured, lost or not lost, at and from St. Petersburg to any port or ports in the United Kingdom, upon any kind of goods and merchandises, and also upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture of and in the good ship or vessel called the Swift, whereof is master, under God, for this present voyage, Bright, or whoever else shall go for master in the said ship, or by whatsoever other name or names the said ship, or the master thereof, is or shall be named or called; beginning the adventure upon the said goods and merchandises from the loading thereof on board the said ship

upon the said ship, &c. and so shall continue and endure during her abode there, upon the said ship, &c. And further, until the said ship, with all her ordnance, tackle, apparel, &c. and goods and merchandises whatsoever, shall be arrived at her final port of discharge (as above), upon the said ship, &c., until she hath moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good safety; and upon the goods and merchandises, until the same be there discharged and safely landed. And it shall be lawful for the said ship, &c. in this voyage, to proceed and sail to, and touch and stay at any ports or places whatsoever, without prejudice to this insurance. The said ship, &c. goods and merchandises, &c. for so much as concerns the assured, by agreement between the assured and assurers in this policy, are and shall be valued at eight hundred pounds, being on the captain's one fourth share of said ship, said one fourth share valued at that sum. Touching the adventures and perils which we the assurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this voyage: they are of the seas, men-of-war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrears, restraints, and detainerments of all kings, princes and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever, barratry of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the said goods and merchandises and ship, &c. or any part thereof; offences against the revenue of the United Kingdom of Great Britain or Ireland excepted. And, in case of any loss or misfortune, it shall be lawful for the assured, their factors, servants, and assignees, to sue, labour, and travel for, in, and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the said goods and merchandises and ship, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to this insurance; to the charges whereof we the assurers will contribute, each one according to the rate and quantity of his sum herein assured. And it is agreed by us, the insurers, that this writing, or policy of assurance, shall be of as much force and effect, as the surest writing or policy of assurance, heretofore made in Lombard Street, or in the Royal Exchange, or elsewhere in London. And so we the assurers are contented, and do hereby promise and bind ourselves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods, to the assured, their executors, administrators, and assigns, for the true performance of the premises, confessing ourselves paid the consideration due unto us for this assurance by the assured, at and after the rate of five guineas per cent., to return one pound per cent. if the voyage end on the east coast of England.

IN WITNESS whereof, we, the assurers, have subscribed our names and sums assured in London,

N. B.—Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seeds, are warranted free from average, unless

* This very valuable article (on Marine Insurance) has been, as the reader will easily perceive, furnished by a gentleman thoroughly conversant with the principles and details of the business.

The conditions on which the different offices insure are contained in their proposals, which are printed on the back of every policy; and it is in most instances expressly conditioned, that they undertake to pay the loss, not exceeding the sum insured, "according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals."

Nothing can be recovered from the insurers, in the event of loss, unless the party insuring had an interest or property in the thing insured at the time when the insurance was effected, and when the loss happened. It often occurs that no one office will insure to the full amount required by an individual who has a large property; and in such a case the party, to cover his whole interest, is obliged to insure at different offices. But, in order to prevent the frauds that might be practised by insuring the full value in various offices, there is, in the proposals issued by all the companies, an article which declares, that persons insuring must give notice of any other insurance made elsewhere upon the same houses or goods, that the same may be specified and allowed by indorsement on the policy, in order that each office may bear its rateable proportion of any loss that may happen; and unless such notice be given of each insurance to the office where another insurance is made on the same effects, the insurance made without such notice will be void.

Any trustee, mortgagee, reversioner, factor, or agent, has sufficient interest in the goods under his custody, to effect a policy of insurance, provided the nature of such property be distinctly specified at the time of executing such policy.

Most of the offices except in their proposals against making good any loss occasioned by "invasion," "foreign enemy," "civil commotions," &c.; and under this condition the Sun Fire Office was exonerated from the loss occasioned by the disgraceful proceedings of the mob in 1780.

One of the principal conditions in the proposals has reference to the proof of loss. The Sun Fire Office—(see post), and most other offices, make it a condition, that the individual claiming shall "procure a certificate, under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish or place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured or sinking; and do know, or verily believe, that he she, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, to the value therein mentioned." This condition has given rise to a great deal of discussion in the courts; but it has been finally decided, that the procuring of the certificate is a condition precedent to the payment of any loss, and that its being wrongfully refused will not excuse the want of it.

The risk commences in general from the signing of the policy, unless there be some other time specified. Policies of insurance may be annual, or for a term of years at an annual premium; and it is usual for the office, by way of indulgence, to allow fifteen days after each year for the payment of the premium for the next year in succession; and provided the premium be paid within that time, the insured is considered as within the protection of the office.

A policy of insurance is not in its nature assignable, nor can it be transferred without the express consent of the office. When, however, any person dies, his interest remains in his executors or administrators respectively, who succeed or become entitled to the property, provided such representatives respectively procure their right to be indorsed on the policy.

(For further details, see *Marshall on Insurance*, book iv.; *Park on Insurance*, c. 23.)

Insurances are generally divided into common, hazardous, and doubly hazardous. The distinguishing characteristics of these may be learned from the subjoined proposals of the Sun Fire Office. The charge for insuring property of the first description is now usually 1s. 6d. per cent., the second 2s. 6d., and the third 4s. 6d. These charges are exclusive of the duty payable to government, of 1s. on the policy, and 3s. per cent. on the sum in the policy.

We subjoin a copy of a policy of insurance on a house valued at 1,000l., and furniture, plate, books, &c. in the same, valued also at 1,000l., executed by the Sun Fire Office, and of the proposals indorsed on the same. The latter correspond in most particulars with those issued by the other offices.

Received, for the insurance of the property undermentioned, from *Knox 1833*, to *Xmas 1834*.

Policy	£ s. d.
Premium	0 0 0
Duty	1 10 0
	3 0 0
	£4 10 0



To be paid annually at Xmas.

Premium	£ s. d.
Duty	1 10 0
	3 0 0
	£4 10 0

No. —

550
 WHEREAS A. B. Esq. of No. — Street, has paid the sum of one pound ten shillings to the Society of the Sun Fire Office in London, and has agreed to pay or cause to be paid, to them, at their said office, the sum of one pound ten shillings on the 25th of December, 1833, and the like sum of one pound ten shillings yearly on the 25th day of December during the continuance of this policy, for insurance from loss or damage by fire, on his now dwelling house only, situate as aforesaid, brick, one thousand pounds; household goods, wearing apparel, printed books, and plate therein only, one thousand pounds.

Now KNOW YE, That, from the date of these presents, and so long as the said A. B. shall duly pay, or cause to be paid, the said sum of one pound ten shillings at the times and place aforesaid; and the trustees or acting members of the said Society, for the time being, shall agree to accept the same; the stock and fund of the said Society shall be subject and liable to pay to the said A. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, all such his damage and loss which he, the said A. B., shall suffer by fire, not exceeding upon each head of insurance, the sum or sums above-mentioned, amounting in the whole to no more than two thousand pounds, according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals, indorsed on this policy, and of an act of parliament, on the 5th of George the Third, for singling a duty on persons whose property shall be insured against loss by fire. In Witness whereof, we (three of the trustees or acting members for the said Society) have hereunto set our hands and seals, the 24th day of December, 1833.

Signed and sealed (being stamped according to act of parliament) in the presence of J. K.

C. D. (s. s.)
 E. F. (s. s.)
 G. H. (s. s.)

"N. B.—The interest in this policy may be transferred by indorsement, made and entered at the office, if the trustees or acting members approve thereof, but not otherwise."

INSURANCE (FIRE).

(ENDORSEMENT OF THE POLICY.)

SUN FIRE OFFICE.

This office insures against loss or damage by fire, in Great Britain and Ireland, all descriptions of buildings, including mills and manufactories, and goods, wares, and merchandise, in the same; ships in harbour, or in dock; and on navigable rivers and canals, and the goods laden on the same; wagons travelling the roads, and their contents; and farming stock of all descriptions, upon the following terms and conditions:—

Common Insurances.

1. Buildings covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and built on all sides with brick or stone, or separated by party-walls of brick or stone, and wherein no hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on, or hazardous goods deposited.

2. Goods in buildings as above described, such as household goods, plate, jewels in private use, apparel, and printed books; liquors in private use, merchandise, stock and utensils in trade, not hazardous, and farming stock.

At 1s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Hazardous Insurances.

1. Buildings of timber or plaster, or not wholly separated by partition-walls of brick or stone, or not covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and thatched barns and out-houses having no chimneys, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney; and buildings falling under the description of common insurance, but in which some hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on, such as brewers (without a steam-engine), bread and biscuit bakers (not sea-biscuit bakers), bottlers and packers of wine, spirits, or beer; chemists (without a laboratory); gun-holders, maltsters (who make pale malt only), oil-men, soap boilers, stable-keepers, and certain others; or in which hazardous goods are deposited, as the stock and utensils in the above trades; and, also, tallow, pitch, tar, hemp, flax, rosin, and turpentine; hay, straw, and all manner of fodder and corn unthreshed; molasses, stock, and oil; and wine and spirituous liquors as merchandise.

2. Ships and craft, with their contents (lime barges, with their contents, alone excepted).

At 2s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Doubtful Hazardous Insurances.

1. Buildings—All thatched buildings having chimneys, or communicating with, or adjoining to, buildings having one, although no hazardous trade shall be carried on, nor hazardous goods deposited therein; and all iron buildings, in which hazardous goods are deposited, or hazardous trades carried on.

2. Goods—All hazardous goods deposited in hazardous buildings, and in thatched buildings having no chimney, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney.

3. Trades—and their stock and utensils, such as millsters (who make brown malt), and certain others; also china, glass, and earthen-ware, saltpetre, and waxes in their contents.

At 4s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Farming stock on any part of a farm may be insured under general policies, without the average clause, at 1d. per cent. insurances of any kind to be insured in a fair average value. This office will not be subject to any loss on hay or corn, occasioned by its own natural heating, but the loss of any other property in consequence of such fire will be made good, as well losses or fire from lightning.

Insurances may also be made by special agreement on the following risks, and on others of a similar description, not mentioned under the 2d and 3d heads of insurances, viz. on mills of all kinds, and the stock and utensils in them; also on buildings, containing kilns, steam-engines, sluice, or oven, used in the process of any manufacture, and the stock therein; sugar refiners, sea biscuit bakers, distillers, varnish makers, chemists, laboratories, theatres, coach painters, colour manufacturers, varnishers, musical instrument makers, carriers of saltpetre, spermaceti, wax, and oil, barge and boat builders, ropemakers, cabinet makers, coach makers, cooper, cork burners, floor-cloth makers, japanners, hoopblack makers, letter-press printers, machine makers, makers of lalins and of rough fat, raddle makers, cast-iron saws, rope and mill makers, ship chandlers, hemp and flax dressers, oil leather dressers, medals, curiosities, pictures, prints, drawings, statuary work, spinners of cotton, flax, lint and wool, throughout all the operations attending the manufacturing of these materials, from the raw state into thread for the weaver, and such other risks as, by reason of the nature of the trade, the narrowness of the situation, or other dangerous circumstances, may increase the hazard thereof; all which special hazards must be inserted in the policy, to render the same valid and in force.

N. B.—Gunpowder, and buildings in which it is made, cannot be insured on any terms; neither does this office insure writings of any kind, books of accounts, ready money, bonds, bills, or any other securities for money.

N. B.—By an act of the 56th of Geo. 3. a duty of 3s. per annum is to be levied on every 100l. of property insured against fire.

N. B.—Persons may insure for more years than one, and in such cases there will be a discount allowed of 5 per cent. per annum.

Insurance of Mills, &c.—We submit for the information of each of our readers as they may be interested in the insurance of mills, the following statements, put forth by the Leeds and Yorkshire Assurance Company.

CLASSIFICATION OF MILLS.

Class I.—Fire Proof. Mills built entirely of stone or brick the floor laid upon stone or brick arches, resting upon stone, brick, or iron pillars, and consisting of stone flags, lime, cement, or plaster; the frame-work of the windows and roof of iron, the roof covered with slates, tiles, or metal; the interior detached, constructed of solid masonry of brick-work, without any mixture of wood or timber, and having no communication with the mill but at the several landing openings in upright shafts or machinery (if any) to be hoisted off with iron or stone.

Class II.—Fire Proof. Mills of which the construction is in all respects the same as Class I. except that the floors do not rest upon stone or brick arches, but consist of stone flags laid upon beams and joists.

Class III.—Mills constructed as Classes I and II, but having the same floor as that resting upon timber beams and joists, and the frame-work of the windows and roof of wood.

compound interest, on the premium and duty for every year except the first.

Conditions.

Art. I.—Any person desirous of effecting insurances upon buildings or goods must furnish the office, or its agents, with a particular description thereof, and of the process of manufacture carried on therein; and if there be any omission or misrepresentation in describing the building or goods, or process of manufacture, whereby the same may be charged at a different rate of premium than they otherwise would be, this office will not be responsible in case of any loss or damage. And if any alteration be made in the state of the buildings or goods, or process of manufacture, after such insurance shall have been effected, then the insured shall give due notice thereof, in writing, to the office or its agents, or in default of such notice, such insurance shall become void, and no benefit be derived therefrom.

Art. II.—All policies shall be signed and sealed by three or more trustees or acting members; and no receipts are to be taken for any premiums of insurance, but such as are printed and issued from the office, and witnessed by one of its clerks or agents.

Art. III.—Houses, buildings, and goods in trust, and merchandise on commission (except as aforesaid), may be insured, provided the same are declared in the policy to be in trust or on commission, but not otherwise.

Art. IV.—On bespeaking policies, all persons shall pay the premium to the next quarter day, and from thence for one year or more, at least, or shall make a deposit for the same, and shall, as long as the managers agree to accept the same, make all future payments assentually at the said office, within fifteen days after the day limited by their respective policies, upon forfeiture of the benefit thereof.

Art. V.—Any number of houses and out-houses, and household goods, printed books, and other articles, may be insured in the said brackets in private use, stock in trade, goods in trust, or on commission, may be insured in one policy.

Art. VI.—Persons who have this office shall receive no benefit from their policies, if the same houses, or goods, &c. are insured by any other office, unless such insurance, and the amount thereof, is first specified and endorsed on the policy, in which case this office will pay its fairable proportion on any loss or damage.

Art. VII.—When any person dies, the policy and interest thereon shall continue to the heir, executor, or administrator, respectively, to whom the right of the property insured shall belong, provided, before any new payment be made, such heir, executor, or administrator, do procure his or her right to be indorsed on the policy at the said office, or the amount to be paid in the name of the said heir, executor, or administrator.

Art. VIII.—Persons changing their habitations or warehouses may preserve the benefit of their policies, if the nature and circumstance of such policy be not altered; but such insurance will be of no force till such removal or alteration is allowed at the office, by endorsement on the policy.

Art. IX.—No fire or damage will be paid on fire happening by any invasion, foreign enemy, civil commotion, or any military or usurped power whatsoever.

Art. X.—Persons sustaining any loss or damage by fire are to forthwith give notice thereof at the office; and, as soon as possible afterwards, deliver in as particular an account of their loss or damage as the nature of the case will admit of, and make proof of the same by their oath or affirmations according to the practice in vogue in the said office, and by their books of accounts, or such other proper vouchers as shall be reasonably required, and procure a certificate under the hands of the ministers and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish and place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and nature of the persons or persons insured or claiming; and do know, or verily believe that they are, or are really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evasive practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, is the value therein mentioned. And till the said certificate and evidence of such the assured's loss shall be made and produced, the loss money shall not be payable. And, if there appear any fraud or false swearing, or if the fire shall have happened by the procurement, or willful act, means, or contrivance of the insured or persons, his, she, or they shall be excluded from all benefit from their policies. And in case any difference shall arise between the office and the insured, touching any loss or damage, such difference shall be submitted to the judgment and determination of arbitrators, indifferently chosen, whose award in writing shall be conclusive and binding on all parties.

N. B.—In every case of loss the Company reserves the right of reinstatement in preference to the payment of claims, if it should judge the former course to be more expedient; but when any loss is settled and adjusted, the insured will receive immediate payment for the same, without any deduction or discount; and will not be liable to any covenant or evil for contribution to make good losses.

* * * To encourage the removal of goods in case of fire, this office will allow the reasonable charges resulting the same, and will not suffer the loss, whether destroyed, lost, or damaged, by such removal.

Class	Flax Mills.			Machinery and Block.	Buildings.
	L.	s.	d.		
Class I.	0	5	0	10	0
II.	0	7	0	12	0
III.	0	9	0	14	0
IV.	0	13	0	18	0
V.	0	14	0	17	0
VI.	0	17	0	16	0
VII.	1	0	0	12	0

Remarks.—The premiums affixed in opposition that 3-4ths of the value of the fire insurance. If only half the value and so on. Buildings, machinery, and insured for any sum or sums, subject to the introduction of clauses or fire, for will all to classes.

1. and 11. 6d. premium. V. an. II. and IV. 1s. premium. VII. When amounts are more than 2 miles distant.

Amount of Property Insured

and some other countries, is amongst us for a century and upwards, accounts, that the gross duty 1832, amounted to 586,000l. It still traces that most buildings insured at all; and in the country it is difficult to imagine that the same risk is the duty is person pay to an insurance of 30s. to govern about 120 to 75 and 80 per cent. in the third its present amount, the be extended without an increase in the casualties to which heat consequences in a public from being materially diminished. During last session (1833), the hence arising is immaterial; inasmuch as there is no ground other description of stock. As see it repeated, but to have it felt as a burden; while the r

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances.

Offices.	1836.
London	1,849,900
Edinburgh	19,922
Bristol	15,274
Country	40,880
Glasgow	24,117
Guarantee	26,270
Hand-in-Hand	11,596
Imperial	28,906
London	7,411
Palladium	3,810
Pearl	59,991
Providence	24,752
Royal Exchange	45,108
Sun	107,172
Union	16,865
Westminster	14,564
Albion	13,053
Total	4,798,000

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances.

Offices.
Both Sun
British Glaucomary &c. (discont.)
Edinburgh
Bristol
British (Country)
British (Guano)
Essex Economic
Essex and Norfolk
Harford, Camberley, &c. (discont.)
Harris, Stuxes, and Dorset
Kent
Leeds and Yorkshire
Mutual
Newcastle upon Tyne
New Norwich Equitable

INSURANCE (FIRE).

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Scale of Premiums.

	Flax Mills.			Cotton Mills.			Woollen Mills.			Corn Mills.			Oil Mills.			Worsted and Silk Mills.			
	Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		Build- ing	Machi- nery and Stock.		
Class I.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
II.	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
III.	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 7 0
IV.	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
V.	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 14 0
VI.	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 17 0	0 17 0
VII.	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 2 0	1 0 0	1 0 0

Remarks.—The premiums affixed in the above scale are on the supposition that 3/4ths of the value of the building or stock are given in for insurance. If only half the value is given in, the premium will be 1/3d more; if only 1/4th, the premium will be 2/3d more; and so on. Buildings, machinery, and stock, may however be insured for any sum or sums, subject to the average clause; or machinery and stock may be insured by rooms.

The introduction of stoves or fires, for heating, in lieu of steam, will add to classes I. and II. 6d. premium; | V. and VI. 1s. 6d. premium. III. and IV. 1s. premium; | VII. - 2s. premium.

When mills are more than 3 miles distant from any of the companies.

Against fire, though practised in France, Holland, and some other countries, is not general any where except in Great Britain. It has been known amongst us for a century and a half, and is now very widely extended. It appears from the official accounts, that the gross duty received on policies of insurance against fire in the United Kingdom, in 1832, amounted to 886,096*l.*; which, as the duty is 3s. per cent. shows that the property insured was valued at the immense sum of 557,397,533*l.* But notwithstanding the magnitude of this sum, it is still true that most buildings are not insured up to their full value; even in towns, many are not insured at all; and in the country it is far from being customary to insure farm buildings or barn-yards. It is difficult to imagine that this can be owing to any thing other than the exorbitance of the duty. On common risks the duty is no less than 200 per cent. upon the premium; or, in other words, if a person pay to an insurance office 15s. for insuring 1,000*l.* worth of property, he must at the same time pay a duty of 30*l.* to government! On hazardous and doubly hazardous risks, the duty varies from about 120 to 75 and 80 per cent. upon the premium. Such a duty is in the last degree oppressive and impolitic. There cannot, in fact, be the slightest doubt that, were it reduced, we it ought to be, to one third its present amount, the business of insurance would be very much extended; and as it could not be extended without an increase of security, and without lessening the injurious consequences arising from the casualties to which property is exposed, the reduction of the duty would be productive of the best consequences in a public point of view; while the increase of business would prevent the revenue from being materially diminished.

During last session (1833), the duty on the insurance of farming stock was repealed. But the relief thence arising is immaterial; and the increase is, besides, highly objectionable in point of principle, inasmuch as there is no ground whatever for exempting farming stock from duty in preference to any other description of stock. A duty on insurance is not, in itself, objectionable. We do not wish to see it repealed, but to have it effectually reduced. Were it fixed at 1s. per cent., it would hardly be felt as a burden; while the revenue would suffer little or nothing from the measure.

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances paid by the different London Offices, during each of The Ten Years ending with 1835.

Offices.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.
Alliance	16,319	17,746	19,095	19,486	20,175	20,715	20,147	20,428	21,034	22,062
Atlas	18,222	20,988	19,522	20,199	20,700	20,783	21,010	21,288	21,368	22,063
British	15,274	15,484	16,283	15,812	15,610	15,672	15,644	15,395	16,428	17,473
Country	40,880	43,622	47,413	44,822	44,172	46,619	48,307	44,237	40,471	42,317
Globe	24,177	26,169	25,307	25,546	26,462	26,597	27,198	27,381	27,355	28,268
Guardian	26,370	23,083	29,864	30,665	31,077	31,385	31,686	31,919	32,111	32,472
Head-in-Hand	11,595	11,704	11,975	11,234	11,589	11,564	10,793	10,793	10,950	11,165
Imperial	22,985	22,334	23,947	22,510	27,081	28,230	28,234	27,164	27,000	27,379
London	7,411	7,077	7,261	7,588	9,018	7,253	5,125	5,477	6,460	10,173
Palladium	3,810	4,781	5,023	5,376	1,377	discontin.	-	-	-	-
Phoenix	59,991	60,482	62,239	65,849	68,875	69,390	75,076	73,368	72,621	73,157
Protective	24,752	25,973	28,445	24,257	26,081	28,729	29,152	27,558	26,676	24,606
Royal Exchange	4,108	38,074	49,416	49,738	51,891	54,621	55,716	53,268	67,973	67,973
Sun	107,172	111,621	114,305	118,856	120,610	124,030	124,127	124,681	127,470	128,112
Union	16,895	15,705	16,418	16,355	15,714	16,833	15,315	16,139	16,370	17,334
Westminster	14,554	14,392	14,364	16,461	14,777	15,118	15,111	16,126	15,381	16,918
Albion	18,053	12,509	discontin.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	478,098	484,941	513,808	529,411	534,425	550,362	554,988	549,886	550,391	568,393

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurance paid by the different Country Offices in England, during each of the Eight Years ending with 1835.

Offices.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.
Bath Sun	-	1,620	1,628	1,363	1,542	1,562	1,567	1,563
Berks, Gloucester, &c. (discontin.)	-	2,985	2,477	2,604	614	-	-	-
Birmingham	-	6,139	5,786	6,238	7,016	7,049	7,304	7,012
Bristol	-	3,806	3,503	3,913	3,977	3,711	3,722	3,763
Bristol (Crown)	-	1,944	1,862	1,918	1,866	1,862	1,772	1,853
Cardiff (Union)	-	2,480	2,498	2,480	2,339	2,267	2,266	2,262
Essex Economic	-	2,842	2,855	3,138	3,163	3,061	2,821	2,595
Essex and Suffolk	-	6,278	6,444	6,407	6,490	6,504	5,753	6,336
Hampshire, Cambridge, &c. (discontin.)	-	4,571	4,566	5,429	5,283	-	-	-
Hants, Sussex, and Dorset	-	2,840	2,696	2,792	2,833	2,857	2,699	2,558
Kent	-	3,833	3,278	3,039	3,062	3,050	3,078	3,020
Leeds and Yorkshire	-	3,377	3,728	3,917	3,824	3,669	3,438	3,353
Manchester	-	16,176	16,783	16,787	17,350	17,532	17,746	18,016
Newcastle upon Tyne	-	4,755	4,948	5,083	5,126	5,126	5,093	5,104
New Norwich Equitable	-	-	-	1,094	1,330	1,430	1,289	1,394

* For two quarters only.

Table—continued.

Offices.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Norwich Equitable	£ 3,328	£ 3,491	£ 3,318	£ 3,336	£ 3,330	£ 3,330	£ 3,330	£ 3,330
Norwich Union	61,946	61,156	62,385	66,336	66,869	61,245	66,252	61,823
Reading	112	108	131	150	152	198	212	207
Salisbury	4,540	4,550	4,307	5,207	5,224	5,105	5,091	4,975
Step	2,616	2,571	2,600	2,611	2,578	2,397	2,612	2,751
Sheffield	1,748	1,604	1,523	2,065	2,087	1,952	2,058	2,114
Shields (North and South)	708	743	727	718	727	784	758	722
Suffolk (East)	5,530	5,638	5,787	5,773	5,218	5,445	5,477	5,311
Suffolk (West)	5,989	6,130	6,376	6,961	6,956	6,190	5,751	5,448
West of England	22,231	22,818	25,123	25,483	26,601	27,445	27,128	27,233
Yorkshire	2,947	3,221	3,336	4,754	5,401	5,536	5,302	5,741
Total	128,388	126,763	134,019	150,716	156,207	154,097	155,696	150,198

The Hope, Eagle, Albion, Beacon, British Commercial, Palladium, Surrey, Sussex, and Southwark, Brighton, Old Bath, Gloucestershire, Canterbury, Berke, Gloucester and Provincial, Harford, Cambridge, and Country, and others, (in all 22 offices, chiefly those lately established,) have discontinued their fire insurance business.

IV. INSURANCE (LIFE).

That part of the business of life insurance which consists of granting annuities upon lives, is treated of under **INTEREST AND ANNUITIES**; so that we have only to treat, in this place, of the insurance of sums payable at the death of the insurers or their nominees.

Suppose an individual of a given age wishes to insure 100*l.* payable at his death, the single premium, or the series of annual premiums, he ought to pay an office for such insurance, must plainly depend on the expectation of life of such individual, and on the rate of interest or net profit which the insurers may make by investing the premiums.

With respect to the first of these conditions, or the *expectation of life*, it is usual in estimating it to have recourse to Tables framed from the mortality observed to take place in particular cities or districts, as in Northampton, Carlisle, &c.—(See **INTEREST AND ANNUITIES**.) But though the actual decrement and expectation of life among an average population, at every year of their lives, were accurately determined, it is doubtful whether it would form a fair basis for an insurance office to proceed upon. The general opinion seems to be, that insured lives are decidedly above the average; for insurance offices invariably profess to act on the principle of rejecting bad lives or of making them pay a proportional increase of premium; and it may, besides, it is said, be fairly presumed that persons insuring their lives are of a superior class, and are not, generally speaking, engaged in those manual and laborious occupations that are esteemed most injurious to health. But, on the other hand, the friends of parties whose lives are supposed to be bad, and the parties themselves, are most anxious they should be insured. It is also far from being an uncommon practice, for certain individuals to prevail upon persons whom they happen to know, or believe to be bad lives to insure; and then to get a legal assignment of the policy in their favour, or their giving the "men of straw" a bonus for their share in the fraud. At all events, there can be no question that large numbers of such lives are perpetually offered for insurance; and every individual conversant with the business knows that, in despite of all precautions, policies are very frequently effected upon them. Mr. Milne, on whose judgment every reliance may be placed, states distinctly that "all the caution and selection which the officers in general can exercise, is necessary to keep the lives insured up to the average goodness of the bulk of the population."—(*Ency. Brit.* new ed. art. *Annuities*.) Since the competition among the different offices became so very keen as it has been of late years, there are but few lives so bad that they will not be taken by one office or another; and we doubt, were the results of their experience made public, whether it would be found that there is much foundation for the opinion as to the superiority of insured lives.

With respect to the second condition in valuing an insurance, or the rate at which the interest of money may be estimated, it is impossible to arrive at any thing like accurate conclusions. As an average, perhaps, transactions in life insurance may extend over a period of 30 years from the time v. hen they are entered into; and in such a lengthened term the greatest changes may take place in the rate of profit and the rate of interest. Mr. Finlaison, of the National Debt Office, appears to think that 4 per cent. may be taken as the true average rate in this country; and that 4½ is a rate at which no loss need be apprehended.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 284, Sess. 1825.) But this is not a point on which (as Mr. Finlaison seems to suppose) previous experience can be safely depended upon in forming engagements for the future; and were this the proper place for entering upon such discussions, we think we could assign pretty solid grounds for concluding that no institution, intended to last for the next half century, would be wise in ad in reckoning upon realising more than 3 per cent. upon its investments. We should look upon this as the maximum, and of course could expect nothing but ruin to fall upon any institution founded up on the hypothesis of realising 4½ per cent. of interest. At the same time, we would not be under odd as laying any undue stress upon this opinion; and are ready to admit that there must always be more of conjecture than of certainty in such conclusions.

Security being the principal object to be aimed at by every insurance office established on sound principles, they would not act wisely, if they did not calculate their premiums considerably higher than may appear necessary to those who look only at what has taken place during the last 30 or 40 years. Societies contracting prospective engagements that may extend for half a century or more, are exposed to numerous unforeseen contingencies; and they would be highly censurable, and altogether unworthy of the public confidence, were they so to conduct their affairs, that they might be liable to serious embarrassments from fluctuation in the rate of interest, or an increase of sickness, or any other cause. The success that has hitherto attended the Equitable, and some of the long-established offices, must not be taken as any criterion of what may befall them and others during the next 100 years. Mr. Morgan, the late able actuary of the Equitable, in his account of the rise and progress of that institution, published in 1828, has satisfactorily shown that its peculiar prosperity was been in a very great degree owing to circumstances which cannot possibly occur again. The premium, for example, charged by the Society, as late as 1771, for insuring 100*l.* on the life of a person aged 30, was 4*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.*, whereas it is now only 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; and there was a corresponding difference in the premiums for the other ages.—(p. 36.) But the excessive magnitude of the premiums was not the only extraordinary source of profit enjoyed by this Society in the earlier part of its career. We learn from the same unquestionable authority, that half the insurances made during the first twenty-five years of the Society's existence were abandoned by the insurers, in many cases, after the premium upon them had been paid for a considerable number of years, without any valuable consideration being given for them by the Society!—(p. 38.) So obvious a source of profit was almost adequate to enrich any society; but such things rarely occur now,—people are too familiar with life insurance, and aware of the possibility of too frequent occurrence, to allow any office to realize any thing considerable in this way. Now, we ask, can any one who takes these facts into view, and compares them with the frugal and

cautious management which he to success? and can any thing scope of the societies that have of these considerations, there some of the old offices, place in the rate of mortality; no interest in commotion; we into the funds, during the do not presume to say that ch offered during the next half cent of those who proceeded to insu b, in life insurance, the param premiums were at one time tro them too low. A great relaxa section of it follows. And the adv to be resorted to in different co consider well v. hat he is abou statements, unless where th ought not to go for much. Life for a long time have all the app very insecure foundation. If a credit he gets doubtful, he will certainly. The bargain is one tility on the part of an establish productive of a degree of misery

Life insurance companies are panies, who undertake to pay profits made by such companies Exchange, the Ann, the Globe, bodies; but instead of under the assured, they allow the last profits made by the business. T to the insured, is not the same disclosed. The Rock, Alliance, company in that which is forme no proprietary body distinct of the concern, after deducting the Norwich Life, &c. belong to The advantage to a person in pend on a comparison between the security which it holds out. panies would be in all respects draw away any share of the pre to be not more than balanced a partner in the concern, has no other members; and may; in some very serious responsibility the hands of a Junta; and to be any thing of the matter. There (distinguishing clearly between the persons, it is but reasonable that should object to new entrants p in this way, or making distinctly hardly fall of becoming as et conflicting claims of the parties have to be adjusted in the court. Supposing the premiums dema be fairly proportioned to the va the most advisable to insure in Sun, Globe, Scottish Union, &c. of the chartered companies, to dealing with them know exact have to pay, and the exact amo their death. They incur no re dented and unlooked-for charg with certainty on the terms of

But, as already observed, even mium with the advantages to carelessness, or intentionally, high, it may be more expedient for the benefit of the proprietary bo any respectable company of this the flourishing condition of the mlions should be too high. It should, however, be borne in of his getting a proportionate responsibility. In detail, this responsibility can hardly be in the field, and holding out v some future period, that this re highly respectable compa—insert in all its policies the members shall, in all cases, be condition be good in law; but which otherwise would justly seeme himself against a comb of this sort implies a doubt, a blishment. Such a doubt may most likely, he believed to this Albion Fire and Life Insurance

cautious management which has hitherto always distinguished the Equitable Society, be surprised at the success it and can any thing be more absurd than to appeal to its experience in casting the horoscope of the societies that have sprung into existence within the last few years. But, independently of these considerations, there are other circumstances sufficient to account for the great success of some of the old offices. Since the close of the American war, a very decided diminution has taken place in the rate of mortality; the public tranquillity has neither been disturbed by foreign invasion nor intestine commotion; we have not been once visited by any epidemic disorder; and the investments in the funds, during the war made at from 50 to 60, may now be realised at from 80 to 90. We do not presume to say that circumstances may not be even more advantageous for the insurance offices during the next half century; but we should not, certainly, think very highly of the prudence of those who proceeded to insure on such an assumption. Security, we take leave again to repeat, is in life insurance, the paramount consideration. It is, we believe, admitted on all hands, that the premiums were at one time too high; but we doubt whether the tendency at present be not to sink them too low. A great relaxation has taken place, even in the most respectable offices, as to the selection of lives. And the advertisements daily appearing in the newspapers, and the practices known to be resorted to in different quarters to procure business, ought to make every prudent individual consider well what he is about before he decides upon the office with which he is to insure. Attractive statements, unless where they emanate from individuals of unquestionable character and science, ought not to go for much. Life insurance is one of the most deceptive of businesses; and offices may for a long time have all the appearance of prosperity, which are, notwithstanding, established on a very insecure foundation. If a man insure a house or a ship with a society, or an individual, of whose credit he gets doubtful, he will forthwith insure somewhere else. But life insurance is quite a different affair. The bargain is one that is not to be finally concluded for, perhaps, 50 years; and any inability on the part of an establishment in extensive business to make good its engagements, would be productive of a degree of misery not easy to be imagined.

Life insurance companies are divided into three classes. The first class consists of joint stock companies, who undertake to pay fixed sums upon the death of the individuals insuring with them; the profits made by such companies being wholly divided among the proprietors. Of this class are the Royal Exchange, the Sun, the Globe, &c. The second class are also joint stock companies, with proprietary bodies; but instead of undertaking, like the former, to pay certain specified sums upon the death of the insured, they allow the latter to participate to a certain extent, along with the proprietors, in the profits made by the business. The mode in which this sort of mixed companies allot the profit granted to the insured, is not the same in all; and in some, the principle on which the allotment is made is not declared. The Rock, Alliance, Guardian, Atlas, &c. belong to this mixed class. The third species of company is that which is formed on the basis of mutual insurance. In this sort of company there is no proprietary body distinct from the insured; the latter share among themselves the whole profits of the concern, after deducting the expenses of management. The Equitable Society, the Anicable, the Norwich Life, &c. belong to this class.

The advantage to a person insuring in any one office as compared with another, must plainly depend on a comparison between the premiums demanded, the conditions of the policy, and, above all, the security which it holds out. It may appear, on a superficial view, as if the mutual insurance companies would be in all respects the most eligible to deal with, inasmuch as they have no proprietors to draw away any share of the profits from the insured. It is doubtful, however, whether this advantage be not more than balanced by disadvantages incident to such establishments. Every one being a partner in the concern, has not only his own life insured, but is part insurer of the lives of all the other members; and may, in this capacity, should the affairs of the society get into disorder, incur some very serious responsibilities. The management, too, of such societies, is very apt to get into the hands of a junta; and to be conducted without the greater number of those interested knowing any thing of the matter. There is, also, considerable difficulty, in constituting such societies, in distinguishing clearly between the rights of old and new members: for, supposing a society to be prosperous, it is but reasonable that those who have belonged to it while it has accumulated a large fund, should object to new entrants participating in this advantage. But the affairs of a society conducted in this way, or making distinctions in the rights of the members during a long series of years, could hardly fail of becoming at last exceedingly complicated: nor is it, indeed, at all improbable that the conflicting claims of the parties in some of the societies of this sort now in existence, may ultimately have to be adjusted in the courts of law, or by an act of the legislature.

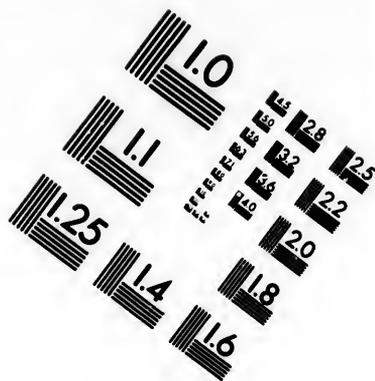
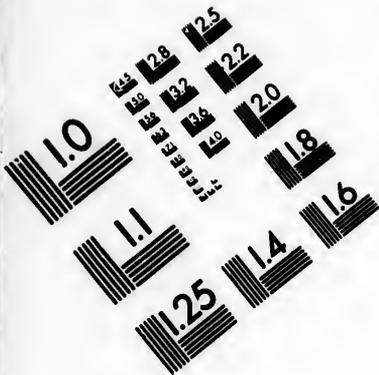
Supposing the premiums demanded by the societies which retain the whole profits to themselves, to be fairly proportioned to the values insured, we should be inclined to think that they are, on the whole, the most advisable to insure in. The subscribed capital of such associations as the Royal Exchange, Sun, Globe, Scottish Union, &c., and the wealth of the partners (which is all liable, except in the case of the chartered companies, to the claims of the insured), afford unquestionable security. Individuals dealing with them know exactly what they are about. They know the precise premiums they will have to pay, and the exact amount of the sums that will be paid to their assignees in the event of their death. They incur no responsibility of any kind whatever. For, unless some very unprecedented and unlooked-for change should take place in the condition of the country, they may reckon with certainty on the terms of the policy being fulfilled to the letter.

But, as already observed, every thing depends, in matters of this sort, on a comparison of the premium with the advantages to be realised. And were the premiums as believed, either through carelessness, or intentionally in order to procure the preference of the establishment, to be a little too high, it may be more expedient, perhaps, to deal with a mixed company. The subscribed capital and fortunes of the proprietary body afford a guarantee on which the public may depend in dealing with any respectable company of this sort; while, by receiving a share of the profits, the insured gain by the flourishing condition of the association, and it is of less consequence to them though the premiums should be too high.

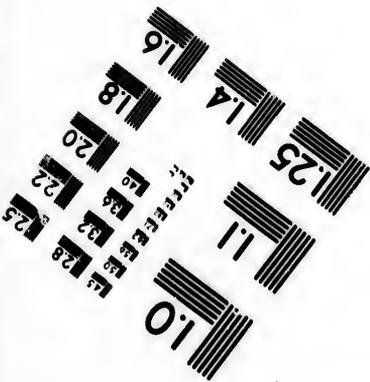
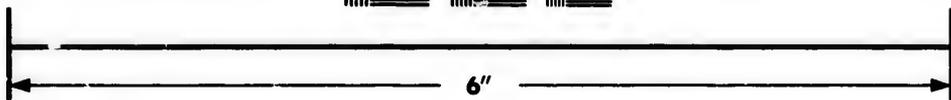
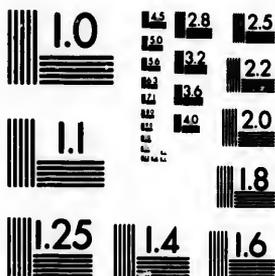
It should, however, be borne in mind, that an individual insuring with a mixed company, on condition of his getting a proportion of the profits, becomes a partner of such company; and being so, incurs responsibility with such associations as the Alliance, the Rock, and a few others, this responsibility can hardly be said to amount to any thing. But there are companies of this class in the field, and holding out very tempting baits to the unwary, those insured in which may find, at some future period, that this responsibility is by no means a light matter.

A highly respectable company of this mixed class, with a large subscribed capital,—the Guardian,—inserts in all its policies the following condition, viz.—“That the responsibility of the individual members shall, in all cases, be limited to their respective shares.” It may be doubted whether this condition be good in law; but if it be, it materially affects the security afforded by the Company, which otherwise would justly claim a place in the very first class of offices. As no one attempts to secure himself against a contingency which he is satisfied cannot happen, the existence of a condition of this sort implies a doubt, on the part of the proprietary body, of the perfect solidity of the establishment. Such a doubt may be, and we believe really is, very ill-founded; but the public will, most likely, be inclined to think that the proprietors ought to know better than any one else. The Albion Fire and Life Insurance Company also inserts in its policies a condition to the same effect.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

18
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my knowledge and belief the age of the said does not exceed years: that he has had the rupture, nor any fit or distemper, nor any disorder tending to shorten life; and this declaration is to be the basis of the contract between me and the said Society.

and if there be any untrue averment therein, all monies which shall have been paid in the Society upon account of the assurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited. Dated the day of 18

I insert small-pox or cow-pox, as the case may require.

Policy by the Sun Life Assurance Society for 1,000*l.*, on the Life of A. B., aged Thirty, insuring his own Life No. —

SUN LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

THIS POLICY OF ASSURANCE WITNESSETH, that, whereas A. B. Esq. of — Square, London, being desirous of making an assurance upon his own life, for the whole duration thereof, and having subscribed, or caused to be subscribed, and delivered into this office, a declaration setting forth his ordinary and present state of health, wherein it is declared that the age of the said A. B. did not then exceed 30 years; and having paid to the managers for the Sun Life Assurance Society, at their office in Cornhill, in the city of London, the sum of twenty-four pounds eleven shillings and eight pence sterling, as a consideration for the assurance of the sum under-mentioned for one year, from the twentieth day of January, 1834.

NOW KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS, that in case the said assured shall happen to die at any time within the term of one year, as above set forth, the stock and funds of this Society shall be subject and liable to pay and make good to the executors, administrators, or assigns, of the said assured, within three months after the demise of the said assured shall have been duly certified to the managers aforesaid, at their said office, the sum of one thousand pounds sterling, of lawful money of Great Britain.

It is hereby agreed, that this policy may continue in force from year to year, until the expiration of the term first above-mentioned, provided that the said assured shall duly pay, or cause to be paid, to the managers, at their said office, on or before the nineteenth day of October next ensuing, the sum of twenty-four pounds eleven shillings and eight pence sterling, and the like sum annually, on or before the day aforesaid; which annual payments shall be accepted, at every such period, as a full consideration for such assurance.

And it is hereby further agreed, that the assurance by this policy shall be extended during peace, to the risk of the above-named A. B. Esq. dying upon the sea in any whole-decked vessel or steam-boat, in passing between any one part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, and any other part thereof; or in passing between any port in the said United Kingdom, and any port on the continent of Europe, between Hamburg and Bordeaux, both inclusive.

PROVIDED NEVERTHELESS, that should the said assured depart beyond the limits of Europe, die upon the seas (except as above stated), or engage in any military or naval service whatsoever, within the term for which the policy is granted; or should the assurance have been obtained through any misrepresentation of the age, state of health, or description of the assured; or should the said assured die by duelling, suicide, or the hands of justice; then this policy, and every thing appertaining thereto, shall cease, be void, and of none effect.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, we, three of the managers for the said Society, have hereunto set our hands and seals, this twentieth day of January, 1834.

Signed, sealed, and delivered, J. K.

F. D. (L. S.)
C. F. (L. S.)
G. H. (L. S.)

TABLE OF PREMIUMS.

The following tabular statement shows the premiums demanded by the principal Life Insurance Societies for insuring 100*l.* at every different age from 15 to 60, for the whole term of life.

Age.	Alliance and Sun.	Auntleak.	Aylm.	British Commercial.	Crown.	Economic.	Equitable.	Eagle.		European.	Guardian.
								Males.	Females.		
15	112 6	115 9	117 9	119 0	120 0	121 9	123 0	124 0	125 0	126 0	127 0
16	113 8	116 9	118 9	120 0	121 0	122 9	124 0	125 0	126 0	127 0	128 0
17	114 9	117 9	119 9	121 0	122 0	123 9	125 0	126 0	127 0	128 0	129 0
18	115 1	118 0	120 0	121 0	122 0	123 9	125 0	126 0	127 0	128 0	129 0
19	116 0	118 6	120 6	121 0	122 0	123 9	125 0	126 0	127 0	128 0	129 0
20	116 11	119 0	121 0	121 0	122 0	123 9	125 0	126 0	127 0	128 0	129 0
21	117 11	120 0	122 0	122 0	123 0	124 9	126 0	127 0	128 0	129 0	130 0
22	118 11	121 0	123 0	123 0	124 0	125 9	127 0	128 0	129 0	130 0	131 0
23	119 0	122 0	124 0	124 0	125 0	126 9	128 0	129 0	130 0	131 0	132 0
24	120 0	123 0	125 0	125 0	126 0	127 9	129 0	130 0	131 0	132 0	133 0
25	121 0	124 0	126 0	126 0	127 0	128 9	130 0	131 0	132 0	133 0	134 0
26	122 0	125 0	127 0	127 0	128 0	129 9	131 0	132 0	133 0	134 0	135 0
27	123 0	126 0	128 0	128 0	129 0	130 9	132 0	133 0	134 0	135 0	136 0
28	124 0	127 0	129 0	129 0	130 0	131 9	133 0	134 0	135 0	136 0	137 0
29	125 0	128 0	130 0	130 0	131 0	132 9	134 0	135 0	136 0	137 0	138 0
30	126 0	129 0	131 0	131 0	132 0	133 9	135 0	136 0	137 0	138 0	139 0
31	127 0	130 0	132 0	132 0	133 0	134 9	136 0	137 0	138 0	139 0	140 0
32	128 0	131 0	133 0	133 0	134 0	135 9	137 0	138 0	139 0	140 0	141 0
33	129 0	132 0	134 0	134 0	135 0	136 9	138 0	139 0	140 0	141 0	142 0
34	130 0	133 0	135 0	135 0	136 0	137 9	139 0	140 0	141 0	142 0	143 0
35	131 0	134 0	136 0	136 0	137 0	138 9	140 0	141 0	142 0	143 0	144 0
36	132 0	135 0	137 0	137 0	138 0	139 9	141 0	142 0	143 0	144 0	145 0
37	133 0	136 0	138 0	138 0	139 0	140 9	142 0	143 0	144 0	145 0	146 0
38	134 0	137 0	139 0	139 0	140 0	141 9	143 0	144 0	145 0	146 0	147 0
39	135 0	138 0	140 0	140 0	141 0	142 9	144 0	145 0	146 0	147 0	148 0
40	136 0	139 0	141 0	141 0	142 0	143 9	145 0	146 0	147 0	148 0	149 0
41	137 0	140 0	142 0	142 0	143 0	144 9	146 0	147 0	148 0	149 0	150 0
42	138 0	141 0	143 0	143 0	144 0	145 9	147 0	148 0	149 0	150 0	151 0
43	139 0	142 0	144 0	144 0	145 0	146 9	148 0	149 0	150 0	151 0	152 0
44	140 0	143 0	145 0	145 0	146 0	147 9	149 0	150 0	151 0	152 0	153 0
45	141 0	144 0	146 0	146 0	147 0	148 9	150 0	151 0	152 0	153 0	154 0
46	142 0	145 0	147 0	147 0	148 0	149 9	151 0	152 0	153 0	154 0	155 0
47	143 0	146 0	148 0	148 0	149 0	150 9	152 0	153 0	154 0	155 0	156 0
48	144 0	147 0	149 0	149 0	150 0	151 9	153 0	154 0	155 0	156 0	157 0
49	145 0	148 0	150 0	150 0	151 0	152 9	154 0	155 0	156 0	157 0	158 0
50	146 0	149 0	151 0	151 0	152 0	153 9	155 0	156 0	157 0	158 0	159 0
51	147 0	150 0	152 0	152 0	153 0	154 9	156 0	157 0	158 0	159 0	160 0
52	148 0	151 0	153 0	153 0	154 0	155 9	157 0	158 0	159 0	160 0	161 0
53	149 0	152 0	154 0	154 0	155 0	156 9	158 0	159 0	160 0	161 0	162 0
54	150 0	153 0	155 0	155 0	156 0	157 9	159 0	160 0	161 0	162 0	163 0
55	151 0	154 0	156 0	156 0	157 0	158 9	160 0	161 0	162 0	163 0	164 0
56	152 0	155 0	157 0	157 0	158 0	159 9	161 0	162 0	163 0	164 0	165 0
57	153 0	156 0	158 0	158 0	159 0	160 9	162 0	163 0	164 0	165 0	166 0
58	154 0	157 0	159 0	159 0	160 0	161 9	163 0	164 0	165 0	166 0	167 0
59	155 0	158 0	160 0	160 0	161 0	162 9	164 0	165 0	166 0	167 0	168 0
60	156 0	159 0	161 0	161 0	162 0	163 9	165 0	166 0	167 0	168 0	169 0

Age.	London, Brechin Lane.	Life
15	117 1	117 1
16	118 4	118 4
17	119 0	119 0
18	120 0	120 0
19	121 0	121 0
20	122 0	122 0
21	123 0	123 0
22	124 0	124 0
23	125 0	125 0
24	126 0	126 0
25	127 0	127 0
26	128 0	128 0
27	129 0	129 0
28	130 0	130 0
29	131 0	131 0
30	132 0	132 0
31	133 0	133 0
32	134 0	134 0
33	135 0	135 0
34	136 0	136 0
35	137 0	137 0
36	138 0	138 0
37	139 0	139 0
38	140 0	140 0
39	141 0	141 0
40	142 0	142 0
41	143 0	143 0
42	144 0	144 0
43	145 0	145 0
44	146 0	146 0
45	147 0	147 0
46	148 0	148 0
47	149 0	149 0
48	150 0	150 0
49	151 0	151 0
50	152 0	152 0
51	153 0	153 0
52	154 0	154 0
53	155 0	155 0
54	156 0	156 0
55	157 0	157 0
56	158 0	158 0
57	159 0	159 0
58	160 0	160 0
59	161 0	161 0
60	162 0	162 0

The following offices Law Life, London Life Exchange, London, West

The following are the rates on joint lives a

Joint Lives.—A Table of assuring One F

Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	P.
10	10	2
	15	2
	20	3
	25	3
	30	4
	35	4
15	15	3
	20	3
	25	4
	30	4
	35	5
	40	5
20	20	4
	25	4
	30	5
	35	5
	40	6
	45	6

INSURANCE (LIFE).

Table of Premiums—continued.

Age.	London, Brechin Lane.	London, Life for Members.	Norwich.	Felician.	Promoter.	United Empire.	University.	West of England.	Scottish Widows' Fund.	Scottish Union.
15	L. s. d. 1 17 1	L. s. d. 1 15 0	L. s. d. 1 14 1	L. s. d. 1 11 11	L. s. d. 1 7 8	L. s. d. 1 15 0	L. s. d. 1 17 8	L. s. d. 1 16 9	L. s. d. 1 16 9	L. s. d. 1 15 9
16	1 18 1	1 16 0	1 15 0	1 12 0	1 8 0	1 16 0	1 18 0	1 17 0	1 17 0	1 16 0
17	1 19 0	1 17 0	1 16 0	1 13 0	1 9 0	1 17 0	1 19 0	1 18 0	1 18 0	1 17 0
18	1 20 0	1 18 0	1 17 0	1 14 0	1 10 0	1 18 0	1 20 0	1 19 0	1 19 0	1 18 0
19	1 21 0	1 19 0	1 18 0	1 15 0	1 11 0	1 19 0	2 0 0	1 20 0	1 20 0	1 19 0
20	2 0 0	1 20 0	1 19 0	1 16 0	1 12 0	2 0 0	2 1 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 20 0
21	2 1 5	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 16 10	1 12 8	2 0 5	2 1 4	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
22	2 2 0	2 0 5	2 0 5	1 17 7	1 13 5	2 1 3	2 1 0	2 0 10	2 0 5	2 0 5
23	2 2 7	2 1 0	2 1 0	1 18 4	1 14 4	2 2 1	2 1 0	2 1 3	2 1 0	2 1 0
24	2 3 0	2 1 5	2 1 5	1 19 2	1 15 2	2 3 0	2 1 5	2 1 8	2 1 5	2 1 5
25	2 3 6	2 2 0	2 2 0	2 0 0	1 16 0	2 3 11	2 2 0	2 2 3	2 2 0	2 2 0
26	2 4 3	2 2 5	2 2 5	2 0 7	1 17 6	2 4 11	2 2 5	2 2 4	2 2 5	2 2 5
27	2 5 1	2 3 0	2 3 0	2 1 4	1 18 3	2 5 11	2 3 0	2 2 5	2 3 0	2 3 0
28	2 6 0	2 3 5	2 3 5	2 2 1	1 19 1	2 6 0	2 3 5	2 2 5	2 3 5	2 3 5
29	2 6 10	2 4 0	2 4 0	2 2 8	1 20 0	2 7 0	2 4 0	2 3 0	2 4 0	2 4 0
30	2 7 0	2 4 5	2 4 5	2 3 5	2 0 8	2 8 0	2 4 5	2 3 5	2 4 5	2 4 5
31	2 8 0	2 5 0	2 5 0	2 4 2	2 1 5	2 9 0	2 5 0	2 4 0	2 5 0	2 5 0
32	2 9 0	2 5 5	2 5 5	2 4 9	2 2 2	2 10 0	2 5 5	2 4 5	2 5 5	2 5 5
33	2 10 0	2 6 0	2 6 0	2 5 6	2 2 9	2 11 0	2 6 0	2 5 0	2 6 0	2 6 0
34	2 11 0	2 6 5	2 6 5	2 6 3	2 3 6	2 12 0	2 6 5	2 5 5	2 6 5	2 6 5
35	2 12 0	2 7 0	2 7 0	2 7 0	2 4 3	2 13 0	2 7 0	2 6 0	2 7 0	2 7 0
36	2 13 0	2 7 5	2 7 5	2 7 7	2 5 0	2 14 0	2 7 5	2 6 5	2 7 5	2 7 5
37	2 14 0	2 8 0	2 8 0	2 8 4	2 5 7	2 15 0	2 8 0	2 7 0	2 8 0	2 8 0
38	2 15 0	2 8 5	2 8 5	2 9 1	2 6 4	2 16 0	2 8 5	2 7 5	2 8 5	2 8 5
39	2 16 0	2 9 0	2 9 0	2 9 8	2 7 1	2 17 0	2 9 0	2 8 0	2 9 0	2 9 0
40	2 17 0	2 9 5	2 9 5	3 0 5	2 7 8	2 18 0	2 9 5	2 8 5	2 9 5	2 9 5
41	2 18 0	3 0 0	3 0 0	3 1 2	2 8 5	2 19 0	3 0 0	2 9 0	3 0 0	3 0 0
42	2 19 0	3 0 5	3 0 5	3 1 9	2 9 2	2 20 0	3 0 5	2 9 5	3 0 5	3 0 5
43	2 20 0	3 1 0	3 1 0	3 2 6	2 9 9	2 21 0	3 1 0	3 0 0	3 1 0	3 1 0
44	2 21 0	3 1 5	3 1 5	3 3 3	3 0 6	2 22 0	3 1 5	3 0 5	3 1 5	3 1 5
45	2 22 0	3 2 0	3 2 0	3 4 0	3 1 3	2 23 0	3 2 0	3 1 0	3 2 0	3 2 0
46	2 23 0	3 2 5	3 2 5	3 4 7	3 2 0	2 24 0	3 2 5	3 1 5	3 2 5	3 2 5
47	2 24 0	3 3 0	3 3 0	3 5 4	3 2 7	2 25 0	3 3 0	3 2 0	3 3 0	3 3 0
48	2 25 0	3 3 5	3 3 5	3 6 1	3 3 4	2 26 0	3 3 5	3 2 5	3 3 5	3 3 5
49	2 26 0	3 4 0	3 4 0	3 6 8	3 4 1	2 27 0	3 4 0	3 3 0	3 4 0	3 4 0
50	2 27 0	3 4 5	3 4 5	3 7 5	3 4 8	2 28 0	3 4 5	3 3 5	3 4 5	3 4 5
51	2 28 0	3 5 0	3 5 0	3 8 2	3 5 5	2 29 0	3 5 0	3 4 0	3 5 0	3 5 0
52	2 29 0	3 5 5	3 5 5	3 8 9	3 6 2	2 30 0	3 5 5	3 4 5	3 5 5	3 5 5
53	2 30 0	3 6 0	3 6 0	3 9 6	3 6 9	2 31 0	3 6 0	3 5 0	3 6 0	3 6 0
54	2 31 0	3 6 5	3 6 5	4 0 3	3 7 6	2 32 0	3 6 5	3 5 5	3 6 5	3 6 5
55	2 32 0	3 7 0	3 7 0	4 1 0	3 8 3	2 33 0	3 7 0	3 6 0	3 7 0	3 7 0
56	2 33 0	3 7 5	3 7 5	4 1 7	3 9 0	2 34 0	3 7 5	3 6 5	3 7 5	3 7 5
57	2 34 0	3 8 0	3 8 0	4 2 4	3 9 7	2 35 0	3 8 0	3 7 0	3 8 0	3 8 0
58	2 35 0	3 8 5	3 8 5	4 3 1	4 0 4	2 36 0	3 8 5	3 7 5	3 8 5	3 8 5
59	2 36 0	3 9 0	3 9 0	4 3 8	4 1 1	2 37 0	3 9 0	3 8 0	3 9 0	3 9 0
60	2 37 0	3 9 5	3 9 5	4 4 5	4 1 8	2 38 0	3 9 5	3 8 5	3 9 5	3 9 5
61	2 38 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 5 2	4 2 5	2 39 0	4 0 0	3 9 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
62	2 39 0	4 0 5	4 0 5	4 5 9	4 3 2	2 40 0	4 0 5	3 9 5	4 0 5	4 0 5
63	2 40 0	4 1 0	4 1 0	4 6 6	4 3 9	2 41 0	4 1 0	4 0 0	4 1 0	4 1 0
64	2 41 0	4 1 5	4 1 5	4 7 3	4 4 6	2 42 0	4 1 5	4 0 5	4 1 5	4 1 5
65	2 42 0	4 2 0	4 2 0	4 8 0	4 5 3	2 43 0	4 2 0	4 1 0	4 2 0	4 2 0
66	2 43 0	4 2 5	4 2 5	4 8 7	4 6 0	2 44 0	4 2 5	4 1 5	4 2 5	4 2 5
67	2 44 0	4 3 0	4 3 0	4 9 4	4 6 7	2 45 0	4 3 0	4 2 0	4 3 0	4 3 0
68	2 45 0	4 3 5	4 3 5	5 0 1	4 7 4	2 46 0	4 3 5	4 2 5	4 3 5	4 3 5
69	2 46 0	4 4 0	4 4 0	5 0 8	4 8 1	2 47 0	4 4 0	4 3 0	4 4 0	4 4 0
70	2 47 0	4 4 5	4 4 5	5 1 5	4 8 8	2 48 0	4 4 5	4 3 5	4 4 5	4 4 5
71	2 48 0	4 5 0	4 5 0	5 2 2	4 9 5	2 49 0	4 5 0	4 4 0	4 5 0	4 5 0
72	2 49 0	4 5 5	4 5 5	5 2 9	5 0 2	2 50 0	4 5 5	4 4 5	4 5 5	4 5 5
73	2 50 0	4 6 0	4 6 0	5 3 6	5 0 9	2 51 0	4 6 0	4 5 0	4 6 0	4 6 0
74	2 51 0	4 6 5	4 6 5	5 4 3	5 1 6	2 52 0	4 6 5	4 5 5	4 6 5	4 6 5
75	2 52 0	4 7 0	4 7 0	5 5 0	5 2 3	2 53 0	4 7 0	4 6 0	4 7 0	4 7 0
76	2 53 0	4 7 5	4 7 5	5 5 7	5 3 0	2 54 0	4 7 5	4 6 5	4 7 5	4 7 5
77	2 54 0	4 8 0	4 8 0	5 6 4	5 3 7	2 55 0	4 8 0	4 7 0	4 8 0	4 8 0
78	2 55 0	4 8 5	4 8 5	5 7 1	5 4 4	2 56 0	4 8 5	4 7 5	4 8 5	4 8 5
79	2 56 0	4 9 0	4 9 0	5 7 8	5 5 1	2 57 0	4 9 0	4 8 0	4 9 0	4 9 0
80	2 57 0	4 9 5	4 9 5	5 8 5	5 5 8	2 58 0	4 9 5	4 8 5	4 9 5	4 9 5
81	2 58 0	5 0 0	5 0 0	5 9 2	5 6 5	2 59 0	5 0 0	4 9 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
82	2 59 0	5 0 5	5 0 5	5 9 9	5 7 2	2 60 0	5 0 5	4 9 5	5 0 5	5 0 5
83	2 60 0	5 1 0	5 1 0	6 0 6	5 7 9	2 61 0	5 1 0	5 0 0	5 1 0	5 1 0
84	2 61 0	5 1 5	5 1 5	6 1 3	5 8 6	2 62 0	5 1 5	5 0 5	5 1 5	5 1 5
85	2 62 0	5 2 0	5 2 0	6 2 0	5 9 3	2 63 0	5 2 0	5 1 0	5 2 0	5 2 0
86	2 63 0	5 2 5	5 2 5	6 2 7	6 0 0	2 64 0	5 2 5	5 1 5	5 2 5	5 2 5
87	2 64 0	5 3 0	5 3 0	6 3 4	6 0 7	2 65 0	5 3 0	5 2 0	5 3 0	5 3 0
88	2 65 0	5 3 5	5 3 5	6 4 1	6 1 4	2 66 0	5 3 5	5 2 5	5 3 5	5 3 5
89	2 66 0	5 4 0	5 4 0	6 4 8	6 2 1	2 67 0	5 4 0	5 3 0	5 4 0	5 4 0
90	2 67 0	5 4 5	5 4 5	6 5 5	6 2 8	2 68 0	5 4 5	5 3 5	5 4 5	5 4 5
91	2 68 0	5 5 0	5 5 0	6 6 2	6 3 5	2 69 0	5 5 0	5 4 0	5 5 0	5 5 0
92	2 69 0	5 5 5	5 5 5	6 6 9	6 4 2	2 70 0	5 5 5	5 4 5	5 5 5	5 5 5
93	2 70 0	5 6 0	5 6 0	6 7 6	6 4 9	2 71 0	5 6 0	5 5 0	5 6 0	5 6 0
94	2 71 0	5 6 5	5 6 5	6 8 3	6 5 6	2 72 0	5 6 5	5 5 5	5 6 5	5 6 5
95	2 72 0	5 7 0	5 7 0	6 9 0	6 6 3	2 73 0	5 7 0	5 6 0	5 7 0	5 7 0
96	2 73 0	5 7 5	5 7 5	6 9 7	6 7 0	2 74 0	5 7 5	5 6 5	5 7 5	5 7 5
97	2 74 0	5 8 0	5 8 0	7 0 4	6 7 7	2 75 0	5 8 0	5 7 0	5 8 0	5 8 0
98	2 75 0	5 8 5	5 8 5	7 1 1	6 8 4	2 76 0	5 8 5	5 7 5	5 8 5	5 8 5
99	2 76 0	5 9 0	5 9 0	7 1 8	6 9 1	2 77 0	5 9 0	5 8 0	5 9 0	5 9 0
100	2 77 0	5 9 5	5 9 5	7 2 5	6 9 8	2 78 0	5 9 5	5 8 5	5 9 5	5 9 5

The following offices require the same premiums as the Equitable; viz. Atlas, Globe, Imperial, Law Life, London Life Association (for persons not members), Palladium, Provident, Rock, Royal Exchange, Union, Westminster.

The following are the premiums demanded by the Sun Life Insurance Society, for insurances on joint lives and survivorships.

Joint Lives.—A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid as soon as either of the Two shall drop.

Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.	Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.	Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.
10	10	£ s. d. 3 7 5	20	35	£ s. d. 3 17 3	35	45	£ s. d. 5 7 5
	15	2 11 0		40	4 6 1		50	6 1 11
	20	2 14 6		45	4 16 7		55	7 0 5
	25	2 19 4		50	5 11 7		60	8 0 6
	30	3 5 3		55	6 16 8			
	35	3 11 11		60	8 11 1	40	40	6 8 8
	40	4 1 1					45	6 13 10
	45	4 11 5	25	25	3 9 6		50	6 7 9
	50	5 7 2		30	3 14 10		55	7 1

Survivorship.—A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid at the Decease of One Person, A., provided another, B., be then living.

Age of A, the Life to be assured.	Age of B, the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.	Age of A, the Life to be assured.	Age of B, the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.	Age of A, the Life to be assured.	Age of B, the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.
10	10	£ 1 3 9	30	10	£ 2 2 5	50	10	£ 4 7 2
	20	1 4 7		20	2 2 1		20	4 7 0
	30	1 9 10		30	1 19 11		30	4 3 3
	40	1 1 0		40	1 18 6		40	4 1 7
	50	1 0 0		50	1 15 0		50	3 12 6
	60	0 18 5		60	1 12 2		60	3 1 6
	70	0 16 11		70	1 9 10		70	2 11 4
	80	0 15 7		80	1 7 4		80	2 3 2
20	10	1 0 11	40	10	2 19 7	60	10	7 8 6
	20	1 10 0		20	2 19 6		20	7 8 5
	30	1 8 10		30	2 15 4		30	7 8 3
	40	1 6 7		40	2 12 10		40	7 4 11
	50	1 4 7		50	2 0 2		50	6 17 5
	60	1 2 8		60	2 0 6		60	6 4 5
	70	1 0 9		70	1 10 3		70	5 8 8
	80	0 19 3		80	1 13 6		80	4 14 4

From the specimens of premiums in the two preceding Tables, the reader will easily judge of the proportional premiums for any combination of two ages not inserted in them.

Instead of a gross sum payable at the decease of A. provided B. be then living, a reversionary annuity on the remainder of the life of B. after the decease of A. may be insured by the payment of an annual premium during the joint continuance of the two lives; which annual premium may be least by application at the office.

Equitable Assurance Society.—The following is the

Declaration required to be made and signed in the Office, by or on the Behalf of a Person who proposes to make an Assurance on his or her own Life.

Being desirous of becoming a member of the Society for Equitable Assurance on Lives and Survivorships, and intending to make assurance in the sum of

upon and for the continuance of my own life, and having presented and considered that I am of the age and sound mind and legal capacity, and that I am not afflicted with any disorder which tends to the shortening of life; and I do hereby agree that this declaration be the basis of the contract between the said Society and me, and that if any untrue statement is contained in this declaration, all monies which shall have been paid to the Society upon account of the assurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited. Dated the day of the year of our Lord

Form of a Proposal to be presented to a Weekly Court of Directors.

Name and profession of the life to be assured.

Place and date of birth.

Place of residence. Sum. Term.

By whom made. To give reference to two persons of good repute (one, if possible, of the medical profession), to ascertain the present and general state of health of the life to be assured.

If had the small-pox. If vaccinated. If ever ruptured.

The Clause which is referred to in the Declaration.

That every person desirous of making assurance with the Society, shall sign or execute a declaration in writing (in the presence of one or more credible witnesses, who shall attest the same), setting forth the age, state of health, profession, occupation, and other circumstances attending the person or persons whose life or lives shall be proposed to be assured; which declaration shall be the basis of the contract between the said Society and the person desiring to make assurance with them; in which declaration, if any artful, false, or fraudulent representations shall be used, and the same shall at any time thereafter be discovered, from thenceforth the same which shall have been paid to the Society on account of any assurance so fraudulently obtained, shall be forfeited to the use of the Society; and all claims to be made on that behalf shall cease, determine, and be void, to all intents and purposes whatsoever.

Parties who do not appear before the Court of Directors are required to give a reference to 3 persons for an account of the present and general state of their health.

A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Continuance of Two Joint Lives for Assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid when either of the Lives shall drop.

Age.	Age.	L. s. d.												
10	10	2 17 1	15	35	4 3 1	20	67	9 13 0	30	60	7 15 0	45	45	6 7 4
	15	3 1 1		40	4 10 4		35	4 0 10		67	9 18 1		50	6 17 9
	20	3 8 7		45	4 19 5		40	4 8 0		7	4 19 0		55	7 11 0
	25	3 9 3		50	5 11 1		45	4 10 2		J	5 5 6		60	8 0 6
	30	3 13 0		55	6 0 1		50	4 17 4		8	6 18 10		67	10 11 1
	35	3 19 6		60	7 0 0		55	5 6 2		20	6 2 0		70	7 7 6
	40	4 6 10		67	9 9 5		60	5 17 10		55	6 19 9		75	8 0 3
	45	4 15 11	30	30	3 13 11		65	6 12 6		60	7 18 6		80	8 18 9
	50	5 7 10		35	3 17 5		70	7 12 5		67	10 1 3		85	10 18 10
	55	6 2 8		40	4 1 9		75	9 15 9	40	40	6 11 9	55	55	8 12 3
	60	7 2 9		45	4 7 3	30	30	4 8 11		45	6 19 9		60	9 0 0
	67	9 6 3		50	4 14 6		35	4 14 1		50	6 10 8		67	11 8 5
	70	9 9 0		55	5 3 0		40	5 0 11		55	7 4 5	60	60	10 4 9
	75	9 9 6		60	6 15 4		45	5 9 9		60	8 3 4		67	12 3 1
	80	3 13 1		65	6 10 3		50	6 1 0		67	10 5 6	67	67	13 15 8
	30	3 17 6		60	7 10 2		55	6 15 5						

An addition of 22 per cent. computed upon the premium, is charged upon military persons; and an addition of eleven per cent. on officers on half-pay, officers in the militia, fencibles, and the like levies; also on persons not having had the small-pox, or having had the gout.

Persons preferring the payment of a gross sum or single premium upon an assurance for any certain term, are chargeable in a due proportion to the annual premium for such term.

Every person making any assurance with the Society, pays 5s. in the name of entrance money; and if the sum assured exceeds 100l., the entrance money is charged after the rate of 5s. for every 100l. But if the person upon whose life an assurance is proposed, does not appear before the directors, the entrance money is charged after the rate of 1l. for every 100l.

The following are the present annuity on the con

Age.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	From
10	10	1 1
	20	1 1
	30	1 1
	40	1 1
	50	1 1
	60	1 1
	70	1 1
	80	1 1
30	10	2 2
	20	2 2
	30	2 2
	40	2 2
	50	2 2
	60	2 2
	70	2 2
	80	2 2
40	10	2 1
	20	2 1
	30	2 1
	40	2 1

It is stated by Mr. Morgan that the number of insurances in this country for the whole period of the assurance confined to the assurance for life, or for continuance, being, as proposed by the new office.

[The reader is referred to the information concerning the Lecture of the same work.]

It is to be regretted that in no country to which the activity is most rapid, and in the country where the industry and in securing so many lives.

The Massachusetts Society, which time the privilege of other companies, the Pennsylvania Company, Philadelphia, the New York Trust Company in the and Trust Company, States that has offered, tion to the value of the in several of the London of the insured. Calculat lapse of seven years, a of life.

No tables of mortality are, however, believed to be in the duration of life in the Scotland. Hence all the English tables, founded

The American policy on the northern states, stipulating for naval service, or in the They are also declared to be lakes; or if he pass

INSURANCE (LIFE).

The following are the premiums demanded by the Equitable Society for Insuring 100*l.*, or an equivalent annuity on the contingency of one life's surviving the other:—

Ages.			Annuity equivalent to 100 <i>l.</i> to be paid from the Death of the Life assured, during the Remainder of the other Life.			Ages.			Annuity equivalent to 100 <i>l.</i> to be paid from the Death of the Life assured, during the Remainder of the other Life.			
Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Premium.	Ages.			Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Premium.	Ages.			
			£	s.	d.				£	s.	d.	
10	10	1 8 6	5	14	6	40	50	2 12 10	9	16	6	
	20	1 9 1	6	14	10		60	2 9 4	12	14	2	
	30	1 8 3	7	14	11		70	2 5 11	18	5	6	
	40	1 7 8	9	5	6		80	2 1 10	29	19	10	
	50	1 6 11	11	13	0		50	10	4 0 11	5	1	4
	60	1 6 0	15	13	5			20	4 1 10	5	16	2
	70	1 4 11	23	13	0			30	4 0 1	6	12	2
80	1 3 4	40	10	8	40	3 17 10		7	16	9		
					50	3 13 10		4	12	8		
20	10	1 16 6	5	6	11	60	3 7 7	12	6	8		
	20	1 17 0	6	4	1	70	3 1 6	17	11	5		
	30	1 15 9	7	0	6	80	2 15 0	28	12	6		
	40	1 14 8	8	4	11	60	10	5 16 9	4	19	3	
	50	1 13 6	10	1	9		20	5 13 1	5	12	10	
	60	1 12 1	13	0	7		30	5 16 3	6	7	7	
	70	1 10 6	18	12	8		40	5 14 0	7	10	10	
80	1 8 3	30	9	6	50		5 10 7	9	8	0		
30	10	2 5 5	5	8	8	60	5 2 4	12	5	6		
	20	2 6 0	6	2	9	70	4 9 10	17	5	8		
	30	2 4 6	8	19	6	80	3 17 11	27	19	10		
	40	2 2 9	8	3	6	70	10	8 1 0	4	17	8	
	50	2 0 11	10	0	9		20	8 2 9	5	10	5	
	60	1 18 10	13	0	7		30	8 0 10	6	4	0	
	70	1 16 7	18	12	10		40	7 18 7	7	5	5	
80	1 13 9	30	9	3	50		7 15 6	9	0	6		
40	10	2 19 2	5	3	6	60	7 8 8	12	0	3		
	20	2 19 10	5	19	9	70	6 10 8	17	1	8		
	30	2 18 2	6	16	8	80	5 8 9	27	5	11		
	40	2 15 11	8	1	0							

It is stated by Mr. Morgan, in his Account of the Equitable Society already referred to, that the number of insurances in that institution for terms of years does not much exceed *one hundredth part* of those for the whole period of life; and that the business of the office at present is almost wholly confined to the assurance of persons on *their own lives*—those on the lives of *others*, whether for terms or for continuance, being, in consequence of the commission money allowed to agents and attorneys, engrossed by the new offices.—(Account of the Equitable Society, p. 53.)

The reader is referred to *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 48th, for information concerning the law of marine insurance in the United States,—and to the 50th Lecture of the same work for the law relating to life and fire insurances.

It is to be regretted that life insurance is so little practised in the United States. There is no country to which its benefits are more important. That country in which enterprise and activity is most rapidly developed and becomes characteristic of a people is precisely the country where the practice of life insurance accomplishes the most in alleviating calamity and in securing social comfort.

The Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company was incorporated in 1818; since which time the privilege of effecting insurances upon lives has been conferred on a number of other companies. Of these the principal are the Baltimore Life Insurance Company, the Pennsylvania Company and the Girard Life Insurance and Trust Company in Philadelphia, the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company and the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company in the city of New York. It may be stated that the Girard Life Insurance and Trust Company, which commenced business in 1836, is the only one in the United States that has offered, to those who make insurance for the whole of life, a bonus, or addition to the value of their policy, after the expiration of a term of years. This practice has, in several of the London offices, contributed greatly to the benefit of both the insurers and the insured. Calculations of the earnings upon life insurance are usually made after a lapse of seven years, and a proportion of the amount is added to the policies for the whole of life.

No tables of mortality of a general nature have been constructed in the United States. It is, however, believed by those who have directed their attention to the subject, that the duration of life in the northern and middle states is equal to its duration in England and Scotland. Hence all insurances for lives have in this country been computed from the English tables, founded for the most part upon the Carlisle rates of mortality.

The American policies of insurance, when they have reference to the lives of persons in the northern states, stipulate that they shall be void if the insured enter into the military or naval service, or in the event of his dying by suicide, in a duel, or by the hands of justice. They are also declared to be void if the insured should die on the high seas, or the great lakes; or if he pass beyond the settled limits of the United States, or of the British pro-

vinces to the north of them, or south of the states of Virginia and Kentucky, without the consent of the insurers being first obtained.—*Ann. Ed.*]

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES. Interest is the sum paid by the borrower of a sum of money, or of any sort of valuable produce, to the lender, for its use.

The rate of interest, supposing the security for and facility of re-possessing the principal, or sum lent, to be equal, must obviously depend on what may be made by the employment of capital in industrious undertakings, or on the rate of profit. Where profits are high, as in the United States, interest is also high; and where they are comparatively low, as in Holland and England, interest is proportionally low. In fact, the rate of interest is nothing more than the *net* profit on capital: whatever returns are obtained by the borrower, beyond the interest he has agreed to pay, really accrue to him on account of risk, trouble, or skill, or of advantages of situation and connection.

But besides fluctuations in the rate of interest caused by the varying productiveness of industry, the rate of interest on each particular loan must, of course, vary according to the supposed solvency of the borrowers, or the degree of risk supposed to be incurred by the lender, of either not recovering payment at all, or not recovering it at the stipulated term. No person of sound mind would lend on the personal security of an individual of doubtful character and solvency, and on mortgage over a valuable estate, at the same rate of interest. Wherever there is risk, it must be compensated to the lender by a higher premium or interest.

And yet, obvious as this principle may appear, all governments have interfered with the adjustment of the terms of loans; some to prohibit interest altogether, and others to fix certain rates which it should be deemed legal to charge, and illegal to exceed. The prejudice against taking interest seems to have principally originated in a mistaken view of some enactments of the Mosaic law—(see *Michaelis on the Laws of Moses*, vol. ii. pp. 327—353. Eng. ed.), and, a statement of Aristotle, to the effect that, as money did not produce money, no return could be equitably claimed by the lender! But whatever may have been the origin of this prejudice, it was formerly universal in Christendom; and is still supported by law in all Mohammedan countries. The famous reformer, Calvin, was one of the first who saw and exposed the absurdity of such notions—(see an extract from one of his epistles in *M. Cullock's Political Economy*, 2d ed. p. 510.); and the abuses caused by the prohibition, and the growing conviction of its impolicy, soon after led to its relaxation. In 1554, a statute was passed, authorizing lenders to charge 10 per cent. interest. In 1624, the legal rate was reduced to 8 per cent.; and in the reign of Queen Anne it was further reduced to 5 per cent., at which it still continues. It is enacted, by the statute (12 Ann. c. 16.) making this reduction, that “all persons who shall receive, by means of any corrupt bargain, loan, exchange, chivance, or interest of any wares, merchandise, or other thing whatever, or by any deceitful way or means, or by any covin, engine, or deceitful conveyance for the forbearing or giving day of payment, for one whole year for their money or other thing, above the sum of 5*l.* for 100*l.* for a year, shall forfeit for every such offence, the *treble* value of the monies, or other things, so lent, bargained,” &c.

It is needless to waste the reader's time by entering into any lengthened arguments to show the inexpediency and mischievous effect of such interferences. This has been done over and over again. It is plainly in no respect more desirable to limit the rate of interest, than it would be to limit the rate of insurance, or the prices of commodities. And though it were desirable, it cannot be accomplished. The real effect of all legislative enactments having such an object in view, is to increase, not diminish, the rate of interest. When the rate fixed by law is less than the market or customary rate, lenders and borrowers are obliged to resort to circuitous devices to evade the law; and as these devices are always attended with more or less trouble and risk, the rate of interest is proportionally enhanced. During the late war it was not uncommon for a person to be paying 10 or 12 per cent. for a loan, which, had there been no usury laws, he might have got for 6 or 7 per cent. Neither is it by any means uncommon, when the rate fixed by law is more than the market rate, for borrowers to be obliged to pay more than they really stipulated for. It is singular than an enactment which contradicts the most obvious principles, and has been repeatedly condemned by committees of the legislature, should still be allowed to preserve a place in the statute book.

Distinction of Simple and Compound Interest.—When a loan is made, it is usual to stipulate that the interest upon it should be regularly paid at the end of every year, half year, &c. A loan of this sort is said to be at simple interest. It is of the essence of such loan, that no part of the interest accruing upon it should be added to the principal to form a new principal; and though payment of the interest were not made when it becomes due, the lender would not be entitled to charge interest upon such unpaid interest. Thus, suppose 100*l.* were lent at simple interest at 5 per cent., payable at the end of each year; the lender would, at the end of 3 or 4 years, supposing him to have received no previous payments, be entitled to 15*l.* or 20*l.*, and no more.

Sometimes, however, money or capital is invested so that the interest is not paid at the periods when it becomes due, but is progressively added to the principal; so that at every term a new principal is formed, consisting of the original principal, and the successive accumulations of interest upon interest. Money invested in this way is said to be placed at *compound interest*.

It appears not unreason-
at the period when it is
ed by the law of Englan
could be evaded, by taking
become due. Inven
into the funds, and regul
interest; and so in any
Calculation of Interest
principal into 100 equal
Thus 5 per cent., or 5 p
the use of 200*l.*, and 2*l.*
Suppose, now, that it
interest. In this case w
the interest for 1 year;
of first dividing by 100,
expeditious, if we first

It is almost superfluous
product of the principal
Hence, to find the inte
per cent., and divide the
To find the interest of
ber of years; or, without
cent, and that product b
When the interest of f
parts of a year; that is,
Suppose that it is requ
cent.—

Principal
Rate per cent.

Interest for 1 year

The interest for 25 days is 9-45
Division by 100 is performed by 0

Many attempts have b
leg interest. The follow
Suppose it were requi
This forms what is call
as follows:—

£
100 X

Hence, to find the inter
by the number of days,
the interest required.

When the rate is 5 per
of the sum multiplied by
Five per cent. interest
100 4 per cent. interest
by 2; 2 per cent. by taki

In calculating interest
each receipt, or payment
is made up. Thus, 172*l.*
days. The amount of
Tables. The reader wil
count current computed

The 30th of June is, a
made up, and interest c
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It is of great importan
number of days from an
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By this Table may be
another. For instance,
there are 226 days. To
then look along in a par
To find the number of
January, the number o
second. Thus, to find t
from 231, the number in
under March, and the r
in leap years, one mu
For the mode of calcul
date, at simple interest,

Table for ascertaining the Number of Days from any one Day in the Year to any other Day.

Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1	32	60	91	121	152	183	213	244	274	305	335	17	48	78	107	137	168	199	229	260	290	321	351
2	33	61	92	122	153	184	214	245	275	306	336	18	49	79	108	138	169	199	230	261	291	322	352
3	34	62	93	123	154	185	215	246	276	307	337	19	50	80	109	139	170	200	231	262	292	323	353
4	35	63	94	124	155	186	216	247	277	308	338	20	51	81	110	140	171	201	232	263	293	324	354
5	36	64	95	125	156	187	217	248	278	309	339	21	52	82	111	141	172	202	233	264	294	325	355
6	37	65	96	126	157	188	218	249	279	310	340	22	53	83	112	142	173	203	234	265	295	326	356
7	38	66	97	127	158	189	219	250	280	311	341	23	54	84	113	143	174	204	235	266	296	327	357
8	39	67	98	128	159	190	220	251	281	312	342	24	55	85	114	144	175	205	236	267	297	328	358
9	40	68	99	129	160	191	221	252	282	313	343	25	56	86	115	145	176	206	237	268	298	329	359
10	41	69	100	130	161	192	222	253	283	314	344	26	57	87	116	146	177	207	238	269	299	330	360
11	42	70	101	131	162	193	223	254	284	315	345	27	58	88	117	147	178	208	239	270	300	331	361
12	43	71	102	132	163	194	224	255	285	316	346	28	59	89	118	148	179	209	240	271	301	332	362
13	44	72	103	133	164	195	225	256	286	317	347	29	60	90	119	149	180	210	241	272	302	333	363
14	45	73	104	134	165	196	226	257	287	318	348	30	61	91	120	150	181	211	242	273	303	334	364
15	46	74	105	135	166	197	227	258	288	319	349	31	62	92	121	151	182	212	243	274	304	335	365
16	47	75	106	136	167	198	228	259	289	320	350												

In counting-houses, Interest Tables are very frequently made use of. Such publications here, in consequence, become very numerous. Most of them have some peculiar recommendation; and are selected according to the object in view.

When interest, instead of being simple, is compound, the first year's or term's interest must be found, and being added to the original principal, makes the principal upon which interest is to be calculated for the second year or term; and the second year's or term's interest being added to this last principal, makes that upon which interest is to be calculated for the third year or term; and so on for any number of years.

But when the number of years is considerable, this process becomes exceedingly cumbersome and tedious, and to facilitate it Tables have been constructed, which are subjoined to this article.

The first of these Tables (No. I.) represents the amount of £1. accumulating at compound interest, at 3, 4, 4½, and five per cent. every year, from 1 year to 70 years, in pounds and decimals of a pound. Now, suppose that we wish to know how much 500l. will amount to in 7 years at 4 per cent. In the column marked 4 per cent. and opposite to 7 years, we find 1315.922l., which shows that £1. will, if invested at 4 per cent. compound interest amount to 1315.922 in 7 years; and consequently, 500l. will, in the same time and at the same rate, amount to 500 X 1315.922, or 657961.00; that is, 657, 19s. 4d.

For the same purpose of facilitating calculation, the present value of £1. due any number of years hence, not exceeding 70, at 3, 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. compound interest, is given in the subjoined Table No. II. The use of this Table is precisely similar to the foregoing. Let it, for example, be required to find the present worth of 500l. due 7 years hence, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent. Opposite to 7 years, and under 4 per cent., we find 75291.781s., the present worth of £1. due at the end of 7 years; and multiplying this sum by 500l., the product, being 37645891s., or 376, 19s. 2d., is the answer required.

ANNUITIES.

1. *Annuities certain.*—When a sum of money is to be paid yearly for a certain number of years, it is called an annuity. The annuities usually met with are either for a given number of years, which are called *annuities certain*; or they are to be paid so long as one or more individuals shall live, and are thence called *contingent annuities*.

By the amount of an annuity at any given time, is meant the sum to which it will then amount, supposing it to have been regularly improved at compound interest during the intervening period.

The present value of an annuity for any given period, is the sum of the present value of all the payments of that annuity.

Numbers III. and IV. of the subjoined Tables represent the amount and present value of an annuity of £1. reckoning compound interest at 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per cent., from 1 year to 70. They, as well as Nos. I. and II., are taken from "Tables of Interest, Discount, and Annuities, by John Smart, Gent. 4to. London, 1736." They are carried to 8 decimal places, and enjoy the highest character both here and on the Continent, for accuracy and completeness. The original work is now become very scarce.

The uses of these Tables are numerous; and they are easily applied. Suppose, for example, it were required to tell the amount of an annuity of 50l. a year for 17 years at 4 per cent. compound interest.

Opposite to 17 (Table III.) in the column of years, and under 4 per cent., is 2340751.239, being the amount of an annuity of £1. for the given time at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 117037561.95, or 1,170,375, 61s. 9d., the amount required.

Suppose now that it is required what sum one must pay down to receive an annuity of 50l. to continue for 17 years, compound interest at 4 per cent.?

Opposite to 17 years (Table IV.) and under 4 per cent. is 1216566.866, the present value of an annuity of £1. for the given time and at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 60828343.3, or 608, 283, 43s. 6d., the present value required.

When it is required to find the time which must elapse, in order that a given sum improved at a specified rate of compound interest may increase to some other given sum, divide the latter sum by the former, and look for the quotient, or the number nearest to it, in Table No. I. under the given rate per cent., and the years opposite to it are the answer.—Thus,

In what time will 500l. Divide 10872794, &c. It is opposite to 15 years.

If it had been required to find the time which would be required to divide 10872794, &c. by 500l. (but in Table No. III., &c.) it would be 15 years.

Thus, A owes 1,000l. and will the debt be extinguished in 10 years, if 1,000l. divided by 10 gives the quotient is 999265, &c.

Dr. Price (Annuities, &c.) fund was constructed, on every thing depends on same terms; and this, &c.

Let it next be required interest during a given sum by the amount of 1 answer.—Thus,

What annuity will amount to 15 years hence at 4 per cent. interest, if the annuity required.

Deferred annuities are arithmetical annuities, or an individual, &c.

The present value of a whole period, the value

What is the present value from the present time, in accordance to Table No. and that of 1l. for 7 years which multiplied by 50

Supposing the annuity worth 1,250l., from which remains 949. 18s., the value for a selection of problems, pp. 92—100.

2. *Life Annuities.*

PRINCIPLES OF, respectively, life annuity is calculated that it were required to the contingency of a person's death, as in the Carlisle Table of mortality, of 10,000 persons born at the same time, the probability that a person shall survive to the age of 70, and the present value of an annuity of 1000l. per annum, follows, that if its present value will be reduced to 500l., we had to find the present value of an annuity of 500l. we should calculate according to the Carlisle Table of mortality, the present value of the annuity.

This statement is erroneous; and this also was the case with Mr. Simpson and M. J. B. Simpson's Tables of mortality, which estimate the present value of an annuity to arise from any difference of mortality, by the use of Tables of mortality employed and careful observation, or when the average lengthened period, have been determined, who alone made on a sufficiently large scale, and until a very few years ago, the value of annuities on whose lives government had a solid foundation, the work of a few persons to work upon.

The celebrated method

What time will 533l. amount to 1,087l. 5s. 7d. at 5 per cent. compound interest?
Divide 1087-3794, &c., by 533, and the quotient will be 2-0789, &c., which under 5 per cent. in Table I. is opposite to 15 years, the time required.

If it had been required to find the time in which a given annuity, improved at a certain rate of compound interest, would have increased to some given sum, the question would have been answered by dividing, as above, the given sum by the annuity; and looking for the quotient (not in Table No. I., but) in Table No. III., under the given rate per cent., it would be found on a line with the time required.—Thus,

A owes 1,000l. and resolves to appropriate 10l. a year of his income to its discharge: in what time will the debt be extinguished, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent.?

1,000 divided by 10 gives 100, the number in Table No. III. under 4 per cent., and nearest to this quotient is 99-5965, &c. opposite to 41 years, the required time. Had the rate of interest been 5 per cent., the debt would have been discharged in somewhat less than 37 years. This example is given by Dr. Price (*Annuities*, 6th ed. vol. II. p. 289); and on this principle the whole fabric of the sinking fund was constructed. Of the abstract truth of the principle there cannot, indeed, be a doubt. But every thing depends on the increasing sums annually produced being immediately invested on the same terms; and this, when the sum is large, and the period long, is altogether impracticable.

Let it next be required to find an annuity which, being increased at a given rate of compound interest during a given time, will amount to a specified sum: in this case we divide the specified sum by the amount of 1l. for the time and rate given, as found in Table III., and the quotient is the answer.—Thus,

What annuity will amount to 1,087l. 5s. 7d. in 15 years at 5 per cent. compound interest?
Opposite to 15 years in Table III., and under 5 per cent., is 21-5785, &c., the amount of 1l. for the given time and rate; and dividing 1087-3794, &c., by this sum, the quotient 50-387, &c., or 50l. 7s. 9d., is the annuity required.

Deferred annuities are those which do not commence till after a certain number of years; and *reversionary annuities*, such as depend upon the concurrence of some uncertain event, as the death of an individual, &c.

The present value of a deferred annuity is found by deducting, from the value of an annuity for the whole period, the value of an annuity to the term at which the reversionary annuity is to commence.—Thus,

What is the present value of an annuity of 50l. to continue for 25 years, commencing at 7 years from the present time, interest at 4 per cent.?

According to Table No. IV., the value of an annuity of 1l. for 25 years at 4 per cent. is 15-62307,995, and that of 1l. for 7 years is 6-02905,487, which being deducted from the other, leaves 9-59402,508, which multiplied by 50 gives 481l., the answer required.

Supposing the annuity, instead of being for 25 years, had been a perpetuity, it would have been worth 1,250l., from which deducting 300l. 3s., the value of an annuity for 7 years at 4 per cent., there remains 949l. 18s., the value of the reversion.

For a selection of problems that may be solved by Tables of annuities certain, see *Smart's Tables*, pp. 92-100.

2. Life Annuities.—After what has been stated in the article on **INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF)**, respecting Tables of mortality, it will be easy to see how the value of a life annuity is calculated. Supposing,—to revert to the example given before (p. 73),—that it were required to find the present value of 1l., the receipt of which is dependent on the contingency of a person, now 56 years of age, being alive 10 years hence, taking the Carlisle Table of mortality, and interest at 4 per cent.: Now, according to that Table, of 10,000 persons born together, 4,000 attain to 56, and 2,894 to 66 years of age. The probability that a person, now 56 years, will be alive 10 years hence, is consequently, $\frac{2894}{4000}$, and the present value of 1l., to be received certain 10 years hence being 0-675564l., it follows, that if its receipt be made to depend on a life 56 years of age, attaining to 66, its value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{2894 \times 0-675564}{4000} = 0-488771$, or 0s. 9½d. If, then, we had to find the present value of an annuity of 1l. secured on the life of a person now 56, we should calculate in this way the present value of each of the 48 payments, which, according to the Carlisle Table, he might receive, and their sum would, of course, be the present value of the annuity.

This statement is enough to show the principle on which all calculations of annuities depend; and this also was, in fact, the method according to which they were calculated, till Mr. Simpson and M. Euler invented a shorter and easier process, deriving from the value of an annuity at any age; that of an annuity at the next younger age. There is a considerable discrepancy in the sums at which different authors, and different insurance offices, estimate the present value of life annuities payable to persons of the same age. This does not arise from any difference in the mode of calculating the annuities, but from differences in the Tables of mortality employed. These can only be accurate when they are deduced from multiplied and careful observations made, during a long series of years, on a large body of persons; or when the average numbers of the whole population, and of the deaths at every age, for a lengthened period, have been determined with the necessary care. It is to be regretted, that governments, who alone have the means of ascertaining the rate of mortality by observations made on a sufficiently large scale, have been singularly inattentive to their duty in this respect. And until a very few years since, when Mr. Finlaison was employed to calculate Tables of the value of annuities from the ages of the nominees in public lotteries, and of individuals on whose lives government had granted annuities, all that had been done in this country to lay a solid foundation on which to construct the vast fabric of life insurance had been the work of a few private persons, who had, of course, but a limited number of observations to work upon.

The celebrated mathematician, Dr. Halley, was the first who calculated a Table of mor-

tality, which he deduced from observations made at Breslaw, in Silesia. In 1724, M. De Moivre published the first edition of his tract on *Annuities on Lives*. In order to facilitate the calculation of their values, M. De Moivre assumed the annual decrements of life to be equal; that is, he supposed that out of 86 (the utmost limit of life on his hypothesis) persons born together, one would die every year till the whole were extinct. This assumption agreed pretty well with the true values between 30 and 70 years of age, as given in Dr. Halley's Table; but was very remote from the truth in the earlier and later periods. Mr. Thomas Simpson, in his work on *Annuities and Reversions*, originally published in 1722, gave a Table of mortality deduced from the London bills, and Tables founded upon it of the values of annuities. But at the period when this Table was calculated, the mortality in London was so much higher than in the rest of the country, that the values of the annuities given in it were far too small for general use. In 1746, M. Deparcieux published, in his *Essai sur les Probabilités de la Durée de la Vie Humaine*—a work distinguished by its perspicuity and neatness.—Tables of mortality deduced from observations made on the mortuary registers of several religious houses, and on the list of the nominees in several townships. In this work, separate Tables were first constructed for males and females, and the greater longevity of the latter rendered apparent. M. Deparcieux's Tables were a very great acquisition to the science; and are decidedly superior to some that are still extensively used. Dr. Price's famous work on *Annuities*, the first edition of which was published in 1770, contributed powerfully to direct the public attention to inquiries of this sort; and was, in this respect, of very great utility. Of the more recent works, the best are those of Mr. Baily and Mr. Milne, which indeed, are both excellent. The latter, besides all that was previously known as to the history, theory, or practice of the science, contains much new and valuable matter; and to it we beg to refer such of our readers as wish to enter fully into the subject.

The Table on which Dr. Price laid the greatest stress, was calculated from the burial registers kept in the parish of All Saints in Northampton, containing little more than half the population of the town. There can be no doubt, however, as well from original defects in the construction of the Table, as from the improvement that has since taken place in the healthiness of the public, that the mortality represented in the Northampton Table is, and has long been decidedly above the average rate of mortality in England. Mr. Morgan, indeed, the late learned actuary of the Equitable Society, contended that this is not the case, and that the Society's experience shows that the Northampton Table is still remarkably accurate. But the facts Mr. Morgan disclosed in his *View of the Rise and Progress of the Equitable Society* (p. 42.), published in 1828, are quite at variance with this opinion: for he there states, that the deaths of persons insured in the Equitable Society, from 50 to 60 years of age, during the 12 years previously to 1828, were 339; whereas, according to the Northampton Table, they should have been 545! And Mr. Milne has endeavoured to show (*Art. Annuities*, new ed. of *Ency. Brit.*) that the discrepancy is really much greater.

The only other Table used to any extent in England for the calculation of life annuities, is that framed by Mr. Milne from observations made by Dr. Heysham on the rate of mortality at Carlisle. It gives a decidedly lower rate of mortality than the Northampton Table; and there are good grounds for thinking that the mortality which it represents is not very different from the actual rate throughout most parts of England; though it cannot be supposed that a Table founded on so narrow a basis should give a perfectly fair view of the average mortality of the entire kingdom.

In life insurance, the first annual premium is always paid at the commencement of the assurance, and the others at the termination of each year so long as the party assured survives. Hence, at the beginning of the assurance, the whole of the annual premiums payable for it exceed the value of an equal annuity on the life by one year's purchase. And, therefore, when the value of an assurance in present money is given, to find the equivalent annual premium during the life, the whole present value must be divided by the number of years' purchase an annuity on the life is worth, increased by 1. Thus, for an assurance of 100*l.* on a life 40 years of age, an office, calculating by the Carlisle Table of mortality, and at 4 per cent. interest, requires 53-44*l.* in present money. Now according to that Table and rate of interest, an annuity on a life just 40 years of age is worth 15-074 years' purchase, so that the equivalent annual premium is $\frac{53-44}{15-074} = 3-545*l.*$, or 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* The annual premium may, however, be derived directly from the value of an annuity on the life, without first calculating the total present value of the assurance.—(See Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, or the art. *Annuities* in the new edition of the *Ency. Britannica*.)

In order to exhibit the foundations on which Tables of life annuities and insurance have been founded in this and other countries, we have given, in No. V. of the following Tables, the rate of mortality that has been observed to take place among 1,000 children born together, or the numbers alive at the end of each year, till the whole become extinct, in England, France, Sweden, &c., according to the most celebrated authorities.* The rate of mortality

* The greater part of this Table was originally published by Dr. Hatton in his *Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *Life Annuities*. Mr. Baily inserted it with additions in his work on *Annuities*; and it

at Carlisle, represent which approach near to, of M. Deparcieux, Holland.

In order to calculate of attaining to any higher age, given in of persons alive at the

We have added, of the rate of mortality observed to take place in this country, distinguished exhibit is decidedly are the average of the in townships are uniformly consider their lives and it sets the superior

Tables VII. and VIII. Northampton and Carlisle

The next Table, *House of Commons*

of the most celebrated of life, the value from M. Deparcieux's formation on these we admit, we have given life, at every age, and life Tables; we have 2 lives differing by 5 but seldom, therefore, of solving the question are not many works one or two examples

Suppose it were received 50*l.* a year for life, instead

In Table No. XI, of 1*l.*, which being multiplied to the Northampton

The value of an annuity may be found in preceding

Some questions in suppose it is required year, falling to him at life Table?

The value of the present value of an annuity of 100*l.* deducted from 2,500*l.*

A person, aged 30, who survive him; what is the value of the annuity?

The value of an annuity of 100*l.* on a life 40 years of age is worth 15-074 years' purchase, or 125-650, or 125*l.*

For the solution of practice, recourse may other works of that date quite inconsistent

was published with the name of *Friendly Societies*

of Carlisle, represented in this Table, is less than that observed any where else: the rates which approach nearest to it are those deduced from the observations already referred to, of M. Deparcieux, and those of M. Kerneboom, on the nominees of life annuities in Holland.

In order to calculate from this Table the chance which a person of any given age has of attaining to any higher age, we have only to divide the number of persons alive at such higher age, given in that column of the Table selected to decide the question, by the number of persons alive at the given age, and the fraction resulting is the chance.

We have added, by way of supplement to this Table, Mr. Finlaison's Table (No. VI.) of the rate of mortality among 1,000 children born together, according to the decrement of life observed to take place among the nominees in government tontines and life annuities in this country, distinguishing males from females. The rate of mortality which this Table exhibits is decidedly less than that given in the Carlisle Table; but the lives in the latter are the average of the population, while those in the former are all picked. The nominees in tontines are uniformly chosen among the healthiest individuals; and none but those who consider their lives as good ever buy an annuity. Still, however, the Table is very curious; and it sets the superiority of female life in a very striking point of view.

Tables VII. and VIII. give the *expectation of life*, according to the mortality observed at Northampton and Carlisle; the former by Dr. Price, and the latter by Mr. Milne.

The next Table, No. IX., extracted from the *Second Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies*, gives a comparative view of the results of some of the most celebrated Tables of mortality, in relation to the rate of mortality, the expectation of life, the value of an annuity, &c. The coincidence between the results deduced from M. Deparcieux's Table, and that for Carlisle, is very striking. And to render the information on these subjects laid before the reader as complete as the nature of this work will admit, we have given Tables (Nos. X.—XV.) of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a single life, at every age, and at 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent, according to the Northampton and Carlisle Tables; we have also given Tables of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 equal lives, and on 2 lives differing by 5 years, at 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent, according to the same Tables. It is but seldom, therefore, that our readers will require to resort to any other work for the means of solving the questions that usually occur in practice with regard to annuities; and there are not many works in which they will find so good a collection of Tables.—We subjoin one or two examples of the mode of using the Tables of life annuities.

Suppose it were required, what ought a person, aged 45, to give, to secure an annuity of 50*l.* a year for life, interest at 4 per cent, according to the Carlisle Table?

In Table No. XI., under 4 per cent, and opposite 45, is 14-104, the value of an annuity of 1*l.*, which being multiplied by 50, gives 705-2, or 705*l.* 4*s.*, the value required. According to the Northampton Table, the annuity would only have been worth 614*l.* 3*s.*

The value of an annuity on 2 lives of the same age, or on 2 lives differing by 5 years, may be found in precisely the same way.

Some questions in *reversionary* life annuities admit of an equally easy solution. Thus, suppose it is required to find the present value of A's interest in an estate worth 100*l.* a year, falling to him at the death of B., aged 40, interest 4 per cent, according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of the perpetuity of 100*l.* a year, interest 4 per cent, is 2,500*l.*; and the value of an annuity of 100*l.* on a person aged 40, interest at 4 per cent, is 1,507*l.* 8*s.*, which deducted from 2,500*l.* leaves 992*l.* 12*s.*, the present value required.

A person, aged 30, wishes to purchase an annuity of 50*l.* for his wife, aged 25, provided she survive him; what ought he to pay for it, interest at 4 per cent, according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a life aged 30 is 16-852; from which subtracting the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 joint lives of 25 and 30, 14-339, the difference, 2-513 \times 50 = 125-650, or 125*l.* 13*s.*, the sum required.

For the solution of the more complex cases of survivorship, which do not often occur in practice, recourse may be had to the directions in Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, and other works of that description. To attempt explaining them here would lead us into details quite inconsistent with the objects of this work.

was published with the column for Carlisle added, in the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies*.

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

TABLES OF INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

Table showing the AMOUNT of £1 Improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent., at the End of every Year, from 1 to 70.

Year	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1.02500,000	1.03000,000	1.03500,000	1.04000,000	1.04500,000	1.05000,000	1.05500,000
2	1.05063,500	1.06090,000	1.07123,500	1.08160,000	1.09200,500	1.10250,000	1.11320,000
3	1.07748,000	1.09773,700	1.11817,750	1.13886,400	1.15972,500	1.18078,500	1.20208,000
4	1.10561,300	1.13550,581	1.16557,300	1.19585,850	1.22639,000	1.25720,500	1.28834,000
5	1.13514,631	1.17587,407	1.19768,631	1.23850,300	1.27056,104	1.30290,156	1.33556,000
6	1.15608,348	1.19466,320	1.23093,533	1.26331,908	1.29686,012	1.34008,544	1.38311,011
7	1.18986,576	1.23987,387	1.27337,986	1.31592,178	1.35086,183	1.40710,049	1.50383,028
8	1.21840,380	1.26077,008	1.31630,303	1.36836,303	1.42310,061	1.47445,544	1.59384,800
9	1.24336,397	1.30477,316	1.36939,733	1.43331,151	1.48006,514	1.53133,873	1.69447,598
10	1.26665,454	1.24391,636	1.41059,676	1.49094,486	1.53998,948	1.62889,463	1.79094,770
11	1.31206,006	1.38433,387	1.45096,672	1.55045,406	1.62285,305	1.71033,036	1.90890,856
12	1.34468,669	1.43076,080	1.51108,606	1.61103,323	1.73565,143	1.79565,933	2.01910,627
13	1.37851,104	1.48662,371	1.58290,602	1.66507,351	1.77316,010	1.86504,010	2.12322,626
14	1.41307,393	1.51358,973	1.61860,438	1.73167,445	1.85194,498	1.97902,160	2.26030,330
15	1.44939,817	1.55790,748	1.67334,383	1.80094,351	1.93385,344	2.07898,018	2.39635,819
16	1.48646,588	1.60470,644	1.73896,084	1.87386,135	2.02237,015	2.18637,459	2.54035,168
17	1.52181,686	1.65824,708	1.79487,545	1.94790,850	2.11337,951	2.30201,832	2.69777,470
18	1.55963,973	1.70823,306	1.85749,485	2.02331,632	2.20847,877	2.40661,923	2.84333,815
19	1.59893,019	1.75350,605	1.92320,132	2.10684,918	2.30786,031	2.50926,020	2.99239,590
20	1.63961,644	1.80611,133	1.99276,856	2.19113,314	2.41171,462	2.63230,771	3.20712,547
21	1.67958,185	1.86029,457	2.05943,147	2.27676,807	2.52024,116	2.78508,250	3.39936,300
22	1.71957,140	1.91610,341	2.13151,158	2.36991,879	2.63365,301	2.93236,078	3.60533,748
23	1.76061,068	1.97353,681	2.20611,448	2.46471,485	2.75181,633	3.07153,376	3.81974,066
24	1.80273,595	2.03276,411	2.28338,849	2.56330,417	2.87401,383	3.25009,094	4.04834,464
25	1.84594,410	2.09377,739	2.36334,408	2.66683,333	3.00043,446	3.38635,404	4.29187,078
26	1.90029,370	2.15659,137	2.44949,856	2.77346,979	3.14007,901	3.55607,260	4.54939,815
27	1.94930,008	2.21139,091	2.53166,011	2.88336,856	3.28900,956	3.73345,432	4.82234,594
28	1.99949,502	2.26792,768	2.62017,696	2.99870,332	3.43999,999	3.92012,914	5.11168,670
29	2.04940,739	2.32556,551	2.71187,595	3.11863,245	3.58403,649	4.11638,780	5.40764,309
30	2.09756,758	2.37936,347	2.80079,378	3.24336,751	3.74531,813	4.31494,386	5.74349,117
31	2.15000,677	2.43000,033	2.89503,140	3.37313,341	3.91383,745	4.53803,949	6.08610,664
32	2.20735,694	2.47508,376	2.99070,759	3.50770,975	4.08996,104	4.78484,147	6.43388,688
33	2.26935,056	2.52323,594	3.11194,323	3.64895,110	4.27403,016	5.00318,284	6.80456,688
34	2.31838,313	2.57136,330	3.23868,032	3.79431,634	4.46636,154	5.23334,797	7.21049,585
35	2.37230,519	2.61936,345	3.33359,015	3.94608,699	4.66734,781	5.41801,337	7.65068,679
36	2.42323,533	2.66927,533	3.43096,611	4.10393,255	4.87737,846	5.79181,014	8.14725,300
37	2.47394,370	2.72123,068	3.57103,543	4.26806,968	5.09688,049	6.06140,994	8.68066,712
38	2.52568,248	2.77478,348	3.66601,133	4.43981,245	5.32621,921	6.38547,789	9.15425,749
39	2.57827,448	2.82992,696	3.72337,171	4.61636,360	5.56589,908	6.70475,115	9.60330,320
40	2.63066,384	2.88603,779	3.79393,373	4.80102,063	5.81636,454	7.03998,971	10.28717,794
41	2.75810,643	2.95099,968	4.00788,981	4.92906,145	6.07810,094	7.39198,815	10.90268,101
42	2.89000,520	3.06069,589	4.21129,792	5.12978,591	6.35161,548	7.76158,743	11.45707,262
43	2.99152,008	3.16451,577	4.39700,202	5.40049,367	6.63743,818	8.14066,693	12.05045,463
44	3.06892,006	3.27145,337	4.54334,160	5.61651,500	6.93612,390	8.51715,029	12.68348,000
45	3.08790,388	3.78150,584	4.70233,855	5.84117,568	7.24824,843	8.95500,779	13.76461,063
46	3.11285,066	3.85054,372	4.86694,110	6.07482,271	7.57441,961	9.24225,818	14.50046,746
47	3.119169,713	4.01160,503	5.03738,404	6.31781,562	7.91930,649	9.60957,190	15.46591,673
48	3.27148,356	4.13235,188	5.13138,066	6.57693,394	8.27145,587	10.40136,695	16.39287,173
49	3.35397,880	4.25681,944	5.39066,459	6.88334,637	8.64367,107	10.93123,313	17.47750,403
50	3.43710,873	4.38390,603	5.68499,686	7.10666,353	9.03963,627	11.40738,978	18.42015,477
51	3.52303,644	4.51542,320	5.78030,690	7.39095,069	9.43010,490	12.00476,677	19.32536,353
52	3.61111,323	4.65068,590	6.08271,837	7.68658,671	9.83686,463	12.64260,868	20.69698,594
53	3.70290,016	4.79041,347	6.19210,526	7.99403,226	10.30773,853	13.27474,068	21.93869,244
54	3.79392,401	4.93413,485	6.40683,308	8.31381,485	10.77158,677	13.93966,611	23.25032,073
55	3.88777,303	5.08144,850	6.63114,114	8.64636,698	11.25630,817	14.62563,098	24.63023,159
56	3.98590,336	5.23401,303	6.86330,109	8.99222,160	11.75894,204	15.30741,946	26.12934,069
57	4.08634,317	5.39165,144	7.10538,662	9.35191,040	12.29218,903	16.13878,308	27.69710,134
58	4.18778,352	5.55340,098	7.38428,315	9.73586,688	12.84531,788	16.94287,234	29.38979,748
59	4.29247,780	5.73000,301	7.61166,308	10.11568,630	13.42333,657	17.81907,085	31.19046,000
60	4.39975,975	5.91601,210	7.87809,000	10.51962,741	14.02740,798	18.67018,589	32.98789,665
61	4.50975,410	6.06835,130	8.15893,409	10.94041,351	14.65864,129	19.61314,510	34.90695,230
62	4.62252,010	6.23040,173	8.43920,793	11.37809,901	15.21896,014	20.50380,845	37.06496,944
63	4.73809,333	6.43791,379	8.73458,020	11.83151,017	15.81607,375	21.63449,237	39.28866,671
64	4.85644,464	6.63105,120	9.04029,051	12.30647,617	16.43794,487	22.70466,720	41.64017,065
65	4.97745,595	6.84998,373	9.35700,088	12.79873,322	17.08700,239	23.83990,056	44.14497,167
66	5.10940,731	7.03488,528	9.68418,520	13.31068,463	17.86733,400	25.03189,550	46.79306,094
67	5.23298,739	7.24152,588	10.02313,168	13.84311,301	18.68336,403	26.28649,036	49.61019,014
68	5.36071,658	7.46330,654	10.37394,159	14.39688,518	19.53838,541	27.50766,488	52.57878,755
69	5.49473,449	7.68720,574	10.73709,624	14.97270,935	20.54066,276	28.97754,313	55.73940,960
70	5.63510,386	7.91789,191	11.12829,588	15.57161,833	21.78413,558	30.42642,553	59.07393,016

Table showing the 1 recks

Year	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.
1	0.07560,976	0.08181,440
2	0.09590,941	0.10350,941
3	0.10986,064	0.12355,429
4	0.12748,000	0.14199,867
5	0.14808,326	0.16969,807
6	0.17204,657	0.20774,657
7	0.20073,836	0.25739,807
8	0.23459,940	0.32073,836
9	0.27414,478	0.39939,807
10	0.32000,000	0.49500,000
11	0.37285,599	0.60939,807
12	0.43348,036	0.74448,036
13	0.50263,730	0.90333,730
14	0.58114,000	1.08900,000
15	0.67000,000	1.30500,000
16	0.77030,000	1.55500,000
17	0.88410,000	1.84500,000
18	1.01340,000	2.18000,000
19	1.16030,000	2.56500,000
20	1.32700,000	3.00000,000
21	1.51600,000	3.49000,000
22	1.73000,000	4.04000,000
23	1.97300,000	4.66000,000
24	2.24800,000	5.36000,000
25	2.55800,000	6.14000,000
26	2.90700,000	7.00000,000
27	3.29800,000	7.95000,000
28	3.73500,000	9.00000,000
29	4.22200,000	10.15000,000
30	4.76400,000	11.40000,000
31	5.36600,000	12.75000,000
32	6.03400,000	14.20000,000
33	6.77300,000	15.75000,000
34	7.58900,000	17.40000,000
35	8.48800,000	19.15000,000
36	9.47600,000	21.00000,000
37	10.56000,000	22.95000,000
38	11.74700,000	25.00000,000
39	13.03400,000	27.15000,000
40	14.42800,000	29.40000,000
41	15.93600,000	31.75000,000
42	17.55600,000	34.20000,000
43	19.29400,000	36.75000,000
44	21.15800,000	39.40000,000
45	23.14600,000	42.15000,000
46	25.26600,000	45.00000,000
47	27.51600,000	47.95000,000
48	29.90400,000	51.00000,000
49	32.43800,000	54.15000,000
50	35.12600,000	57.40000,000
51	37.96800,000	60.75000,000
52	40.97400,000	64.20000,000
53	44.14400,000	67.75000,000
54	47.47800,000	71.40000,000
55	50.97600,000	75.15000,000
56	54.64800,000	79.00000,000
57	58.49400,000	82.95000,000
58	62.51600,000	87.00000,000
59	66.71400,000	91.15000,000
60	71.08800,000	95.40000,000
61	75.63800,000	99.75000,000
62	80.36400,000	104.20000,000
63	85.26600,000	108.75000,000
64	90.34400,000	113.40000,000
65	95.59800,000	118.15000,000
66	101.02800,000	123.00000,000
67	106.63400,000	127.95000,000
68	112.41600,000	132.90000,000
69	118.37400,000	137.95000,000
70	124.50800,000	

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

H. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE of \$1 receivable at the End of any given Year, from 1 to 70, reckoning Compound Interest, at 2, 2½, 3, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Year	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0.97500,970	0.97077,379	0.96618,357	0.96158,846	0.95693,780	0.95228,095	0.94339,622
2	0.95181,440	0.94250,501	0.93311,070	0.92455,681	0.91573,905	0.90705,948	0.89090,614
3	0.92938,941	0.91514,165	0.90194,370	0.88990,636	0.87820,660	0.86683,538	0.84611,928
4	0.90768,004	0.88848,503	0.87144,323	0.85450,419	0.83856,134	0.82370,347	0.79920,367
5	0.88668,429	0.86280,878	0.84197,317	0.81948,711	0.80245,105	0.78558,816	0.74735,810
6	0.86630,887	0.83745,430	0.81350,084	0.78931,433	0.76999,574	0.74931,540	0.70436,034
7	0.84652,584	0.81296,151	0.78590,026	0.75991,781	0.73462,816	0.70893,133	0.65855,711
8	0.82734,657	0.78948,982	0.75811,156	0.72830,080	0.70018,519	0.67083,926	0.61421,237
9	0.80873,636	0.76541,673	0.73073,087	0.70258,674	0.67390,443	0.64460,602	0.58190,446
10	0.79068,940	0.74409,321	0.70691,881	0.67556,417	0.64592,768	0.61601,325	0.54899,478
11	0.77314,478	0.72842,196	0.68494,571	0.64958,093	0.61619,874	0.58467,990	0.51275,752
12	0.75610,550	0.71371,989	0.67178,330	0.63570,705	0.60066,366	0.56963,748	0.49206,938
13	0.73958,036	0.69985,124	0.65940,415	0.62277,409	0.58727,164	0.55635,938	0.47483,908
14	0.72358,739	0.68611,781	0.64778,179	0.61077,508	0.57639,826	0.54606,705	0.46020,090
15	0.70800,556	0.67258,185	0.63599,085	0.59826,450	0.56573,044	0.53611,710	0.44536,506
16	0.69284,408	0.65921,694	0.62470,591	0.58590,818	0.55446,359	0.52611,158	0.43084,929
17	0.67802,300	0.64601,545	0.61390,278	0.57377,322	0.54371,639	0.51699,660	0.41736,448
18	0.66354,161	0.63301,451	0.60330,114	0.56202,812	0.53320,037	0.50799,533	0.40484,929
19	0.64940,994	0.62028,608	0.59315,569	0.55074,642	0.52280,179	0.49913,306	0.39301,301
20	0.63562,704	0.60781,575	0.58250,580	0.54008,925	0.51344,366	0.49126,818	0.37910,473
21	0.62220,299	0.59558,079	0.57237,090	0.53003,380	0.50478,743	0.48404,256	0.36551,540
22	0.60912,886	0.58356,467	0.56269,350	0.52075,339	0.49700,089	0.47811,987	0.35220,510
23	0.59630,066	0.57174,794	0.55349,563	0.51247,033	0.49053,013	0.47357,131	0.33919,736
24	0.58371,740	0.56012,103	0.54470,719	0.50518,147	0.48520,347	0.46970,701	0.32647,535
25	0.57137,906	0.54868,429	0.53639,826	0.49883,767	0.48008,923	0.46614,073	0.31402,031
26	0.55928,563	0.53742,703	0.52850,884	0.49343,941	0.47599,577	0.46343,833	0.29276,795
27	0.54742,703	0.52633,978	0.52102,994	0.48889,177	0.47299,069	0.46139,304	0.28270,114
28	0.53579,326	0.51545,299	0.51394,063	0.48512,363	0.47090,347	0.46000,602	0.27376,506
29	0.52438,381	0.50476,678	0.50724,091	0.48201,508	0.46970,508	0.45944,743	0.26584,673
30	0.51319,866	0.49428,114	0.50092,179	0.47956,602	0.46940,001	0.45999,625	0.25892,014
31	0.50222,881	0.48390,603	0.49496,214	0.47775,686	0.46999,941	0.46139,947	0.25298,484
32	0.49147,426	0.47363,145	0.48934,203	0.47656,759	0.47149,901	0.46369,917	0.24703,740
33	0.48092,501	0.46345,738	0.48403,145	0.47597,822	0.47309,841	0.46609,883	0.24107,586
34	0.47058,106	0.45337,381	0.47901,040	0.47597,875	0.47479,761	0.46859,849	0.23509,711
35	0.46034,231	0.44338,074	0.47427,881	0.47656,928	0.47659,661	0.47119,711	0.22909,511
36	0.45020,876	0.43343,817	0.46971,669	0.47775,971	0.47849,541	0.47389,541	0.22307,511
37	0.44028,041	0.42354,609	0.46533,514	0.47956,004	0.48049,401	0.47669,401	0.21703,511
38	0.43045,726	0.41370,451	0.46112,414	0.48196,026	0.48259,241	0.47949,241	0.21097,511
39	0.42073,941	0.40391,341	0.45707,369	0.48496,037	0.48489,061	0.48229,061	0.20489,511
40	0.41122,686	0.39417,276	0.45317,369	0.48846,037	0.48738,841	0.48508,841	0.19879,511
41	0.40192,961	0.38448,256	0.44942,414	0.49246,026	0.49008,601	0.48788,601	0.19267,511
42	0.39284,776	0.37483,281	0.44582,414	0.49706,004	0.49298,341	0.49078,341	0.18653,511
43	0.38397,121	0.36532,356	0.44236,414	0.50226,004	0.49608,061	0.49378,061	0.18037,511
44	0.37530,006	0.35594,481	0.43904,414	0.50806,004	0.49928,741	0.49687,741	0.17419,511
45	0.36682,431	0.34669,656	0.43584,414	0.51446,004	0.50259,421	0.49997,421	0.16799,511
46	0.35853,506	0.33757,881	0.43274,414	0.52146,004	0.50600,101	0.50307,101	0.16177,511
47	0.35043,231	0.32858,156	0.42974,414	0.52906,004	0.50960,781	0.50616,781	0.15553,511
48	0.34252,606	0.31971,481	0.42684,414	0.53726,004	0.51440,461	0.51006,461	0.14927,511
49	0.33481,731	0.31097,856	0.42404,414	0.54606,004	0.51940,141	0.51416,141	0.14299,511
50	0.32730,606	0.30237,281	0.42134,414	0.55546,004	0.52460,821	0.51846,821	0.13669,511
51	0.32000,231	0.29389,756	0.41874,414	0.56546,004	0.53000,501	0.52296,501	0.13037,511
52	0.31290,706	0.28554,281	0.41624,414	0.57606,004	0.53560,181	0.52766,181	0.12403,511
53	0.30601,131	0.27731,806	0.41384,414	0.58726,004	0.54140,861	0.53246,861	0.11767,511
54	0.29932,606	0.26921,331	0.41154,414	0.59906,004	0.54740,541	0.53736,541	0.11129,511
55	0.29284,131	0.26122,856	0.40934,414	0.61146,004	0.55360,221	0.54236,221	0.10489,511
56	0.28655,706	0.25335,381	0.40724,414	0.62446,004	0.56000,901	0.54746,901	0.09847,511
57	0.28047,231	0.24558,906	0.40524,414	0.63806,004	0.56660,581	0.55266,581	0.09203,511
58	0.27459,756	0.23793,431	0.40334,414	0.65226,004	0.57340,261	0.55796,261	0.08557,511
59	0.26892,281	0.23038,956	0.40154,414	0.66706,004	0.58040,941	0.56336,941	0.07909,511
60	0.26345,806	0.22294,481	0.39984,414	0.68246,004	0.58760,621	0.56886,621	0.07259,511
61	0.25810,331	0.21560,006	0.39824,414	0.69846,004	0.59500,301	0.57446,301	0.06607,511
62	0.25285,856	0.20835,531	0.39674,414	0.71506,004	0.60260,981	0.58036,981	0.05953,511
63	0.24772,381	0.20121,056	0.39534,414	0.73226,004	0.61040,661	0.58646,661	0.05297,511
64	0.24269,906	0.19416,581	0.39404,414	0.75006,004	0.61840,341	0.59276,341	0.04639,511
65	0.23778,431	0.18722,106	0.39284,414	0.76846,004	0.62660,021	0.59926,021	0.03979,511
66	0.23297,956	0.18037,631	0.39174,414	0.78746,004	0.63500,701	0.60596,701	0.03317,511
67	0.22827,481	0.17363,156	0.39074,414	0.80706,004	0.64360,381	0.61286,381	0.02653,511
68	0.22367,006	0.16708,681	0.38984,414	0.82726,004	0.65240,061	0.61996,061	0.01987,511
69	0.21916,531	0.16074,206	0.38904,414	0.84806,004	0.66140,741	0.62726,741	0.01319,511
70	0.21476,056	0.15459,731	0.38834,414	0.86946,004	0.67060,421	0.63476,421	0.00653,511

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

III. Table showing the AMOUNT OF AN ANNUITY OF £1 per Annum, improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent. at the End of each Year, from 1 to 70.

Years.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000
2	2-0250,000	2-0300,000	2-0350,000	2-0400,000	2-0450,000	2-0500,000	2-0550,000
3	3-0750,000	3-0900,000	3-1050,000	3-1200,000	3-1350,000	3-1500,000	3-1650,000
4	4-1525,500	4-1800,700	4-2100,800	4-2400,900	4-2700,000	4-3000,100	4-3300,200
5	5-2632,525	5-3013,501	5-3404,501	5-3804,501	5-4204,501	5-4604,501	5-5004,501
6	6-3877,573	6-4360,068	6-4850,118	6-5340,168	6-5830,218	6-6320,268	6-6810,318
7	7-5474,015	7-6040,818	7-7700,818	7-8280,818	7-8860,818	7-9440,818	8-0020,818
8	8-7361,590	8-8923,605	9-0589,671	9-2255,737	9-3921,803	9-5587,869	9-7253,935
9	9-9541,980	10-1510,013	10-3084,900	10-5279,531	10-8021,423	11-0763,315	11-3505,207
10	11-3038,117	11-4637,931	11-7319,310	12-0001,719	12-2684,127	12-5366,535	12-8048,943
11	12-4834,631	12-8077,509	13-1419,164	13-4805,141	13-8191,118	14-1577,095	14-4963,072
12	13-7935,307	14-1920,956	14-6018,104	15-0250,546	15-4483,184	15-8715,822	16-2948,460
13	15-1474,179	15-4177,045	15-8136,536	16-2283,708	16-6332,830	17-0381,952	17-4431,074
14	16-5495,324	17-0637,410	17-4769,036	18-0191,118	18-4322,740	18-8453,542	19-2584,344
15	17-9137,006	18-5981,369	19-2358,080	19-6236,704	20-0145,499	20-4054,294	20-7963,089
16	19-3002,483	20-1568,130	20-7702,071	21-1843,114	21-5752,873	21-9662,632	22-3572,391
17	20-86473,045	21-70158,774	22-7061,373	23-0771,330	24-7417,050	25-1436,630	25-5455,610
18	22-38634,873	23-11443,377	24-0909,130	25-0451,308	26-8550,370	27-1933,407	27-5905,345
19	23-94600,741	25-11066,944	26-83718,050	27-07132,040	29-00356,346	30-33900,170	31-75900,170
20	25-54465,701	26-87037,449	28-77968,161	29-77807,858	31-87143,377	33-06500,150	34-78500,150
21	27-1837,405	28-67648,573	30-39047,003	31-00900,173	33-78913,660	35-92973,886	37-89973,886
22	28-86285,590	30-32678,850	32-32880,813	34-34738,073	36-80337,708	39-00581,440	43-32220,262
23	30-58447,730	32-45285,370	34-46041,347	36-01788,658	38-93702,900	41-43047,519	45-00587,759
24	32-34903,798	34-42647,023	36-66622,691	39-06260,413	41-06910,631	44-50199,887	48-01527,733
25	34-15770,308	36-45926,432	38-65985,021	41-64590,330	44-56581,014	47-72706,860	51-04511,300
26	36-01170,003	38-55304,325	41-21310,166	44-31174,463	47-57064,460	51-12492,570	54-06533,870
27	37-91300,073	40-70063,353	43-75906,044	47-08421,441	50-71123,361	54-60916,645	58-00973,566
28	39-86290,075	42-93094,254	46-30062,734	49-96758,399	53-99333,317	58-40287,977	62-08111,126
29	41-86290,077	45-11885,020	48-91079,920	52-96628,631	57-42203,316	62-52221,171	66-39793,822
30	43-90270,310	47-35411,571	51-62307,793	56-08493,770	61-07076,066	66-43884,700	70-95812,822
31	46-00077,074	50-00267,818	54-43904,776	59-32883,587	64-74228,774	70-76577,988	75-80773,730
32	48-15027,711	52-30773,829	57-33450,347	62-70146,868	68-66684,524	75-29688,700	80-89707,803
33	50-35403,245	55-07784,136	60-34131,805	66-20932,743	72-75629,028	80-06377,038	86-33116,471
34	52-61283,811	57-73017,633	63-45131,340	69-87090,833	77-03085,646	85-06696,937	91-48735,400
35	54-92820,744	60-49268,181	66-37405,161	73-65229,487	81-40661,800	90-32020,734	97-14247,967
36	57-30141,268	63-37594,427	70-07000,318	77-59831,387	85-16296,581	95-93632,271	103-12066,666
37	59-73394,304	66-37423,250	74-07829,390	81-70294,648	89-04134,487	101-62813,864	109-30811,866
38	62-22770,064	69-49441,957	78-38259,473	85-97033,093	93-18980,470	107-76934,579	116-00400,876
39	64-78297,006	72-83337,373	82-72480,604	90-49014,973	97-14644,396	114-00508,206	123-03643,443
40	67-40253,754	76-40123,973	86-50877,776	95-08511,573	101-93028,308	118-79077,428	130-70194,964
41	70-08701,737	79-06389,573	89-50923,747	99-92653,035	112-84608,760	123-97077,394	138-04708,266
42	72-83980,781	82-02319,645	92-07377,136	104-61059,780	118-94478,854	130-23171,169	145-92054,437
43	75-66090,300	85-48389,334	95-84682,923	110-01239,171	125-27040,408	142-90336,664	154-00737,274
44	78-53123,308	89-04840,911	101-23893,120	115-41267,068	131-01284,320	151-14309,556	162-78803,188
45	81-45168,106	92-71966,139	105-78187,390	121-02939,390	138-84908,510	159-70013,586	171-74311,370
46	84-43405,443	96-50145,723	110-48403,145	126-97056,774	146-09881,253	168-66616,366	180-90819,666
47	87-46785,290	100-39650,093	115-35097,323	133-04330,043	153-77283,514	178-11498,138	191-00861,309
48	90-56298,943	104-40839,508	120-38885,659	139-26790,607	161-58700,163	188-05398,829	201-56246,868
49	94-13107,108	108-54064,735	125-0184,307	145-63373,431	169-89335,790	198-42666,327	212-62840,003
50	97-48434,679	112-79068,730	130-97017,016	152-66708,368	178-03020,826	209-34798,370	224-30000,458
51	100-92145,751	117-18077,331	136-56283,709	159-77376,703	187-33566,453	220-81539,046	236-75605,886
52	104-44449,393	121-69019,651	142-36333,631	167-16471,771	196-87476,046	232-85616,328	249-98142,320
53	108-03560,039	126-34708,940	148-34594,958	174-85130,642	206-83663,408	245-49697,358	263-97830,773
54	111-73699,045	131-13749,489	154-58605,789	182-94335,988	217-14637,261	258-77399,320	278-91700,230
55	115-55029,136	136-07161,073	160-94885,060	191-15379,302	227-91793,038	272-91381,831	294-17203,837
56	119-43989,410	141-15370,831	167-58093,790	199-50553,904	239-17426,735	287-84694,021	310-49234,616
57	123-45268,070	146-38878,136	174-44533,307	207-70776,154	252-03710,060	303-71568,168	327-45108,065
58	127-51132,693	151-78003,290	181-55091,860	216-14067,500	265-32907,953	318-85144,477	344-44840,030
59	131-69911,315	157-33343,379	188-90580,065	224-78658,888	279-47520,710	335-79401,700	362-00071,769
60	135-99158,995	163-05343,680	196-81688,368	233-99008,524	294-49706,307	353-63371,763	381-32819,666
61	140-39137,070	168-94503,991	204-39407,378	242-51031,365	303-65036,100	373-20200,375	401-11587,174
62	144-90116,410	175-01336,110	212-54879,786	252-45073,516	314-18400,319	391-87604,869	421-06239,260
63	149-53630,380	181-36378,264	220-98500,070	262-93876,410	325-30928,339	419-46985,138	441-17794,340
64	154-29175,963	187-70170,669	229-72826,046	273-60190,433	336-10286,608	448-00334,306	471-43566,110
65	159-11829,297	194-33773,789	238-76267,650	284-96938,050	347-37383,066	484-79801,115	501-09820,076
66	164-06028,853	201-16274,065	248-11057,718	301-70771,173	358-71833,333	520-33701,170	531-27823,621
67	169-19669,314	208-19702,377	257-00376,338	311-07780,393	370-06886,733	556-69090,720	561-09120,333
68	174-46286,313	215-44363,145	267-49689,406	324-92091,336	381-07523,138	591-95329,736	591-09210,340
69	179-79377,071	223-90685,800	278-20068,333	341-3774,886	401-02361,679	629-55090,364	621-30010,004
70	185-28411,421	233-59426,374	288-93786,450	364-30045,851	421-86607,058	669-53851,006	661-30010,004

IV. Table showing the PAID UP OF AN ANNUITY OF £1 per Annum, improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent. at the End of each Year, from 1 to 70.

Years.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000	1-0000,000
2	1-9750,000	1-9500,000	1-9250,000	1-9000,000	1-8750,000	1-8500,000	1-8250,000
3	2-9250,000	2-8500,000	2-7750,000	2-7000,000	2-6250,000	2-5500,000	2-4750,000
4	3-8500,000	3-7250,000	3-6000,000	3-4750,000	3-3500,000	3-2250,000	3-1000,000
5	4-7500,000	4-5750,000	4-4250,000	4-2750,000	4-1250,000	3-9750,000	3-8250,000
6	5-6250,000	5-4250,000	5-2250,000	5-0250,000	4-8250,000	4-6250,000	4-4250,000
7	6-4750,000	6-3250,000	6-0750,000	5-8250,000	5-5750,000	5-3250,000	5-0750,000
8	7-3000,000	7-2000,000	6-9000,000	6-6000,000	6-3000,000	6-0000,000	5-7000,000
9	8-1000,000	8-0500,000	7-7000,000	7-3500,000	7-0000,000	6-6500,000	6-3000,000
10	8-8750,000	8-8750,000	8-4750,000	8-0750,000	7-6750,000	7-2750,000	6-8750,000
11	9-6250,000	9-6750,000	9-2250,000	8-7750,000	8-3250,000	7-8750,000	7-4250,000
12	10-3500,000	10-4250,000	9-9250,000	9-4250,000	8-9250,000	8-4250,000	7-9250,000
13	11-0500,000	11-1250,000	10-5750,000	10-0250,000	9-5250,000	9-0250,000	8-5250,000
14	11-7250,000	11-8000,000	11-2250,000	10-6750,000	10-1750,000	9-6750,000	9-1750,000
15	12-3750,000	12-4500,000	11-8250,000	11-2250,000	10-7250,000	10-2250,000	9-7250,000
16	13-0000,000	13-0500,000	12-3750,000	11-7750,000	11-2750,000	10-7750,000	10-2750,000
17	13-6000,000	13-6250,000	12-9000,000	12-3250,000	11-8250,000	11-3250,000	10-8250,000
18	14-1750,000	14-1750,000	13-4000,000	12-8750,000	12-3750,000	11-8750,000	11-3750,000
19	14-7250,000	14-7250,000	13-8750,000	13-4250,000	12-9250,000	12-4250,000	11-9250,000
20	15-2500,000	15-2500,000	14-3250,000	13-9750,000	13-4750,000	12-9750,000	12-4750,000
21	15-7500,000	15-7500,000	14-7750,000	14-5250,000	14-0250,000	13-5250,000	13-0250,000
22	16-2250,000	16-2250,000	15-2250,000	15-0750,000	14-5750,000	14-0750,000	13-5750,000
23	16-6750,000						

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

IV. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE OF AN ANNUITY OF £1 per Annum, to continue for any given Number of Years, from 1 to 70, reckoning Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Years	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0.97560970	0.97087379	0.96618357	0.96153846	0.95693780	0.95238005	0.94786923
2	1.94281940	1.91346969	1.88966427	1.86600467	1.84267775	1.81941043	1.83339307
3	2.85624356	2.82861133	2.80163098	2.77500103	2.74864325	2.72251603	2.67301195
4	3.76197491	3.71799840	3.67373091	3.62929523	3.58572570	3.54305050	3.46101561
5	4.64592849	4.57970719	4.51505337	4.45182333	4.38997674	4.32947667	4.21236378
6	5.50819536	5.41719144	5.32855308	5.24181686	5.15677245	5.07326207	4.91773432
7	6.34938060	6.23028395	6.11434398	6.00204467	5.89270094	5.78537340	5.59228144
8	7.17017137	7.01989319	6.87395553	6.73274483	6.59568607	6.46331370	6.20794381
9	7.97086553	7.78610808	7.60768651	7.43533161	7.26779049	7.10783167	6.80169297
10	8.75290393	8.53080364	8.31660523	8.11069378	7.91271818	7.72173493	7.36006705
11	9.51490871	9.25289410	9.00155103	8.76047671	8.52991692	8.30641422	7.88667457
12	10.25770560	9.95400398	9.66323433	9.38507376	9.11858078	8.86325164	8.38384393
13	10.98191497	10.63493532	10.30273648	9.98564785	9.68265242	9.39357399	8.85286336
14	11.68991317	11.29607313	10.92023027	10.56812399	10.22252639	9.89684094	9.30198393
15	12.38500286	11.93793507	11.51171089	11.11532744	10.73044373	10.37983804	9.71284586
16	13.06850226	12.56110301	12.07411661	11.63222681	11.23401503	10.83770956	10.10589550
17	13.74191773	13.16611845	12.61390588	12.12656386	11.70719143	11.27406625	10.47725068
18	14.40532633	13.75321306	13.13966173	12.60292698	12.15900160	11.69956090	10.82760347
19	15.05989194	14.32379009	13.70983741	13.13893940	12.59329359	12.09522086	11.15811648
20	15.70691228	14.87747494	14.21240330	13.59032635	13.00703645	12.46221034	11.46992181
21	16.34648857	15.41509413	14.66797420	14.02915098	13.40473388	12.82115371	11.76407661
22	16.97894894	15.93691693	15.10713483	14.45111534	13.78443470	13.16300358	12.04195171
23	17.60481048	16.44480337	15.52041047	14.85568107	14.14777459	13.48857388	12.30337397
24	18.22457583	16.93554910	15.90836769	15.24096314	14.49547837	13.79864477	12.55035752
25	18.83876849	17.41134766	16.27411459	15.60207093	14.82830806	14.09394459	12.78355135
26	19.44806114	17.87084339	16.60085398	15.93276918	15.14661145	14.37518330	13.00316018
27	20.05295377	18.32703145	16.89858450	16.23958575	15.45130383	14.64303392	13.21053413
28	20.65394640	18.76410820	17.16701884	16.50306322	15.74287351	14.89612736	13.40016428
29	21.25154901	19.18845456	17.40357670	16.79371464	16.02188353	15.14107358	13.56972103
30	21.84639350	19.60041133	17.60904541	17.09203330	16.28868634	15.37345103	13.76483118
31	22.43907721	20.00048847	17.78649356	17.36649356	16.54439093	15.59291050	13.92906599
32	23.03017996	20.38876550	17.93688547	17.62255150	16.78889096	15.80267667	14.08104368
33	23.61928271	20.76578173	18.10308018	17.87476567	17.02286207	16.00254921	14.23029331
34	24.20698546	21.13183665	18.20068423	18.11110770	17.24675790	16.19200401	14.36814114
35	24.79378821	21.48793004	18.30066109	18.33461393	17.46101340	16.37419490	14.49624336
36	25.37919096	21.83223247	18.39499361	18.50288199	17.66004039	16.54685174	14.60998703
37	25.96279371	22.16738541	18.47523542	18.64257542	17.84283350	16.71198723	14.73767313
38	26.54509646	22.49246156	18.54108736	18.76786424	18.00990223	16.86789371	14.84601916
39	27.12569921	22.80821510	18.60291097	18.88448484	18.16665572	17.01704067	14.94907468
40	27.70410196	23.11477193	18.65507334	19.02773969	18.31568413	17.15908636	15.04629667
41	28.28060471	23.41239095	18.70903181	19.16030181	18.46610940	17.29436796	15.13601501
42	28.85460746	23.70125917	18.75488381	19.28520774	18.61354076	17.42380758	15.22454331
43	29.42651021	23.98190101	18.80268870	19.37079414	18.74810209	17.54591196	15.30617394
44	29.99681296	24.25497389	18.89279103	19.48841139	18.89136306	17.66277331	15.38163202
45	30.56501571	24.52187251	18.93455096	19.60030270	19.03034742	17.77406092	15.45583308
46	31.13161846	24.77544004	18.97001813	19.68445356	19.16937074	17.88006650	15.52830390
47	31.69612121	25.01870790	18.99943760	19.74492012	19.31470394	17.98101571	15.59902392
48	32.25812396	25.25267600	19.02134493	19.81191068	19.45650653	18.07715798	15.65020661
49	32.81812671	25.47868650	19.03765449	19.84147300	19.59591813	18.16879173	15.70373327
50	33.37562946	25.69736307	19.05561787	19.88218469	19.73200078	18.25592546	15.75186063
51	33.93013221	25.90832310	19.06821430	19.91748321	19.86795003	18.33877063	15.81307607
52	34.48163496	26.11168396	19.07576454	19.94735193	19.96083102	18.41807396	15.86139252
53	35.03013771	26.30802025	19.07827493	19.97207493	20.06034466	18.49342084	15.90697407
54	35.57664046	26.49766438	19.11220510	19.99995607	20.15918149	18.56514556	15.94997554
55	36.12114321	26.68044761	19.140405323	20.02861218	20.24802057	18.63347196	15.99034396
56	36.66364596	26.85640370	19.140971327	20.01991940	20.33033404	18.69854473	16.02931412
57	37.20414871	27.0256563	19.13504760	20.00874943	20.41436054	18.76031879	16.06401596
58	37.74265146	27.18810546	19.12854281	20.00565676	20.49293698	18.81934710	16.09598017
59	38.27915421	27.34395055	19.11770091	20.00284257	20.56773303	18.87575400	16.13113336
60	38.81365696	27.49356364	19.114473413	20.00234997	20.63902094	18.92983068	16.16142367
61	39.34615971	27.63703504	19.108737698	20.00480431	20.70694119	18.98177874	16.19002613
62	39.87666246	27.77450370	19.10567049	20.00782280	20.77124367	19.02866404	16.21700579
63	40.40516521	27.90697236	19.103035796	20.00937914	20.83399309	19.07306003	16.24245549
64	40.93166796	28.03444102	19.10107398	20.00983027	20.89377319	19.11612384	16.26647008
65	41.45617071	28.15690968	19.101784016	20.01000000	20.95097913	19.15707033	16.28912373
66	41.97867346	28.27437834	19.10311000	20.01000000	21.00579103	19.20101896	16.31046313
67	42.49917621	28.38684700	19.10407000	20.01000000	21.05810000	19.23900606	16.33065390
68	43.01767896	28.49431566	19.10467000	20.01000000	21.10893000	19.27530101	16.34967349
69	43.53418171	28.59678432	19.10491000	20.01000000	21.15826000	19.30981046	16.36701050
70	44.04868446	28.69425298	19.10480000	20.01000000	21.20611000	19.34267065	16.38154367

V. Table of MORTALITY, showing the Number of Persons alive at the End of every Year, from 1 to 100 Years of Age, out of 1,000 born together, in the different Places, and according to the Authorities undermentioned.

Age.	England.			France.			Sweden.	Vienna.	Berlin.	Switzer-land.	Silesia.	Holland.
	Edinburgh, London.	Paris, Northampton.	Edinburgh, Chelsea.	Department, Amsterdam, &c.	Paris, East Population.	Department, West Population.	Wholesale Population.					
1	660	743	846	745	731	768	780	642	638	811	769	604
2	649	695	778	709	632	672	780	471	585	753	638	768
3	493	558	725	688	501	535	695	430	455	735	614	736
4	431	533	700	669	437	509	671	400	434	715	585	709
5	426	536	680	617	540	583	656	377	403	701	563	769
6	410	581	668	634	523	573	644	357	387	688	546	689
7	397	509	650	634	511	566	634	344	376	677	532	664
8	388	499	654	615	501	560	625	327	367	667	523	652
9	380	494	649	607	494	556	618	331	361	659	515	646
10	373	487	646	600	489	551	611	327	356	653	508	639
11	367	483	648	595	486	547	606	323	353	648	502	633
12	361	478	640	590	482	543	602	318	350	642	497	627
13	356	474	637	585	479	538	597	314	347	639	492	621
14	351	470	634	581	476	534	594	310	344	635	488	616
15	347	465	630	578	473	530	590	306	341	631	483	611
16	343	461	626	574	468	524	586	302	338	626	479	606
17	338	457	622	570	464	519	582	299	335	622	474	601
18	334	453	618	565	459	514	578	295	332	618	470	596
19	329	448	613	561	455	509	574	291	329	614	465	590
20	325	441	609	556	449	502	570	286	324	610	461	584
21	321	434	605	551	445	496	566	284	320	606	456	577
22	316	428	601	545	438	490	560	280	316	602	451	572
23	310	421	596	540	433	484	555	276	310	597	446	566
24	305	415	592	534	428	478	551	273	305	592	441	561
25	299	409	588	529	419	471	546	269	297	587	436	551
26	294	403	584	523	414	465	541	265	293	582	431	544
27	288	396	579	517	408	458	535	261	287	577	426	538
28	283	389	575	512	402	452	530	256	281	572	421	532
29	278	383	570	506	398	445	525	251	275	567	415	517
30	272	376	564	500	393	439	519	247	269	563	409	508
31	266	370	559	495	384	432	512	242	264	558	403	499
32	260	364	553	489	377	425	507	237	259	553	397	490
33	254	357	547	484	371	418	501	232	254	548	391	482
34	248	351	543	479	366	411	495	227	249	544	384	474
35	242	344	536	474	355	404	489	222	243	539	377	467
36	236	338	531	469	349	397	482	217	237	533	370	460
37	230	331	526	464	341	390	477	212	230	527	363	453
38	224	325	519	459	334	383	471	211	223	520	356	446
39	218	318	514	454	330	376	465	205	216	513	349	439
40	212	312	508	449	314	369	459	199	209	506	342	432
41	207	305	501	444	310	362	453	194	203	500	335	425
42	201	299	494	439	303	355	446	189	197	494	328	418
43	194	292	487	434	297	348	437	185	193	488	321	413
44	187	285	480	429	291	341	430	181	187	482	314	407
45	180	279	473	424	279	334	422	176	182	476	307	400
46	174	273	466	419	273	327	414	171	177	469	300	393
47	167	265	459	413	269	320	407	165	172	461	291	386
48	159	259	452	408	262	313	400	159	167	451	283	378
49	153	252	446	402	256	305	392	153	162	441	275	370
50	147	245	440	396	248	297	385	147	157	431	267	363
51	141	238	434	390	239	289	378	142	152	422	259	354
52	135	231	428	384	233	282	371	137	147	414	250	345
53	130	224	421	378	229	274	364	132	142	406	241	338
54	125	217	414	371	224	266	340	126	137	397	232	331
55	120	210	407	365	218	258	340	120	132	389	224	317
56	114	203	400	358	207	249	331	117	127	377	216	309
57	111	196	393	346	202	240	322	111	121	364	209	300
58	106	189	384	335	191	232	312	106	115	348	201	291
59	101	182	376	329	180	223	303	101	109	331	193	282
60	96	175	364	319	168	214	293	96	102	314	186	273
61	92	168	352	309	165	204	284	91	97	299	178	264
62	87	161	340	299	157	196	271	87	92	286	170	253
63	83	154	327	288	150	186	259	82	88	274	162	245
64	78	147	314	278	144	179	247	77	84	262	155	235
65	74	140	302	267	135	166	235	72	80	250	147	225
66	70	133	289	256	126	157	224	67	75	236	140	215
67	65	126	277	245	117	147	212	62	70	220	132	205
68	61	119	265	234	106	137	200	57	65	202	124	195
69	56	113	251	223	96	129	187	52	60	184	117	185
70	52	106	240	211	90	118	173	48	56	168	109	175
71	47	99	228	199	80	108	162	44	51	153	101	165
72	43	92	214	187	75	99	149	40	47	140	93	155
73	39	85	200	175	70	93	135	36	43	129	85	145
74	35	78	184	162	63	80	121	33	39	119	77	135
75	32	71	168	148	58	72	108	30	35	109	69	125

England.			
Age.	Edinburgh, London.	Paris, Northampton.	Edinburgh, Chelsea.
76	28	65	152
77	25	58	136
78	19	46	108
79	17	40	95
80	14	35	84
81	12	30	73
82	10	25	62
83	8	20	53
84	7	16	45
85	6	12	37
86	5	9	30
87	4	7	23
88	3	5	18
89	2	4	14
90	2	3	10
91	1	2	8
92		1	6
93		1	4
94			3
95			2
96			1
97			1
98			1
99			1
100			1

VI. Table of the PROGRESSIVE according to Mr. Finlaison's Mortality and Life Annuities

Age.	Males	Females.	Age.	Males.
0	1,000	1,000	17	860
1	981	981	18	854
2	963	967	19	846
3	940	956	20	837
4	917	945	21	827
5	897	935	22	816
6	873	926	23	804
7	846	918	24	793
8	816	908	25	782
9	783	896	26	771
10	748	883	27	761
11	711	869	28	751
12	672	855	29	742
13	631	839	30	732
14	588	821	31	723
15	543	802	32	714
16	500	776	33	705

VII. Table showing the EXP...

Age.	Expect.	Age.	Exp.
0	35.18	17	85
1	33.74	18	34
2	32.79	19	33
3	32.55	20	32
4	32.05	21	31
5	31.47	22	30
6	31.02	23	29
7	30.70	24	28
8	30.40	25	27
9	30.20	26	26
10	29.78	27	25
11	29.14	28	24
12	28.40	29	23
13	27.83	30	22
14	27.17	31	21
15	26.51	32	20
16	25.85		

Table of Mortality.—(continued.)

Age.	England.				France.			Sweden.	Vienna.	Berlin.	Switzer-land.	Geneva.	Holland.
	London.	Northampton.	Edinburgh.	Carlisle.	Departement de la Seine.	Paris.	Whole Population.	Switzerland.	Switzerland.	Mortality.	Edinburgh.	Geneva.	Whole Population.
70	86	65	102	134	47	63	96	37	32	98	61	114	
71	83	58	136	120	42	56	84	34	29	85	53	103	
72	22	52	121	106	36	48	75	31	26	71	55	92	
73	19	46	108	94	34	41	65	18	23	58	38	82	
74	17	40	95	81	31	35	56	16	20	46	32	72	
75	14	35	85	79	21	29	47	14	18	38	26	62	
76	12	30	73	69	18	24	39	12	16	30	22	53	
77	10	25	62	59	15	19	31	10	14	24	18	45	
78	8	20	53	49	12	15	24	8	12	20	15	38	
79	7	16	45	40	10	12	19	7	10	17	12	31	
80	6	12	37	32	8	9	14	6	8	14	10	25	
81	5	9	30	21	7	7	11	5	7	11	8	19	
82	4	7	23	16	5	5	8	4	5	9	7	14	
83	3	5	16	12	4	4	6	3	4	7	5	10	
84	2	4	10	8	3	3	5	2	3	5	4	7	
85	1	3	6	5	2	2	3	1	2	4	3	5	
86	1	1	4	3	1	1	2	1	1	3	2	4	
87	1	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
88	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	
89	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
90	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
91	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
92	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
93	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
94	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
95	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
96	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
97	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
98	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
99	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
100	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	

VI. Table of the PROGRESSIVE DECREMENT OF LIFE among 1,000 Infants of each Sex, born together, according to Mr. Finlaison's Observations on the Mortality of the Nominees in the Government Tontines and Life Annuities in Great Britain.

Age.	Males	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.									
0	1,000	1,000	17	860	879	34	696	748	51	552	618	68	322	443
1	981	981	18	894	893	35	687	740	52	543	608	69	305	426
2	963	967	19	846	856	36	679	732	53	531	601	70	288	413
3	940	956	20	837	848	37	670	724	54	520	593	71	270	398
4	927	945	21	837	841	38	662	718	55	508	585	72	253	377
5	927	935	22	816	834	39	653	708	56	493	576	73	235	358
6	919	926	23	804	827	40	644	700	57	482	568	74	218	339
7	912	919	24	793	820	41	636	693	58	468	559	75	202	319
8	906	912	25	782	813	42	627	685	59	454	549	76	185	298
9	901	905	26	771	805	43	619	677	60	440	539	77	171	277
10	896	903	27	761	798	44	610	669	61	426	529	78	156	255
11	891	899	28	751	791	45	602	661	62	418	509	79	141	233
12	886	893	29	742	784	46	594	654	63	399	508	80	125	210
13	881	892	30	733	777	47	586	646	64	385	496	81	110	189
14	876	887	31	723	770	48	578	638	65	370	484	82	95	168
15	872	883	32	714	763	49	570	631	66	355	471	83	81	149
16	866	876	33	705	755	50	561	623	67	339	457	84	68	132

VII. Table showing the EXPECTATION OF LIFE at every Age, according to the Observations made at Northampton.

Age.	Expect.										
0	35-18	17	25-20	33	26-72	40	18-40	65	10-88	81	4-41
1	32-74	18	34-28	34	26-30	50	17-90	66	10-48	82	4-09
2	37-79	19	33-99	35	26-66	61	17-50	67	9-96	83	3-80
3	39-85	20	33-43	36	25-16	62	17-08	68	9-50	84	3-58
4	40-88	21	32-93	37	24-64	63	16-64	69	9-05	85	3-37
5	40-84	22	32-39	38	24-12	64	16-20	70	8-60	86	3-19
6	41-07	23	31-88	39	23-60	65	15-88	71	8-17	87	3-01
7	41-08	24	31-36	40	23-08	66	15-10	72	7-74	88	2-86
8	40-79	25	30-82	41	22-56	67	14-63	73	7-33	89	2-66
9	40-36	26	30-32	42	22-04	68	14-15	74	6-92	90	2-41
10	39-78	27	29-82	43	21-54	69	13-68	75	6-54	91	2-09
11	39-14	28	29-30	44	21-03	60	13-21	76	6-18	92	1-75
12	38-40	29	28-79	45	20-52	61	12-75	77	5-89	93	1-37
13	37-83	30	28-27	46	20-02	62	12-28	78	5-48	94	1-05
14	37-17	31	27-76	47	19-51	63	11-81	79	5-11	95	0-75
15	36-51	32	27-24	48	19-00	64	11-35	80	4-75	96	0-50

VIII. Table showing the EXPECTATION OF LIFE at every Age, according to the Observations made at Carlisle.

Age.	Expect.										
0	38.73	18	43.67	26	30.33	63	18.07	70	9.19	87	3.71
1	44.08	19	43.17	27	30.84	64	18.28	71	8.65	88	3.59
2	47.55	20	41.46	28	28.90	65	17.58	72	8.16	89	3.47
3	49.83	21	40.75	29	28.95	66	16.80	73	7.72	90	3.38
4	50.78	22	40.04	40	27.61	57	16.21	74	7.33	91	3.28
5	51.25	23	39.31	41	26.97	58	15.55	75	7.01	92	3.21
6	51.17	24	38.59	42	26.34	59	14.93	76	6.69	93	3.16
7	50.80	25	37.86	43	25.71	60	14.34	77	6.40	94	3.13
8	50.24	26	37.14	44	25.09	61	13.89	78	6.12	95	3.13
9	49.57	27	36.41	45	24.46	62	13.31	79	5.83	96	3.16
10	48.85	28	35.69	46	23.82	63	12.81	80	5.51	97	3.20
11	48.04	29	35.00	47	23.17	64	12.36	81	5.21	98	3.27
12	47.27	30	34.24	48	22.50	65	11.70	82	4.92	99	3.77
13	46.51	31	33.63	49	21.81	66	11.37	83	4.66	100	3.28
14	45.75	32	33.03	50	21.11	67	10.73	84	4.39	101	1.70
15	45.00	33	32.36	61	20.39	68	10.23	85	4.13	102	1.30
16	44.27	34	31.68	62	19.68	69	9.70	86	3.90	103	0.93
17	43.57	35	31.00								

IX. Table giving a COMPARATIVE VIEW of the Results of the undermentioned Tables of Mortality, in Relation to the following Particulars.

	By Dr. Price's Table, founded on the Register of Births and Burials at Northampton.	By the First Swedish Table, as published by Dr. Price for both Sexes.	By Mr. Deparcieux's Table, founded on the Mortality in the French Towns, prior to 1745.	By Mr. Milne's Table, founded on the Mortality observed at Carlisle.	By Mr. Griffith Davies's Table, founded on the Experience of the Equitable Life Insurance Office.	By Mr. Finlaison's Table, founded on the Experience of the Government Life Annuities.	
						According to his First Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1828.	According to his Second Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1837.
	Mean of both Sexes.		Mean of both Sexes.		Mean of both Sexes.		
Of 100,000 persons aged 25, there would be alive at the age of 65	24,286	43,127	51,033	51,335	49,330	52,470	53,950
Of 100,000 persons aged 65, there would be alive at the age of 80	26,738	23,704	26,587	31,577	37,307	26,058	27,353
Expectation of life at the age of 25 years	20.85	24.56	37.17	37.86	37.43	38.35	38.52
Expectation of life at the age of 65 years	10.98	10.10	11.23	11.70	12.35	12.61	12.50
Value of an annuity on a life aged 25, interest being at 4 per cent.	£15,436	£16,630	£17,480	£17,645	£17,494	£17,534	£17,534
Value of an annuity on a life aged 65, interest being at 4 per cent.	£7,761	£7,389	£8,039	£8,307	£8,635	£8,896	£8,761
Value of a deferred annuity commencing at 65, to a life now aged 25, interest at 4 per cent.	£0-55484	£0-63648	£0-85453	£0-86823	£0-86723	£0-90078	£0-86334

Note.—In all the Tables above mentioned, it is to be observed that the mortality is deduced from an equal, or nearly equal, number of each sex; with the single exception of Mr. Davies's Table, founded on the experience of the Equitable, in which office, from the practical objects of life insurance, it is evident the male sex must have composed the vast majority of lives subjected to mortality. But as it is agreed on all hands that the duration of life among females exceeds that of males, it follows that the results of Mr. Davies's Table fall materially short of what they would have been, if the facts on which he has reasoned had comprehended an equal number of each sex. The Tables here set out, in all cases, been computed at 4 per cent., the rate allowed by government.

X. Table showing the V

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1	16-081	13-465
2	16-599	13-633
3	16-573	16-462
4	20-210	17-010
5	20-473	17-248
6	20-737	17-493
7	20-833	17-611
8	20-885	17-693
9	20-913	17-625
10	20-950	17-523
11	20-983	17-451
12	20-981	17-103
13	19-873	16-850
14	19-687	16-791
15	19-435	16-625
16	19-218	16-462
17	19-013	16-300
18	18-836	16-167
19	18-670	16-033
20	18-511	15-913
21	18-146	15-860
22	17-993	15-560
23	17-814	16-438
24	17-648	15-913
25	17-487	15-184
26	17-289	15-053
27	17-107	14-919
28	16-928	14-781
29	16-732	14-639
30	16-540	14-495

XI. Table showing the

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1	20-085	16-556
2	21-501	17-738
3	21-683	18-717
4	23-285	19-333
5	23-693	19-592
6	23-846	19-747
7	23-867	19-790
8	23-801	19-766
9	23-677	19-693
10	23-513	19-585
11	23-337	19-460
12	23-143	19-336
13	23-037	19-210
14	22-769	19-063
15	22-523	18-956
16	22-404	18-837
17	22-323	18-723
18	22-038	18-608
19	21-879	18-493
20	21-694	18-363
21	21-604	18-232
22	21-304	18-093
23	21-098	17-951
24	20-885	17-803
25	20-665	17-645
26	20-442	17-486
27	20-212	17-326
28	19-981	17-154
29	19-761	16-999
30	19-556	16-855
31	19-348	16-707
32	19-134	16-556
33	18-910	16-399
34	18-675	16-211
35	18-423	16-041

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

X. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON A SINGLE LIFE, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1	16-081	13-465	11-569	33	16-243	14-247	12-740	63	9-904	7-761	7-278
2	16-599	15-633	13-480	34	16-143	14-195	12-623	66	7-984	7-388	7-034
3	19-575	16-482	14-135	35	15-988	14-089	12-568	67	7-623	7-211	6-787
4	20-210	17-010	14-613	36	15-739	13-860	12-377	68	7-267	6-930	6-536
5	20-723	17-348	14-987	37	15-515	13-716	12-249	69	7-051	6-647	6-261
6	20-737	17-483	15-041	38	15-298	13-548	12-116	70	6-724	6-361	6-083
7	20-853	17-611	15-166	39	15-075	13-375	11-979	71	6-418	6-075	5-784
8	20-886	17-668	15-220	40	14-848	13-197	11-837	72	6-103	5-790	5-504
9	20-812	17-625	15-170	41	14-680	13-016	11-685	73	5-794	5-507	5-215
10	20-863	17-623	15-189	42	14-391	12-838	11-551	74	5-491	5-230	4-900
11	20-480	17-323	15-043	43	14-103	12-667	11-407	75	5-199	4-963	4-744
12	20-263	17-251	14-937	44	13-980	12-473	11-266	76	4-925	4-710	4-511
13	20-081	17-103	14-806	45	13-628	12-283	11-106	77	4-652	4-457	4-277
14	19-972	16-950	14-710	46	13-450	12-099	10-947	78	4-273	4-197	4-035
15	19-667	16-791	14-586	47	13-203	11-890	10-784	79	4-077	3-921	3-776
16	19-435	16-625	14-460	48	12-981	11-685	10-616	80	3-718	3-643	3-515
17	19-218	16-463	14-334	49	12-693	11-475	10-443	81	3-490	3-377	3-283
18	19-015	16-309	14-217	50	12-436	11-264	10-269	82	3-280	3-123	3-090
19	18-830	16-167	14-108	51	12-168	11-057	10-097	83	3-083	2-887	2-907
20	18-638	16-033	14-007	52	11-930	10-849	9-925	84	2-793	2-706	2-627
21	18-470	15-912	13-917	53	11-674	10-637	9-778	85	2-690	2-543	2-471
22	18-311	15-797	13-833	54	11-414	10-431	9-567	86	2-461	2-303	2-236
23	18-148	15-680	13-746	55	11-190	10-201	9-393	87	2-313	2-251	2-193
24	17-983	15-560	13-656	56	10-992	9-977	9-193	88	2-183	2-131	2-080
25	17-814	15-438	13-567	57	10-611	9-740	8-999	89	2-015	1-967	1-924
26	17-645	15-319	13-473	58	10-337	9-516	8-801	90	1-794	1-742	1-733
27	17-467	15-184	13-377	59	10-058	9-280	8-560	91	1-501	1-474	1-447
28	17-289	15-053	13-278	60	9-777	9-039	8-302	92	1-190	1-171	1-163
29	17-107	14-916	13-177	61	9-493	8-793	8-131	93	0-839	0-827	0-816
30	16-928	14-781	13-072	62	9-205	8-547	7-966	94	0-536	0-530	0-524
31	16-732	14-639	12-965	63	8-920	8-291	7-743	95	0-242	0-240	0-238
32	16-540	14-495	12-854	64	8-641	8-030	7-514	96	0-000	0-000	0-000

XI. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON A SINGLE LIFE, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1	20-085	16-556	13-995	36	19-183	15-856	13-967	70	7-123	5-709	5-336
2	21-501	17-738	14-983	37	17-928	15-066	13-843	71	6-737	5-368	5-015
3	22-683	18-717	15-824	38	17-060	14-471	13-695	72	6-373	5-026	4-711
4	23-285	19-323	16-371	39	17-405	13-873	13-548	73	6-044	4-725	4-435
5	23-693	19-593	16-590	40	17-143	13-674	13-390	74	5-759	4-456	4-190
6	23-846	19-747	16-735	41	16-890	14-883	13-245	75	5-513	4-230	4-089
7	23-667	19-790	16-790	42	16-640	14-694	13-101	76	5-277	4-024	4-732
8	23-801	19-766	16-786	43	16-390	14-505	12-957	77	5-050	4-682	4-609
9	23-677	19-693	16-749	44	16-130	14-308	12-866	78	4-838	4-328	4-423
10	23-512	19-585	16-660	45	15-868	14-104	12-648	79	4-598	4-294	4-210
11	23-337	19-460	16-581	46	15-585	13-899	12-480	80	4-365	4-183	4-013
12	23-143	19-336	16-494	47	15-294	13-689	12-301	81	4-119	3-933	3-799
13	22-937	19-210	16-406	48	14-986	13-419	12-107	82	3-908	3-746	3-606
14	22-760	19-082	16-316	49	14-654	13-159	11-892	83	3-673	3-534	3-406
15	22-583	18-956	16-227	50	14-308	12-899	11-660	84	3-454	3-369	3-211
16	22-404	18-827	16-144	51	13-933	12-558	11-410	85	3-239	3-115	3-009
17	22-223	18-733	16-066	52	13-558	12-268	11-154	86	3-023	2-926	2-830
18	22-058	18-608	15-987	53	13-180	11-945	10-899	87	2-873	2-776	2-685
19	21-879	18-488	15-904	54	12-798	11-627	10-634	88	2-776	2-663	2-597
20	21-694	18-363	15-817	55	12-406	11-300	10-347	89	2-665	2-577	2-495
21	21-504	18-233	15-736	56	12-014	10-966	10-063	90	2-490	2-416	2-330
22	21-304	18-095	15-659	57	11-614	10-625	9-771	91	2-361	2-366	2-321
23	21-098	17-951	15-585	58	11-218	10-280	9-478	92	2-277	2-268	2-218
24	20-886	17-801	15-417	59	10-811	9-932	9-189	93	2-087	2-000	2-018
25	20-665	17-645	15-303	60	10-401	9-583	8-946	94	1-780	1-650	1-569
26	20-442	17-486	15-187	61	10-180	9-308	8-712	95	1-573	1-574	1-526
27	20-212	17-320	15-065	62	9-973	9-137	8-487	96	1-304	1-368	1-355
28	19-981	17-154	14-943	63	9-567	8-873	8-258	97	1-050	1-293	1-285
29	19-751	16-997	14-827	64	9-246	8-593	8-016	98	0-808	1-233	1-276
30	19-556	16-859	14-733	65	8-917	8-307	7-785	99	0-531	1-067	1-048
31	19-348	16-705	14-617	66	8-579	8-010	7-543	100	1-083	1-053	1-034
32	19-134	16-559	14-506	67	8-238	7-760	7-287	101	1-285	1-210	1-192
33	18-910	16-390	14-387	68	7-890	7-390	6-941	102	0-771	0-768	0-753
34	18-675	16-210	14-260	69	7-499	7-049	6-643	103	0-994	0-931	0-917
35	18-433	16-041	14-137								

XII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 1	9.490	8.332	7.267	33 & 33	13.079	10.902	9.919	65 & 65	5.471	5.901	6.496
2 - 2	12.789	11.107	9.703	34 - 34	11.902	10.759	9.801	66 - 66	5.321	5.682	6.259
3 - 3	14.191	12.323	10.603	35 - 35	11.723	10.612	9.680	67 - 67	5.179	5.529	6.085
4 - 4	15.181	13.185	11.581	36 - 36	11.530	10.463	9.555	68 - 68	5.047	5.377	5.948
5 - 5	15.638	13.591	11.984	37 - 37	11.351	10.307	9.427	69 - 69	4.924	5.234	5.820
6 - 6	16.069	14.005	12.358	38 - 38	11.180	10.149	9.294	70 - 70	4.801	5.087	5.702
7 - 7	16.375	14.294	12.596	39 - 39	10.964	9.966	9.158	71 - 71	4.679	4.942	5.584
8 - 8	16.510	14.390	12.721	40 - 40	10.764	9.800	9.016	72 - 72	4.561	4.801	5.471
9 - 9	16.483	14.306	12.744	41 - 41	10.585	9.654	8.875	73 - 73	4.448	4.668	5.364
10 - 10	16.339	14.177	12.669	42 - 42	10.360	9.491	8.737	74 - 74	4.341	4.534	5.261
11 - 11	16.143	14.133	12.546	43 - 43	10.175	9.326	8.599	75 - 75	4.241	4.411	5.167
12 - 12	15.920	13.986	12.411	44 - 44	9.977	9.161	8.457	76 - 76	4.146	4.296	5.079
13 - 13	15.702	13.780	12.264	45 - 45	9.776	8.990	8.319	77 - 77	4.057	4.181	4.994
14 - 14	15.470	13.604	12.118	46 - 46	9.571	8.813	8.168	78 - 78	3.974	4.099	4.914
15 - 15	15.229	13.411	11.960	47 - 47	9.362	8.637	8.008	79 - 79	3.897	3.971	4.837
16 - 16	14.979	13.212	11.793	48 - 48	9.149	8.457	7.849	80 - 80	3.826	3.882	4.763
17 - 17	14.737	13.019	11.630	49 - 49	8.930	8.266	7.666	81 - 81	3.761	3.809	4.691
18 - 18	14.516	12.841	11.463	50 - 50	8.714	8.066	7.522	82 - 82	3.701	3.751	4.621
19 - 19	14.316	12.679	11.351	51 - 51	8.507	7.900	7.386	83 - 83	3.646	3.701	4.561
20 - 20	14.133	12.535	11.233	52 - 52	8.304	7.723	7.251	84 - 84	3.596	3.651	4.501
21 - 21	13.974	12.409	11.131	53 - 53	8.106	7.544	7.099	85 - 85	3.551	3.601	4.451
22 - 22	13.830	12.293	11.042	54 - 54	7.911	7.369	6.967	86 - 86	3.511	3.561	4.401
23 - 23	13.663	12.179	10.951	55 - 55	7.721	7.197	6.835	87 - 87	3.471	3.521	4.351
24 - 24	13.524	12.063	10.858	56 - 56	7.536	7.030	6.711	88 - 88	3.431	3.481	4.301
25 - 25	13.383	11.944	10.764	57 - 57	7.356	6.865	6.594	89 - 89	3.391	3.441	4.251
26 - 26	13.230	11.822	10.667	58 - 58	7.181	6.704	6.484	90 - 90	3.351	3.391	4.201
27 - 27	13.074	11.699	10.567	59 - 59	7.011	6.546	6.381	91 - 91	3.311	3.341	4.151
28 - 28	12.915	11.572	10.466	60 - 60	6.846	6.391	6.285	92 - 92	3.271	3.291	4.101
29 - 29	12.754	11.445	10.363	61 - 61	6.686	6.239	6.192	93 - 93	3.231	3.241	4.051
30 - 30	12.590	11.313	10.255	62 - 62	6.531	6.091	6.104	94 - 94	3.191	3.191	4.001
31 - 31	12.422	11.179	10.146	63 - 63	6.381	5.947	6.021	95 - 95	3.151	3.151	3.951
32 - 32	12.232	11.042	10.034	64 - 64	6.236	5.807	5.941	96 - 96	3.111	3.111	3.901

XIII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 1	14.079	11.994	10.909	36 & 36	14.477	13.010	11.937	70 & 70	4.556	4.367	4.191
2 - 2	16.155	13.671	11.763	37 - 37	14.231	12.734	11.670	71 - 71	4.317	4.030	3.868
3 - 3	18.030	15.260	13.162	38 - 38	13.961	12.525	11.509	72 - 72	4.094	3.755	3.615
4 - 4	19.065	16.147	13.933	39 - 39	13.737	12.323	11.344	73 - 73	3.881	3.477	3.371
5 - 5	19.815	16.801	14.507	40 - 40	13.481	12.125	11.164	74 - 74	3.681	3.209	3.165
6 - 6	20.156	17.119	14.789	41 - 41	13.254	11.945	10.939	75 - 75	3.491	2.919	2.915
7 - 7	20.280	17.242	14.917	42 - 42	13.036	11.775	10.701	76 - 76	3.306	2.666	2.679
8 - 8	20.261	17.231	14.943	43 - 43	12.823	11.602	10.566	77 - 77	3.127	2.533	2.544
9 - 9	20.149	17.179	14.868	44 - 44	12.600	11.428	10.423	78 - 78	2.954	2.366	2.371
10 - 10	19.993	17.049	14.803	45 - 45	12.371	11.243	10.278	79 - 79	2.810	2.233	2.240
11 - 11	19.745	16.901	14.684	46 - 46	12.138	11.047	10.119	80 - 80	2.689	2.090	2.094
12 - 12	19.526	16.737	14.568	47 - 47	11.870	10.837	9.947	81 - 81	2.581	1.992	1.992
13 - 13	19.337	16.569	14.450	48 - 48	11.591	10.607	9.756	82 - 82	2.481	1.909	1.907
14 - 14	19.115	16.423	14.331	49 - 49	11.279	10.345	9.533	83 - 83	2.391	1.829	1.828
15 - 15	18.908	16.279	14.215	50 - 50	10.943	10.059	9.291	84 - 84	2.311	1.751	1.741
16 - 16	18.719	16.134	14.113	51 - 51	10.579	9.759	9.023	85 - 85	2.231	1.671	1.663
17 - 17	18.549	16.007	14.018	52 - 52	10.213	9.434	8.751	86 - 86	2.159	1.591	1.584
18 - 18	18.395	15.880	13.925	53 - 53	9.849	9.117	8.474	87 - 87	2.091	1.511	1.501
19 - 19	18.183	15.748	13.837	54 - 54	9.480	8.796	8.193	88 - 88	2.021	1.431	1.421
20 - 20	17.993	15.610	13.734	55 - 55	9.103	8.463	7.900	89 - 89	1.946	1.353	1.349
21 - 21	17.797	15.466	13.618	56 - 56	8.721	8.123	7.600	90 - 90	1.868	1.266	1.264
22 - 22	17.588	15.310	13.497	57 - 57	8.334	7.783	7.293	91 - 91	1.781	1.171	1.173
23 - 23	17.373	15.148	13.373	58 - 58	7.954	7.444	6.983	92 - 92	1.691	1.081	1.077
24 - 24	17.148	14.978	13.240	59 - 59	7.565	7.131	6.705	93 - 93	1.591	1.001	1.001
25 - 25	16.910	14.800	13.101	60 - 60	7.169	6.834	6.456	94 - 94	1.501	0.921	0.921
26 - 26	16.661	14.620	12.960	61 - 61	6.774	6.530	6.157	95 - 95	1.401	0.831	0.831
27 - 27	16.427	14.431	12.811	62 - 62	6.384	6.227	5.857	96 - 96	1.301	0.741	0.741
28 - 28	16.196	14.244	12.663	63 - 63	6.003	5.928	5.573	97 - 97	1.201	0.651	0.651
29 - 29	15.976	14.073	12.530	64 - 64	5.630	5.624	5.269	98 - 98	1.101	0.561	0.561
30 - 30	15.784	13.900	12.419	65 - 65	5.265	5.328	4.934	99 - 99	1.001	0.471	0.471
31 - 31	15.591	13.734	12.306	66 - 66	4.900	5.000	4.600	100 - 100	0.901	0.371	0.371
32 - 32	15.399	13.583	12.191	67 - 67	4.546	4.683	4.283	101 - 101	0.801	0.281	0.281
33 - 33	15.190	13.469	12.061	68 - 68	4.194	4.373	3.973	102 - 102	0.701	0.191	0.191
34 - 34	14.954	13.304	11.920	69 - 69	3.847	4.066	3.666	103 - 103	0.601	0.101	0.101
35 - 35	14.720	13.111	11.780								

XIV. Table showing the VA DIFFERENCE OF AGE

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1 & 0	12.346	10.741
2 - 7	14.461	12.581
3 - 8	15.200	13.919
4 - 9	15.803	13.775
5 - 10	15.974	13.933
6 - 11	16.119	14.068
7 - 12	16.137	14.111
8 - 13	16.089	14.089
9 - 14	16.057	13.992
10 - 15	16.022	13.841
11 - 16	16.038	13.664
12 - 17	16.038	13.480
13 - 18	16.056	13.303
14 - 19	16.070	13.130
15 - 20	16.060	12.961
16 - 21	16.025	12.806
17 - 22	16.022	12.650
18 - 23	16.006	12.501
19 - 24	16.006	12.361
20 - 25	16.011	12.229
21 - 26	16.011	12.103
22 - 27	16.011	11.987
23 - 28	16.011	11.866
24 - 29	16.011	11.743
25 - 30	16.011	11.618
26 - 31	16.011	11.499
27 - 32	16.011	11.359
28 - 33	16.011	11.223
29 - 34	16.011	11.086
30 - 35	16.011	10.948
31 - 36	16.011	10.803

XV. Table showing the V DIFFERENCE OF

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1 & 0	16.623	14.869
2 - 7	18.077	15.341
3 - 8	19.100	16.214
4 - 9	19.584	16.644
5 - 10	19.874	16.913
6 - 11	19.935	16.969
7 - 12	19.889	16.975
8 - 13	19.771	16.900
9 - 14	19.603	16.755
10 - 15	19.410	16.643
11 - 16	19.206	16.525
12 - 17	19.014	16.404
13 - 18	18.890	16.213
14 - 19	18.622	16.068
15 - 20	18.423	15.923
16 - 21	18.280	15.781
17 - 22	18.096	15.639
18 - 23	17.838	15.443
19 - 24	17.633	15.241
20 - 25	17.481	15.089
21 - 26	17.204	14.919
22 - 27	16.917	14.740
23 - 28	16.747	14.600
24 - 29	16.594	14.506
25 - 30	16.311	14.330
26 - 31	16.000	14.170
27 - 32	15.757	14.004
28 - 33	15.648	13.836
29 - 34	15.484	13.655
30 - 35	15.209	13.489
31 - 36	14.980	13.338
32 - 37	14.764	13.184
33 - 38	14.531	13.000

The Northampton Table guide for the Insurance to them in this respect. And yet, singular terms that they insured, obviously lose by the force of the Northampton Table. A glance at the table on entirely false premises, (mathematical, this is) the loss there arising appear a large sum to the force of no less than 10 per cent.

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

IV. Table showing the VALUE of AN ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE of AGE is FIVE YEARS, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 6	19-246	10-741	9-479	32 & 37	11-775	10-659	9-716	62 & 67	5-503	5-285	4-786
1 & 7	14-461	11-581	11-100	33-38	11-591	10-650	9-591	63-68	5-265	5-017	4-786
1 & 8	15-300	13-319	11-755	34-39	11-404	10-354	9-463	64-69	5-025	4-798	4-585
1 & 9	15-809	13-775	13-165	35-40	11-213	10-196	9-331	65-70	4-782	4-573	4-278
1 & 10	15-974	13-933	13-215	36-41	11-021	10-037	9-198	66-71	4-540	4-349	4-100
1 & 11	16-110	14-008	13-447	37-42	10-828	9-877	9-062	67-72	4-308	4-124	3-960
1 & 12	16-137	14-111	13-498	38-43	10-634	9-710	8-927	68-73	4-059	3-901	3-752
1 & 13	16-089	14-039	13-492	39-44	10-437	9-550	8-787	69-74	3-825	3-683	3-547
1 & 14	15-957	13-992	13-421	40-45	10-235	9-381	8-643	70-75	3-599	3-471	3-347
1 & 15	15-792	13-841	13-302	41-46	10-033	9-210	8-497	71-76	3-366	3-270	3-159
1 & 16	15-538	13-664	13-158	42-47	9-899	9-037	8-350	72-77	3-175	3-070	2-971
1 & 17	15-208	13-460	13-009	43-48	9-823	8-862	8-200	73-78	2-963	2-869	2-780
1 & 18	15-086	13-303	11-864	44-49	9-414	8-633	8-046	74-79	2-743	2-659	2-580
1 & 19	14-970	13-130	11-723	45-50	9-304	8-503	7-891	75-80	2-526	2-448	2-381
1 & 20	14-860	13-001	11-585	46-51	8-997	8-328	7-737	76-81	2-325	2-258	2-193
1 & 21	14-437	13-799	11-453	47-52	8-790	8-147	7-582	77-82	2-121	2-077	2-013
1 & 22	14-265	13-646	11-327	48-53	8-579	7-965	7-424	78-83	1-947	1-890	1-828
1 & 23	14-082	13-500	11-209	49-54	8-366	7-780	7-262	79-84	1-792	1-751	1-750
1 & 24	13-908	13-361	11-096	50-55	8-151	7-593	7-098	80-85	1-645	1-608	1-673
1 & 25	13-741	13-220	10-989	51-56	7-910	7-409	6-936	81-86	1-510	1-478	1-447
1 & 26	13-584	13-105	10-890	52-57	7-730	7-225	6-774	82-87	1-385	1-356	1-329
1 & 27	13-433	13-007	10-796	53-58	7-518	7-039	6-609	83-88	1-284	1-259	1-235
1 & 28	13-280	11-896	10-699	54-59	7-304	6-850	6-444	84-89	1-187	1-161	1-145
1 & 29	13-124	11-742	10-600	55-60	7-088	6-659	6-272	85-90	1-074	1-054	1-038
1 & 30	12-966	11-518	10-499	56-61	6-870	6-465	6-100	86-91	0-951	0-902	0-899
1 & 31	12-805	11-359	10-398	57-62	6-651	6-270	5-925	87-92	0-755	0-738	0-734
1 & 32	12-641	11-489	10-289	58-63	6-437	6-070	5-744	88-93	0-561	0-554	0-547
1 & 33	12-474	11-225	10-181	59-64	6-201	5-867	5-561	89-94	0-377	0-373	0-369
1 & 34	12-304	11-068	10-069	60-65	5-970	5-638	5-373	90-95	0-179	0-177	0-175
1 & 35	12-131	10-948	9-964	61-66	5-737	5-447	5-180	91-96	0-000	0-000	0-000
1 & 36	11-955	10-805	9-837								

V. Table showing the VALUE of AN ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE of AGE is FIVE YEARS, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 6	10-823	14-969	13-331	34 & 39	14-200	12-773	11-508	67 & 72	4-680	4-386	4-307
1 & 7	10-967	15-341	13-258	35-40	14-048	12-561	11-354	68-73	4-297	4-123	3-961
1 & 8	10-100	16-214	14-019	36-41	13-818	12-304	11-204	69-74	4-035	4-878	3-731
1 & 9	10-584	16-644	14-403	37-42	13-579	12-200	11-056	70-75	4-804	3-661	3-589
1 & 10	10-974	16-913	14-649	38-43	13-248	12-024	10-907	71-76	3-566	3-439	3-319
1 & 11	10-935	16-969	14-721	39-44	13-107	11-833	10-753	72-77	3-253	3-237	3-127
1 & 12	10-989	16-975	14-736	40-45	12-968	11-641	10-598	73-78	3-152	3-047	2-948
1 & 13	10-971	16-900	14-689	41-46	12-830	11-450	10-444	74-79	2-952	2-857	2-767
1 & 14	10-966	16-785	14-606	42-47	12-899	11-256	10-297	75-80	2-790	2-704	2-623
1 & 15	10-410	16-643	14-500	43-48	12-139	11-053	10-131	76-81	2-619	2-540	2-467
1 & 16	10-308	16-423	14-389	44-49	11-968	10-830	9-937	77-82	2-471	2-460	2-333
1 & 17	10-014	16-254	14-284	45-50	11-580	10-591	9-737	78-83	2-318	2-255	2-194
1 & 18	10-820	16-213	14-178	46-51	11-371	10-328	9-519	79-84	2-155	2-099	2-045
1 & 19	10-623	16-068	14-069	47-52	10-955	10-063	9-298	80-85	1-992	1-913	1-895
1 & 20	10-423	15-923	13-959	48-53	10-698	9-787	9-054	81-86	1-834	1-790	1-747
1 & 21	10-330	15-781	13-853	49-54	10-384	9-499	8-790	82-87	1-704	1-664	1-620
1 & 22	10-306	15-639	13-745	50-55	9-994	9-181	8-493	83-88	1-606	1-569	1-535
1 & 23	10-338	15-493	13-636	51-56	9-506	8-855	8-248	84-89	1-496	1-464	1-432
1 & 24	10-633	15-341	13-520	52-57	9-172	8-584	7-950	85-90	1-335	1-307	1-279
1 & 25	10-421	15-188	13-398	53-58	8-797	8-194	7-637	86-91	1-225	1-200	1-182
1 & 26	10-204	15-019	13-273	54-59	8-439	7-876	7-375	87-92	1-145	1-218	1-192
1 & 27	10-917	14-846	13-137	55-60	8-098	7-574	7-106	88-93	1-172	1-245	1-219
1 & 28	10-747	14-670	13-000	56-61	7-788	7-299	6-860	89-94	1-266	1-240	1-214
1 & 29	10-524	14-500	12-867	57-62	7-480	7-025	6-615	90-95	1-217	1-191	1-167
1 & 30	10-311	14-339	12-748	58-63	7-175	6-759	6-370	91-96	1-210	1-185	1-161
1 & 31	10-997	14-176	12-615	59-64	6-875	6-462	6-127	92-97	1-230	1-203	1-181
1 & 32	10-875	14-006	12-489	60-65	6-589	6-285	5-93	93-98	1-262	1-236	1-215
1 & 33	10-648	13-832	12-344	61-66	6-323	6-088	5-768	94-99	1-234	1-212	1-191
1 & 34	10-424	13-657	12-206	62-67	6-054	5-743	5-458	95-100	1-072	1-055	1-038
1 & 35	10-309	13-481	12-078	63-68	5-779	5-493	5-230	96-101	0-861	0-839	0-828
1 & 36	10-489	13-311	11-944	64-69	5-490	5-289	4-988	97-102	0-568	0-569	0-555
1 & 37	10-764	13-145	11-806	65-70	5-193	4-936	4-737	98-103	0-254	0-252	0-249
1 & 38	10-531	12-964	11-661	66-71	4-882	4-667	4-460				

The Northampton Table (No. 7.), by under-rating the duration of life, was a very advantageous guide for the insurance offices to go by in insuring lives; but to whatever extent it might be beneficial to them in this respect, it became equally injurious when they adopted it as a guide in selling annuities. And yet, singular as it may seem, some of the insurance offices granted annuities on the same terms that they insured lives; and not perceiving that, if they gained by the latter transaction, they must obviously lose by the former. Government also continued for a lengthened period to sell annuities according to the Northampton Tables, and without making any distinction between male and female lives! A glance at the Tables of M. De Moivre ought to have satisfied them that they were proceeding on entirely false principles. But, in despite even of the admonitions of some of the most skillful mathematicians, this system was persevered in until within these few years! We understand that the loss thence arising to the public may be moderately estimated at 2,000,000. sterling. Nor will this appear a large sum to those who recollect that, supposing interest to be 4 per cent., there is a difference of no less than 91. 1s. in the value of an annuity of 50l. for life, to a person aged 45, between the Northampton and Carlisle Tables.

INVOICE, an account of goods & merchandise sent by merchants to their correspondents at home or abroad, in which the peculiar marks of each package, with other particulars, are set forth.—(See example, vol. 1. p. 207.)

IONIAN ISLANDS, the name given to the islands of Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, Cerigo, and their dependent islets. With the exception of Cerigo, which lies opposite to the south-eastern extremity of the Morea, the rest lie pretty contiguous, along the western coasts of Epirus and Greece; the most northerly point of Corfu being in lat. 39° 48' 15" N., and the most southerly point of Zante (Cape Kieri, on which there is a light-house) being in lat. 37° 38' 35" N. Kapsali, the port of Cerigo, is in lat. 36° 7' 30" N., lon. 23° E.

The area and present population of the different islands may be estimated as follows:—

Island.	Area in Square Miles, 15 to a Degree.	Population.
Corfu	10.75	59,839
Cephalonia	16.20	56,969
Zante	5.60	35,423
Santa Maura	2.20	18,100
Ithaca and Calamos	3.33	9,330
Cerigo and Cerigotto	4.50	8,550
Paxo and Antipaxo	1.90	4,953
Totals	47.12*	192,848

Soil and Climate.—These are very various—Zante is the most fruitful. It consists principally of an extensive plain, occupied by plantations of currants, and having an air of luxuriant fertility and richness. Its climate is comparatively equal and fine, but it is very subject to earthquakes. Corfu and Cephalonia are more rugged and less fruitful than Zante; and the former from its vicinity to the snowy mountains of Epirus, and the latter from the Black Mountain (the Mount Ennos of antiquity) in its interior, are exposed in winter to great and sudden variations of temperature. In January, 1833, the cold was more rigorous than usual, from damaging to a great extent the oranges and vines of these islands and those of Santa Maura. The latter is, in the hot season, exceedingly unhealthy—a consequence of the vapours arising from the marshes, and the shallow seas to the N. E. Cerigo is rocky and sterile; it is subject to continued gales, and the currents seldom permit its waters to remain unruined.

History, Government, &c.—These islands have undergone many vicissitudes. Corfu, the ancient Corcyra, was famous in antiquity for its naval power, and for the contest between it and its mother state Corinth, which eventually terminated in the Peloponnesian war. Ithaca, the kingdom of Ulysses; Cephalonia, sometimes called Dulchium, from the name of one of its cities; Zante, or Zacynthus; Santa Maura, known to the ancients by the names of Leuca or Leucadia, celebrated for its promontory, surmounted by a temple of Apollo, whence Sappho precipitated herself into the ocean; and Cerigo, or Cythera, the birth-place of Helen, and sacred to Venus;—have all acquired an immortality of renown. But, on comparing their present with their former state, we may well exclaim,—

Hec quantum hœc Niobe, Niobe distabat ab illa!

After innumerable revolutions, they fell, about 350 years ago, under the dominion of Venice. Since the downfall of that republic, they have had several protectors, or rather masters, being successively under the dominion of the Russians, the French, and the English. By the treaty of Paris, in 1815, they were formed into a sort of semi-independent state. They enjoy an internal government of their own, under the protection of Great Britain; a Lord High Commissioner, appointed by the king of England, having charge of the foreign relations, and of the internal, maritime, and sanitary police. His Majesty's commander-in-chief has the custody of the fortresses, and the disposal of the forces. It is stipulated in the treaty of Paris, that the islands may be called upon for the pay and subsistence of 2,000 men, as well as for the repair of their fortresses occupied by the British troops. The executive government is vested in a president nominated by the commissioner, and a senate of 5 members (1 for each of the larger islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, and Santa Maura, and 1 representing collectively the smaller ones of Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, by each of which he is elected to rotation). The senators are elected at the commencement of every quinquennial parliament (subject to a negative from the commissioner) from a legislative chamber of 40 members, themselves elected by the constituencies of the different islands, for 5 years. The senate and legislative assembly, together with the commissioner, are thus the supreme authority; they are, when united, termed the Parliament, and, as such, pass, amend, and repeal laws, in the mode prescribed by the constitution of 1817. Besides the general government, there is in each island a local administration, composed of a regent, named by the senate, and from 2 to 5 municipal officers elected by their fellow citizens.

The State of Society, in these islands, is far from being good, and was formerly the most depraved imaginable. The people, when they were placed under theegis of England, were at once lazy, ignorant, superstitious, cowardly, and bloodthirsty. Their vice may, we believe, be, in a great degree, ascribed to the government and religion established amongst them. The latter consisted of little more than a series of feasts and puerile observances; while the former was both weak and corrupt. The Venetians appointed to situations of power and emolument belonged mostly to noble but decayed families, and looked upon their offices merely as a means by which they might repair their shattered fortunes. Hence the grossest corruption pervaded every department. There was no crime for which impunity might not be purchased. Justice, in fact, was openly bought and sold; and suits were decided, not according to the principles of law or equity, but by the irresistible influence of faction or gold. In consequence, the islands became a prey to all the vices that afflict and degrade a corrupt and semi-barbarous society. Sandys, one of the best English travellers who ever visited the Levant, having touched at Zante in 1610, expresses himself with respect to the inhabitants as follows:—"I habite they imitate the Italians, but transcend them in their revenges, and infinitely less civil. They will threaten to kill a merchant that will not buy their commodities; and make more conscience to break a fast than to commit a murder. He is weary of his life that hath a difference with any of them, and will walke abroad after daylight. But cowardice is joined with their cruelty, who dare do nothing but souldnly upon advantage; and are ever privately armed. They are encouraged to villainies by the remissness of their laws. The labourers do go into the fields with swords and par-

* This is equal to 1001.3 English square miles of 69.15 to the degree.

... as if in an enemy
... turned out."—(p. 7. ed. 1833)
... If the Zantians did not do
... they certainly did not imper
... on sure authority, that the
... the year, though the popula
... were, were, if not quite
... were divided into fact
... determination against each
... suppress their murderous
... their selfish and crooked po
... venience that prevailed am
... aldering the state of society
... published among the islands
... Venetians attempted to the
... could be prevented,—the
... wholly unsuccessful.

The islanders did not, in
... either. They were much as
... and it has been alleged that
... which, at all events they tr
... A long series of years was
... rough change in the habit
... influence of the British gov
... has become comparatively u
... and fair dealing is beginn
... degree of information, and
... could be wished, was, at le
... with which Sir Thomas Ma
... He was opposed by every m
... way.

These accustomed
... Turkish governments, and
... plain, straightforward cour
... diminished; and it is to be
... generally diffused, will gra
... Manufactures, &c.—Thes
... villans, or peasants, spin an
... of their families. A little
... quantity of silk gros-de-Na
... and the establishments are
... in display, and very super
... Corfu; in the first part
... to the nobles residing mor
... nade industry. In Corfu
... government, still operat
... he had in neglected, while
... opportunities at the seat
... means of honourable exert
... change for the better has t

Imports of Grain, &c.—Go
... tenant paying half the prod
... tion given to the culture
... grain and cattle required fo
... and about 800,000 bushels m
... in 1856 were 178,888 mogg
... duties on the introduction
... favour of government, in o
... then also suffered to expire
... does less than 20,000. annu

Cattle.—They are a sim
... small number only of abea
... the slaughterhouse, are br
... fed by the troops in a
... that skirt it, to the shores
... Experts.—The staple ex
... The first is produced in gr
... Maura, and Cephalonia. I
... quence, partly, of the extr
... Venetians. Although the
... generally reposing for a ye
... and 3000 (see p. 107.) Dur
... sent an animated appeara
... calculated that the islands
... and that of this quantity 5
... 11.1a. per barrel. Under
... value duty, of 194 per ce
... The quality might be muc
... nally finer than in any oth
... Corfu, originally int
... thence, but principally in
... tion of which require mu
... yields a crop. In the beg
... pattered up in small hea
... sagan laid down smooth
... are liable to injury in spr
... season produces great n
... carefully picked are thro
... process may occupy a fo
... thunderstorm (no unfreq
... mentation. The fruit

time, as if in an enemy's country; bringing home their oils and wines in hogskins, the inside turned out."—(p. 7. ed. 1837.)

If the Zantians did not deteriorate during the next 3 centuries, which, indeed, was hardly possible, they certainly did not improve. But Holland, by whom they were visited in 1812, tells us that he heard of no more authority, than the number of assassinations in Zante has been more than 1 for each day of the year, though the population was only 40,000!—(Travels in the Ionian Isles, &c. 4to ed. p. 23.)
 Matters were, if not quite so bad, very little better in the other islands. In Cephalonia, the inhabitants were divided into factions, sutertaining the most implacable animosities, and waging a war of extermination against each other. A little vigour on the part of their rulers would have served to suppress their murderous contests. But this was not an object they wished to attain: on the contrary, their selfish and crooked policy made them seek to strengthen their own power by fomenting the dissensions that prevailed amongst their subjects.—(Bodin, Description des Golfs de Venise, p. 165.) Considering the state of society at home, we need not wonder that the Cephalonians, who were distinguished among the islanders for activity and enterprise, were much addicted to emigration. The Venetians attempted to check its prevalence; but, as they neglected the only means by which it could be prevented,—the establishment of security and good order at home,—their efforts were wholly unsuccessful.

The islanders did not, however, satisfy themselves with attempting to stab and prey upon each other. They were much addicted to piracy, particularly the inhabitants of Santa Maura and Cerigo; and it has been alleged that the Venetian government participated in the profits of this public robbery, which, at all events they took little pains to suppress.

A long series of wars will be required to eradicate vices so deeply rooted, and to effect that thorough change in the habits and morals of the people that is so indispensable. The power and influence of the British government has already, however, had a very decided effect: assassination has become comparatively unknown; piracy has been suppressed; and a spirit of industry, sincerity, and fair dealing is beginning to manifest itself. The present generation of nobles possess a superior degree of information, and a knowledge of the true interests of their country, which, if not all that could be wished, was, at least, unknown to their fathers. It is not easy to exaggerate the difficulties with which Sir Thomas Maitland had to struggle during the first years of the British government. He was opposed by every means that feudal rancour, corruption, and duplicity could throw in his way. Those accustomed to the treachery, shuffling, and jobbing of the Venetian and Russo-Turkish governments, and the intrigues of the French, could neither appreciate nor understand the plain, straightforward course natural to British officers. These difficulties have, however, materially diminished; and it is to be hoped that the influence of our example, and of that education now pretty generally diffused, will gradually accomplish the regeneration of the islanders.

Manufactures, &c.—These islands possess few manufactures properly so termed. The wives of the wealthy, or peasants, spin and weave a coarse kind of woollen cloth, sufficient in great part for the use of their families. A little soap is made at Corfu and Zante. The latter manufactures a considerable quantity of silk gros-de-Naples and handkerchiefs; the art of dyeing is, however, too little studied, and the establishments are on too small a scale. The peasantry, in general, are lazy, vain, delighting in display, and very superstitious. Those of Zante and Cephalonia are more industrious than the Corfiotes; in the first particular, their superior condition is probably to be ascribed, in part at least, to the nobles residing more on their estates in the country, and contributing, by their example, to stimulate industry. In Corfu, the taste for the city life, which prevailed in the time of the Venetian government, still operates to a great degree. The Corfiote proprietor resides but little in his villa; his land is neglected, while he continues in the practice of his forefathers, who preferred watching opportunities at the seat of a corrupt government, to improving their fortunes by the more legitimate means of honourable exertion and attention to their patrimony. In this respect, however, a material change for the better has taken place during the last 20 years.

Imports of Grain, &c.—Great part of the land is held under short tenures, on the *metayer system*, the tenant paying half the produce to the landlord. Owing to the nature of the soil, and the superior attention given to the culture of olives and currants, the staple products of the islands, most part of the grain and cattle required for their consumption is imported. The hard wheat of Odessa is preferred, and about 800,000 dollars may be annually sent to the Black Sea in payment. The imports of wheat in 1838 were 172,888 mogri, or about 891,434 bushels. The parliament, in March, 1833, repealed the duties on the introduction of corn; and the grain monopoly of Corfu, which had been established in favour of government, in order to provide against the possibility of a general or partial scarcity, was then also suffered to expire. These 2 sources of revenue, while they existed, did not probably produce less than 20,000*l.* annually.

Cattle.—They are similarly dependent upon Greece and Turkey for supplies of butcher's meat; a small number only of sheep and goats being bred in the islands. Oxen, whether for agriculture or the slaughterhouse, are brought from Turkey, to the annual amount of more than 90,000 dollars. The beef eaten by the troops is 6 weeks or 2 months walking down from the Danube, and the provinces that skirt it, to the shores of Epirus, where they remain in pasture until fit for the table.

Exports.—The staple exports from these islands are oil, currants, valonia, wine, soap, and salt. The first is produced in great abundance in Corfu and Paxo, and in a less quantity in Zante, Santa Maura, and Cephalonia. Corfu has, in fact, the appearance of a continuous olive wood; a consequence, partly, of the extraordinary encouragement formerly given to the culture of the plant by the Venetians. Although there is a harvest every year, the great crop is properly biennial; the tree generally reposing for a year after its effort. (In France and Piedmont the period of inactivity is 2 and 3 years.) During 5 or 6 months, from October till April, the country, particularly in Corfu, presents an animated appearance, persons of all ages being busily employed in picking up the fruit. It is calculated that the islands produce, one year with another, about 95,000 barrels, of 18 gallons each, and that of this quantity 60,000 are exported, principally to Trieste. The average price may be about 1*l.* 1*s.* per barrel. Under the old Venetian system, the oil could only be carried to Trieste. An *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent, payable on the export, produces upon an average 28,000*l.* annually. The quality might be much improved by a little more care in the manufacture, the trees being generally finer than in any other country.

Currents, originally introduced from the Moors, are grown in the Isles of Zante, Cephalonia, and Ithaca, but principally in the first. The plant is a vine of small size and delicate nature, the cultivation of which requires much care. Six or 7 years elapse after a plantation has been made, before it yields a crop. In the beginning of October, the earth about the roots of the plant is loosened, and gathered up in small heaps, away from the vine, which is pruned in March; after which the ground again laid down smooth around the plant, which grows low, and is supported by sticks. The crops are liable to injury in spring from the blight called the "brina," and rainy weather at the harvest season produces great mischief. The currants are gathered towards September, and, after being carefully picked are thrown singly upon a stone floor, exposed to the sun in the open air. The drying process may occupy a fortnight or longer, if the weather be not favourable. A heavy shower or thunderstorm (not infrequent occurrence at that season) not only interrupts it, but sometimes causes fermentation. The fruit is then only fit to be given to animals. Should it escape these risks, it is

The extraordinary increase that has taken place in the production of iron since 1823, is principally to be ascribed to the high prices of 1824, 1825, and 1826, when pig iron met with a ready sale at from \$4 to \$12 and 12 1/2 a ton. But, in consequence partly of the failure or postponement of most of the projects as to rail-roads, &c., that were then on foot, and partly of the vast additional supplies which the extension of the manufacture threw on the market, the price fell in 1828 to from \$4 to 7 1/2 a ton, and continued gradually to decline, till in 1832 it was only worth 4 1/2. So heavy a fall had the effect of introducing the severest economy into every department of the manufacture. In despite, however, of all the saving that could be effected in this way, many of the manufacturers were involved in much distress, and the production of iron is believed to have been considerably diminished. This, coupled with the increasing demand for iron, naturally led to a reaction. Prices began to rise early in 1833; and the advance has been such, that at present (January, 1834), pig iron fetches 6 1/2 a ton, and the manufacture is in a state of great activity.

The following statements as to the number of furnaces and the quantity of iron produced in the different districts where the manufacture is carried on, in 1823, 1825, 1826, and 1830, appeared originally in the Birmingham Journal.—We have been assured that their accuracy may be depended upon.

Districts.	Number of Furnaces.								Tons of Iron produced.				
	1823.		1825.		1826.		1830.		1823.	1825.	1826.	1830.	
	Total.	In Blast.	Total.	In Blast.	Total.	In Blast.	Total.	In Blast.	Total.	In Blast.	Total.	In Blast.	
South Wales	72	109	80	87	100	113	182,325	250,419	275,419	377,043			
Staffordshire	84	103	89	97	100	95	133,560	182,198	218,498	318,804			
Shropshire	42	48	48	48	48	48	73,410	78,006	91,204	75,411			
Yorkshire	26	24	23	19	24	17	87,311	38,104	26,288	27,288			
Scotland	22	25	17	9	25	18	87	84,500	33,540	37,700	37,500		
Derbyshire	18	18	14	6	18	14	14,000	22,578	22,500	17,000			
North Wales	10	14	3	6	10	12	12,000	17,750	26,700	25,000			
Forest of Dean	20	14	3	5	20	1			2,000				
Various	2	2	2	2	2	2			1,000				
Total	377	374	359	307	378	30	489,561	618,236	703,164	878,417			

About 2-10ths of the total quantity of iron produced are used as cast iron, being consumed principally in Great Britain and Ireland; the exports, not exceeding 15,000 tons, go chiefly to the United States and British North America. The other 7-10ths are converted into wrought iron, being formed into bars, bolts, rods, &c. The exports of the different sorts of iron amount at present to about 145,000 tons, which, at 8 1/2 lbs. a ton, would be worth 1,232,500.

The increase of the iron manufacture has not only led to its exportation in very large quantities, but has reduced our imports of foreign iron for home consumption from about 34,000 tons, which they amounted to at an average of the 5 years ending with 1833, to about 15,000 or 20,000 tons, consisting principally of Swedish iron, which is subsequently manufactured into steel. The following is

An Account of the British Iron (including unwrought Steel) exported from Great Britain in the Year 1833.—P. & Quarters of a Hundred Weight and Pounds are omitted in the printing of this Table, but they are taken into account in the summing up.

Countries to which exported.	Wrought, &c.										Of all other sorts (except Ordnance).	Unwrought Steel.	
	Bar Iron.	Bolt and Rod Iron.	Pig Iron.	Cast Iron.	Iron Wire.	Anchor and Grapples.	Hoops.	Nails.					
Denmark	71 10	63 16											
Sweden	83 0	0 0		53 0	0 9	1 17	0 5	1 11	15 8	2 0			
Norway	17 0	26 6		2 11	0 3	4 11	37 10	0 8	55 19	3 14			
Denmark	1,370 10	284 0	921 10	10 15	1 10	47 8	301 11	0 19	801 16	1 11			
Prussia	1,08 15	284 0	170 5	6 15			159 17	1 16	38 5	3 3			
Germany	6,232 6	1,215 17	814 4	131 17	172 11	48 6	1,295 2	101 14	1,054 4	91 18			
Holland	5,217 1	328 2	2,968 15	728 15	75 14	192 17	3,353 15	15	1,292 4	117 9			
Belgium	15 10	86 0	1,297 10	23 10	105 0	36 7	15 10	0 5	68 16	101 19			
France	3,176 17	240 9	10,234 5	187 6	7 19	261 14	645 9	1 6	856 7	259 0			
Portugal, Austria, &c.	3,724 19	1,527 17	92 0	814 5	11 4	108 2	1,351 14	122 1	325 1	5 7			
Spain, and the Canaries	129 15	111 11	148 0	39 18	19 15	80 19	1,208 14	93 0	124 17	6 12			
Gibraltar	627 2	73 0		6 0	4 15	65 17	239 4	10 17	149 17	1 15			
Italy	7,982 5	1,265 3	610 0	110 7	28 18	85 19	861 8	0 3	848 17	11 10			
Malta	268 7	71 11		0 11			39 3	26 15	24 10				
The Ionian Islands	308 6	21 5		6 3			59 5	10 1	89 18				
Turkey and Coast-Greece	5,078 3	1,268 0		94 9	31 1	111 7	129 19	800 9	455 10	8 13			
Morocco and Algiers	801 11	49 13		26 7			36 7	6 0	25 2	0 2			
Africa	17,206 14	4,028 16	819 10	668 19	8 10	585 10	1,153 5	571 15	3,212 0	105 11			
Asia	3,048 7	121 10	420 0	1,228 4	1 14	147 0	399 2	139 1	1,127 19	2 0			
British colonies, N. Amer.	4,789 18	325 0	637 0	1,428 17	9 19	929 19	554 7	1,107 0	1,259 7	178 11			
British West Indies	311 15	86 0	81 0	1,231 17	1 1	26 16	925 0	1,180 16	1,911 15	4 9			
Foreign West Indies	1,132 0	101 19	30 0	758 19	1 17	14 1	391 15	400 10	375 8	4 14			
United States of America	22,104 2	186 4	12,987 6	2,367 17	68 19	58 6	235 19	829 11	3,534 14	1,268 6			
Brazil	2,297 5	30 0	85 0	381 12	0 5	194 10	621 11	618 17	724 7	17 16			
Mexico and S. America	1,860 4	84 10	10 0	410 18	0 15	4 5	100 18	180 6	243 5	3 6			
Guernsey, Jersey, &c.	374 16	93 9	383 19	367 11	0 10	98 4	61 8	70 7	337 19	7 5			
Total	94,839 16	13,331 12	33,078 6	13,604 0	540 17	2,246 10	10,957 0	5,179 19	20,182 16	2,810 3			

In 1707, the iron exported from Great Britain amounted to only 11,000 tons. At an average of the 15 years ending with 1806, the exports amounted to 28,000 tons; being less than a fifth part of their amount in 1832.

Supposing the total quantity of pig iron produced in Great Britain in 1833 to have amounted to 60,000 tons, and to have been worth at an average, 7 1/2 a ton, its total value will have been 4,500,000. If the additional labour expended in forming the pig iron into bar iron, that is, into bars, bolts, rods, &c., may probably have added about 1,250,000. more to its value; making it worth in all about 5,750,000.

Prices of Hardware.—We noticed, under the article HARDWARE (which see), the extraordinary fall which has taken place in the price of that description of goods since the peace. Since that article was printed, we have obtained from Mr. William Weston, accountant, Birmingham, the following Table of the prices of hardware articles, on which, we believe, every reliance may be placed.

(Report of the Committee on the Iron Manufacture, 1833.)

Comparative Prices of Hardware in and near Birmingham, in 1818, 1824, 1825, 1832, and in Jan., 1834.

Articles.	Per cwt.	1818.		1824.		1825.		1832.		1834.	
		L.	d.								
Anvils	gross	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
Axle, polished	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Bed screws, 4 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Bolt for doors, &c.	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Brass for carpenters, 18 bis	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Bis, lined, for bridges	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Buttress for cast-iron	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
for cast-iron	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Carrycocks, 6 barred	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Candlesticks, brass, 6 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Commode knobs, brass, 3 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Frying pans	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Hinges, cast-iron, 6 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Shoe hammers	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Latches for doors, bright bronze	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Locks for doors, iron rims, 6 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
for g.l., single rollers	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Plated stirrups	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Sad irons and other castings	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Shovel and long, fire-iron	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Tinned table spoons	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Truss chair	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Vice for blacksmiths	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Japanese tea trays, 30 inch	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Iron wire, No. 8	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15
Brass wire	gross	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15	0	15

Iron ore occurs in great abundance in the United States. Immense masses of it have lately been discovered beyond the Alleghany mountains, especially in Kentucky and Missouri. But it is, perhaps, in Vermont, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, that it has hitherto been chiefly worked.

Extensive, however, as has been the production of American iron, there can be little or no doubt that this branch of our home industry is shortly destined to a very great expansion. In every successive year, iron is applied to uses never dreamed of by the preceding generation: only a few years have elapsed since an extraordinary demand for it was created by the constructing of rail-roads; and it is not improbable that vast quantities of it will be wanted, before long, as the most desirable material for the building of houses and ships.

But the enlarged demand for iron would have comparatively little effect in altering the relative proportions of it produced in the country itself and imported from abroad. The former of these will be augmented in a remarkable degree, at the expense, so to speak, of the latter, on account of the success which has attended the experiments lately made, on the Lehigh, in Schuylkill county, and elsewhere in Pennsylvania, for smelting the ore with anthracite coal instead of wood. This improvement, on account of the vicinity of the anthracite to the ore, cannot but diminish considerably the cost of producing iron, and therefore its price; which will, of course, be followed by an augmented production and consumption of it.

Any diminution of the importation of iron into the country, which may be consequent upon the introduction generally of the improvement just mentioned, ought not to be regarded as in itself a national advantage. It can have no permanent effect in preventing the existence of an undue excess of importation above exportation. These, as every one is a slight degree only conversant with political economy is aware of, have a certain determinate average relation to each other,—a relation which is preserved, by whatever restrictive or forcible measures either the amount of the commodities imported, or that of the commodities exported, may be attempted to be diminished. If less iron than heretofore shall hereafter be procured from other countries, the inevitable result must be that the exports of the products of American capital and labour will be lessened in the same proportion. The indebtedness of the United States to Europe, in an embarrassing and more than ordinary degree, can only be prevented from recurring, at intervals of a very few years, when some mode shall have been devised of effectually guarding against an undue expansion of our currency, which, by causing a general rise of prices, offers an inducement for importing more from abroad, as well as for exporting less to foreign countries.

The importations of iron and steel have been very considerable. They have amounted, in the last five years, to nearly fifty millions of dollars. And the duties remitted on iron,—chiefly rail-road iron,—from the 1st of January, 1832, to June 30th, 1839, exceeded the sum of three millions and a half of dollars; “being in fact,” says the Secretary of the Treasury, “a donation, or free subscription, by the general government, to that amount, chiefly in aid of rail-roads.”—*Am. Ed.*

IRON-WOOD (Ger. *Eisenholz*; Du. *Yserhout*; Fr. *Bois de fer*; It. *Legno di ferro*; Sp. *Palo hierro*; Lat. *Sideroxylon*, *Lignum ferreum*), a species of wood of a reddish cast, so called on account of its corroding as that metal does, and its being remarkably hard and ponderous,—even more so than ebony. The tree which produces it grows principally in the West India islands, and is likewise very common in South America, and in some part of Asia, especially about Siam.

ISINGLASS (Ger. *Hausenblase*, *Hausblase*; Fr. *Colle de poisson*, *Carlock*; It. *Colo*

di pesce; Rus. *Klei rd*) is a product, the preparation of which is into the North Sea and the best; next to that barrel, though not so good laid together like the leather. When fine, it is of a white water, and it is used extending plaster, &c. The price varies year. The price varies. *Thomson's Chemistry*.
ISLE OF MAN.
JUICE OF LEMON.
2. 111. is as follows:—
ing to which the duty of that the degrees of such which shall be graduated unity at the temperature such citrometer shall be water.”

JUNIPER BERRI
IVORY, the name of a bone. Each male elephant tapering, and of various externally yellowish, but straight, and light-colored. The most esteemed is yellow, than those from

The trade in London the First sort, weighing 70 lbs. to 80 lbs.; four All under 18 lbs. are those that are very crooked should be rejected; and low. The freight is rate.

Supply of Ivory.—average, 4,130 cwt., of weight of a tusk may 1832 may be taken at male elephants! But the destruction would to 4,500 or 5,000 elephants in this way being replaced that have died in the sources now alluded to Great Britain, we add the slaughter of elephants and it may well be excused diminished. The we India, and the countries whence supplies of Great Britain, in 1831, imports during the same —(*Parl. Paper*, No. 10.)
Ivory from Malacca, &c.

The chief consumption but it is also extensively chess-men, billiard-balls, &c. manufactured to a greater Europe. But the price Chinese than by any concentric balls after ivory articles, are all

Historical Notice.—the elephant is found for purposes, but that not owing to any difference

si pesce; Rus. *Klei ribii, Karluk*), one of the purest and finest of the animal glues. It is a product, the preparation of which is almost peculiar to Russia. It is made of the air-bladders and sounds of different kinds of fish which are found in the large rivers that fall into the North Sea and the Caspian. That prepared from the sturgeon is generally esteemed the best; next to that the beluga; but isinglass is also prepared from sterlets, shad, and harel, though not so good. The best is usually rolled in little ringlets; the second sort is laid together like the leaves of a book; and the common sort is dried without any care. When fine, it is of a white colour, semi-transparent, and dry. It dissolves readily in boiling water, and it is used extensively in cookery. It is also used for stiffening silk, making sticking plaster, &c. The imports, in 1831 and 1832, amounted, at an average, to 1,984½ cwt. a year. The price varies at present (January, 1834) from 5s. to 14s. 6d. per lb.—(See *Thomson's Chemistry*; and *Tooke's View of Russia*, 2d ed. vol. iii. p. 343.)

ISLE OF MAN. See *MAX, LAKE* or.

JUICE OF LEMONS, LIMES, OR ORANGES. The 9th section of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 111. is as follows:—"For ascertaining the degrees of specific gravity or strength, according to which the duty on the juice of lemons, limes, and oranges shall be paid, it is enacted, that the degrees of such specific gravity or strength shall be ascertained by a glass citrometer, which shall be graduated in degrees in such manner, that distilled water being assumed as unity at the temperature of 60° by Fahrenheit's thermometer, every degree of the scale of such citrometer shall be denoted by a variation of $\frac{1}{1000}$ parts of the specific gravity of such water."

JUNIPER BERRIES. See *BERRIES*.

IVORY, the name given to the teeth or tusks of the elephant, and of the walrus or sea-norse. Each male elephant come to maturity has 2 tusks. These are hollow at the root, tapering, and of various sizes, depending principally on the age of the animal. Colour externally yellowish, brownish, and sometimes dark, internally white. The best are large, straight, and light-coloured, without flaws; not very hollow in the stump, but solid and thick. The most esteemed come from Africa, being of a closer texture, and less liable to turn yellow, than those from the East Indies.

The trade in London thus divide them:—

First sort, weighing 70 lbs. or upwards; second sort, weighing 56 lbs. to 60 lbs.; third sort, weighing 38 lbs. to 56 lbs.; fourth sort, weighing 28 lbs. to 37 lbs.; fifth sort, weighing 18 lbs. to 27 lbs.

All under 18 lbs. are called *scraples*, and are of the least value. In purchasing elephants' teeth, those that are very crooked, hollow, and broken at the ends, or cracked and decayed in the inside, should be rejected; and care taken that lead or any other substance has not been poured into the hollow. The freight is rated at 16 cwt. to the ton.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

Supply of Ivory.—The imports of elephants' teeth, in 1831 and 1832, were, at an average, 4,130 cwt., of which 2,950 cwt. were retained for consumption. The medium weight of a tusk may be taken at about 60 lbs.; so that the yearly imports of 1831 and 1832 may be taken at 7,709 tusks; a fact which supposes the destruction of at least 3,854 male elephants! But, supposing the tusks could only be obtained by killing the animal, the destruction would really be a good deal greater, and would most probably, indeed, amount to 4,500 or 5,000 elephants. Occasionally, however, tusks are accidentally broken, one lost in this way being replaced by a new one; and a good many are, also, obtained from elephants that have died in the natural way. Still it is sufficiently obvious, that the supply from the sources now alluded to cannot be very large; and if to the quantity of ivory required for Great Britain, we add that required for the other countries of Europe, America, and Asia, the slaughter of elephants must, after every reasonable deduction is made, appear immense, and it may well excite surprise, that the breed of this noble animal has not been more diminished. The western and eastern coasts of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, India, and the countries to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, are the great marts whence supplies of ivory are derived. The imports from Western Africa into Great Britain, in 1831, amounted to 2,575 cwt.; the Cape only furnished 198 cwt. The imports during the same year from India, Ceylon and other Eastern countries, were 2,173 cwt.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550. Sess. 1833.) The Chinese market is principally supplied with ivory from Malacca, Siam, and Sumatra.

The chief consumption of ivory in England is in the manufacture of handles for knives; but it is also extensively used in the manufacture of musical and mathematical instruments, chess-men, billiard-balls, plates for miniatures, toys, &c. Ivory articles are said to be manufactured to a greater extent, and with better success, at Dieppe, than in any other place in Europe. But the preparation of this beautiful material is much better understood by the Chinese than by any other people. No European artist has hitherto succeeded in cutting concentric balls after the manner of the Chinese; and their boxes, chess-men, and other ivory articles, are all far superior to any that are to be met with any where else.

Historical Notice.—It is a curious fact, that the people of all Asiatic countries in which the elephant is found, have always had the art of taming the animal and applying it to useful purposes, but that no such art has ever been possessed by any native African nation. Is this owing to any difference between the Asiatic and African elephants, or to the inferior sagacity

of the African people! We incline to think that the latter is the true hypothesis. Alexander the Great is believed to have been the first European who employed elephants in war. It appears pretty certain, that the elephants made use of by the Carthaginians were mostly, if not wholly, brought from India; and that they were managed by Indian leaders. Some of the latter were captured by the Romans, in the great victory gained by Metellus over Asdrubal.—(See, on this curious subject, two very learned and valuable notes in the *Ancient Universal History*, 8vo ed. vol. xvii. p. 529. and p. 549. *Buffon's Article on the Elephant* is a splendid piece of composition.)

The price per cwt., duty (11. per cwt.) included, of elephants' teeth in the London market, in December, 1833, was—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1st, 79 to 90 lbs.	29	0	0	31	0	0	5th, 18 to 27 lbs.	18	0	0	21	0	0
2d, 56 — 60 —	25	0	0	23	0	0	Scrivelloes	14	0	0	35	0	0
3d, 38 — 55 —	23	0	0	26	0	0	Sea horse teeth	0	0	0	5	0	0
4th, 28 — 37 —	20	0	0	24	0	0							

K.

KELP. A substance composed of different materials, of which the fossil or mineral alkali, or, as it is commonly termed, soda, is the chief. This ingredient renders it useful in the composition of soap, in the manufacture of alum, and in the formation of crown and bottle glass. It is formed of marine plants; which, being cut from the rocks with a hook, are collected and dried on the beach to a certain extent; they are afterwards put into kilns prepared for the purpose, the heat of which is sufficient to bring the plants into a state of semification. They are then strongly stirred with iron rakes; and when cool, condense into a dark blue or whitish mass, very hard and solid. Plants about 3 years old yield the largest quantity of kelp. The best kelp has an acrid caustic taste, a sulphurous odour, is compact, and of a dark blue greenish colour. It yields about 5 per cent. of its weight of soda.—(*Barry's Orkney Islands*, p. 377.; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The manufacture of kelp is, or rather was, principally carried on in the Western Islands, and on the western shores of Scotland, where it was introduced from Ireland, about the middle of last century. Towards the end of the late war, the kelp shores of the island of North Uist let for 7,000l. a year. It has been calculated that the quantity of kelp annually manufactured in the Hebrides only, exclusive of the mainland, and of the Orkney and Shetland Isles, amounted, at the period referred to, to about 6,000 tons a year; and that the total quantity made in Scotland and its adjacent isles amounted to about 20,000 tons. At some periods during the war, it sold for 20s. a ton; but at an average of the 23 years ending with 1822, the price was 10l. 9s. 7d.—(*Art. Scotland, Edinburgh Encyclopaedia*.)

Unluckily, however, the foundations on which this manufacture rested were altogether fallacious. Its existence depended on the maintenance of the high duties on barilla and salt. Inasmuch, however, as kelp could not be substituted, without undergoing a very expensive process, for barilla, in a great many departments of industry in which the use of mineral alkali is indispensable, it became necessary materially to reduce the high duty laid on barilla during the war. The ruin of the kelp manufacture has been ascribed to this reduction; but though barilla had been altogether excluded from our markets, which could not have been done without great injury to many most important manufactures, the result would have been perfectly the same, in so far as kelp is concerned, unless the high duty on salt had also been maintained. It was the repeal of the latter that gave the kelp manufacture the coup de grace. The purification of kelp so as to render it fit for soap-making, is a much more troublesome and expensive process than the decomposition of salt; and the greatest quantity of alkali used, is now obtained by the latter method. Had the duty on salt not been repealed, kelp might still have been manufactured, notwithstanding the reduction of duty on barilla.

The manufacture is now almost extinct. Shores that formerly yielded the proprietors a rent of 200l. to 500l. a year, are now worth nothing. The price of kelp since 1822 has not been, at an average, above 4s. a ton; and the article will, most probably, soon cease to be produced.

This result, though injurious to the proprietors of kelp shores, and productive of temporary distress to the labourers employed in the manufacture, is not to be regretted. It could not have been avoided, without keeping up the price of some of the most important necessities of life at a forced and unnatural elevation. The high price of kelp was occasioned by the exigencies of the late war, which, besides obstructing the supply of barilla, forced government to lay high duties on it and on salt. The proprietors had not the vestige of a ground for considering that such a state of things would be permanent; they did right in profiting by it while it lasted; but they could not expect that government was to subject the country, during peace, to some of the severest privations occasioned by the war, merely that they might continue to enjoy an accidental advantage.

KENTLEDGE, the name sometimes given to the iron pigs cast in a particular form for ballasting ships, and employed for that purpose.

KERMES (Ger. *Scharlachbeeren*; Du. *Grein, Scharlakenenbessen*; It. *Grana, Chermes, Cremese, Cocchi*; Sp. *Grana Kermes, Grana de la coconja*), an insect (*Coccus ilicis* Lin.) of the same species as the true Mexican cochineal, found upon the *quercus ilex*, a species of oak growing in Spain, France, the Levant, &c. Before the discovery of America, kermes was the most esteemed drug for dyeing scarlet, and had been used for that purpose from a very remote period. Beckmann inclines to think that it was employed by the Phœnicians, and that it excelled even the famous Tyrian purple.—(*Hist. of Invent.* vol. ii. p. 197. Enq. ed.) From the name of *coccum* or *coccus*, cloth dyed with kermes was called *coccinum*, and persons wearing this cloth were said by the Romans to be *coccinati*.—*Mart* lib i.

epig. 97. lin. 6.) It is that the ancients had the opinion of others after his puncture of a particular century that it was but an insect, assuming kermes is of Persian origin. The earliest periods in an article of commerce, of cochineal, it has been vet, prepared in some and though much inferior, they retain the color, and other places it vivaciously, though 200 years has been treated with gletted. trans.); and by

KINO (Fr. *Gomme*) that grow in the East the shops is said by Dr. *nauclea gambir*. The is then evaporated until ported in chests containing paper, inscribed with the stating that it is the product when first taken into the plate. It is in small portions of a dried extra is easily pulverised, affording it may be doubted whether sidered as kino. Dr. A. Indian bazaar. The tree made into the wood of t

KNIVES (Ger. *Mess*, Rus. *Noski*) well known are principally manufactured purposes, as their different knives, pruning knives, in the manufacture of k until the reign of Elizabeth (1563), that knives were that this is an error. T for centuries before, in the cutlers of London v. vol. ii. c. i. in *Lardner's*

KÖNIGSBERG, the Population 68,000.

Port, &c.—Königsberg is a large lake having from 6 feet water, so that none N., lon. 10° 52' 30" E., on the port of Königsberg ground, a little to the south. The light is fixed on the eastward side being surmounted, has been erected to a height of 100 feet. There is usually a regular winds occasion mis

Trade of Königsberg Königsberg has a large extent of country for export. The wheat is larger in the berry, and ceptions, and light. P a slight admixture of the value of the oats is are shipped here than t are usually lower at Kö Vol. II.—L

epig. 97. lin. 6.) It is singular, however, notwithstanding its extensive use in antiquity, that the ancients had the most incorrect notions with respect to the nature of kermes: many of them supposing that it was the grains (*grana*) or fruit of the *ilex*. This was Pliny's opinion: others after him considered it in the same light, or as an excrescence formed by the puncture of a particular kind of fly, like the gall nut. It was not till the early part of last century that it was finally and satisfactorily established that the kermes is really nothing but an insect, assuming the appearance of a berry in the process of drying. The term kermes is of Persian origin. The Arabians had been acquainted with this production from the earliest periods in Africa, and having found it in Spain, they cultivated it extensively as an article of commerce, as well as a dye drug for their own use. But since the introduction of cochineal, it has become an object of comparatively trifling importance. It is still, however, prepared in some parts of Spain. Cloths dyed with kermes are of a deep red colour; and though much inferior in brilliancy to the scarlet cloths dyed with real Mexican cochineal, they retain the colour better, and are less liable to stain. The old tapestries of Brussels, and other places in Flanders, which have scarcely lost any thing of their original vivacity, though 200 years old, were all dyed with kermes. The history of this production has been treated with great learning by Beckmann (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. pp. 171—191. 1st ed. trans.); and by Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 393—409.)

KINO (Fr. *Gomme de Kino*; Ger. *Kinoharz*; It. *Chino*), a gum, the produce of trees that grow in the East and West Indies, Africa, Botany Bay, &c. The kino now found in the shops is said by Dr. A. T. Thomson to come from India, and to be the produce of the *nauclea gambir*. The branches and twigs are bruised and boiled in water. The decoction is then evaporated until it acquires the consistence of an extract, which is kino. It is imported in chests containing from 1 to 2 cwt.; and on the inside of the lid of each chest is a paper, inscribed with the name of John Brown, the month and year of its importation, and stating that it is the produce of Amboyna. It is inodorous, very rough, and slightly bitter when first taken into the mouth: but it afterwards impresses a degree of sweetness on the palate. It is in small, uniform, deep brown, shining, brittle fragments, which appear like portions of a dried extract broken down; being perfectly uniform in their appearance. It is easily pulverised, affording a powder of a lighter brown colour than the fragments. But it may be doubted whether the inspissated juice of the *nauclea gambir* ought to be considered as kino. Dr. Ainslie says that Botany Bay kino is the only kind he had seen in an Indian bazaar. The tree which yields it grows to a great height: it flows from incisions made into the wood of the trunk.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Materia Indica*.)

KNIVES (Ger. *Messer*; Du. *Messen*; Fr. *Couteaux*; It. *Coltelli*; Sp. *Cuchillos*; Rus. *Noshi*) well known utensils made of iron and steel, and employed to cut with; they are principally manufactured in London and Sheffield. Knives are made for a variety of purposes, as their different denominations imply; such as table knives, penknives, oyster knives, pruning knives, &c. Although England at present excels every part of the world in the manufacture of knives, as in most branches of cutlery, the finer kinds were imported until the reign of Elizabeth. It is stated by Mr. Macpherson (*Annals of Com. Anno 1563*), that knives were not made for use in England till 1563; but there can be no doubt that this is an error. They had been made, though probably of a rude and clumsy pattern, for centuries before, in the district called Hallamshire, of which Sheffield is the centre; and the cutlers of London were formed into a corporation in 1417.—(*Manufactures in Metal*, vol. ii. c. i. in *Lardner's Cyclopædia*.)

KÖNIGSBERG, the capital of East Prussia, in lat. 54° 42' 11" N., lon. 20° 29' 15" E. Population 68,000.

Port, &c.—Königsberg is situated on the Pregel, which flows into the Frische Haff, or Fresh Bay, a large lake having from 10 to 14 feet water. The bar at the mouth of the Pregel has only from 5 to 12 feet water, so that none but flat-bottomed boats can ascend to the city. Pillau, in lat. 54° 33' 39" N., lon. 19° 52' 30" E., on the north side of the entrance from the Baltic to the Frische Haff, is properly the port of Königsberg. Within these few years, a light-house has been erected on a rising ground, a little to the south of Pillau, the lantern of which is elevated 103 feet above the level of the sea. The light is fixed and brilliant. The entrance to the harbour is marked by buoys; those on the leeward side being surmounted by small flags. A Gothic building, 120 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected to serve for a land-mark; at a distance it looks like a three-masted ship under sail. There is usually from 15 to 16 feet water between the buoys on entering the harbour; but particular winds occasion material differences in this respect.

Trade of Königsberg.—Being situated on a navigable river of considerable importance, Königsberg has a large command of internal navigation, and is the principal emporium of a large extent of country. Wheat, rye, and other species of grain, are the chief articles of export. The wheat is somewhat similar to that of Dantzic, but of inferior quality, being larger in the berry, and thicker skinned. The rye is thin, and also the barley, with few exceptions, and light. Peas are of a remarkably large quality. Oats are common feed, with a slight admixture of tares; but as these last answer in some degree the purpose of beans, the value of the oats is rather enhanced than otherwise by the circumstance. More tares are shipped here than from any other port in the Baltic. The prices of all sorts of grain are usually lower at Königsberg than at the neighbouring Prussian ports. Hemp, flax, lin-

seed, yarn, and bristles, are largely exported; with smaller quantities of wool, ashes, feathers, wax, hides and skins, &c. The bristles are the best in the Baltic. Timber, deals, and staves, are as good as at Memel, but are rather scarce. The imports are coffee, sugar, cotton stuffs and yarn, hardware, dye woods, spices, tobacco, coals, rum, &c. Salt is a government monopoly; any person being allowed to import it, but he must either sell it to government at a price fixed by them, or export it again.

Money, Weights, and Measures, same as at DANZIC; which see.

Account of the Exports of the different Species of Grain from Königsberg during each of the Fourteen Years ending with 1831.

	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Wheat	1,132	1,328	2,261	1,559	591	428	1,003	818	1,483	2,754	2,843	7,595	7,565	7,565
Rye	5,428	7,320	8,769	1,450	100	1,080	309	657	804	7,948	12,980	8,154	26,480	16,000
Barley	4,455	2,922	818	815	893	94	208	1,431	801	2,523	1,548	8,273	1,067	94
Oats	5,559	1,519	5,695	354	203	1,446	593	6,391	2,440	1,908	5,980	8,310	4,792	4,792
Peas	3,553	1,991	1,210	234	308	318	419	712	923	600	919	422	3,300	1,528
Beans	188	41	41	78	78	22	206	716	229	818	607	260	107	134
Tares	439	458	458	78	78	22	206	716	229	818	607	260	107	134
Lined hemp	1,523	3,497	1,984	8,173	320	1,367	9	3,371	8,728	5,984	3,711	8,673	3,481	3,481
Malt	4	28	48	80	80	9	9	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Total	24,622	18,148	18,965	7,913	1,711	3,094	5,813	7,306	12,816	20,545	30,451	26,659	48,843	23,791

Exclusive of corn, the quantities of the principal articles exported from Königsberg in 1830 and 1831 were—

Articles.	1830.	1831.	Articles.	1830.	1831.
Ashes	—	82,170	Hides and skins	56,707	17,820
Bristles	—	167,297	Lined cakes	—	81,520
Feathers	—	15,980	Wax	81,525	—
Flax and flax cordils	—	75,280	Wool	—	118,890
Hemp and hemp cordils	—	60,278	Yarn, Lth. and Erml.	8,000	2,000

Arrivals in 1831.—In 1831, there entered the port of Königsberg (Pilsen) 704 ships, of the burden of 43,228 tons. In 1832, 43 British ships, of the burden of 3,592 tons, cleared out.

Prices free on board of the principal Articles of Export from Königsberg, 1st of June, 1829.

Articles.	Prime Cost in Prussian Currency.		Free on board in Sterling Money.		Articles.	Prime Cost in Prussian Currency.		Free on board in Sterling Money.	
	Sil. gr. Per last.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	Per quarter.		Sil. gr. Per 100 lbs.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	Per ton.
Wheat, old, mixed and high mixed	450 to 500	2 5 8 to 2 8 4	1 10 0 to 1 8 4	1 10 0 to 1 8 4	Hemp, clean cut	11 1 8 to 10 1 8 to 11	88 6 0 to 84 10 0 to 87 10 0	88 6 0 to 84 10 0 to 87 10 0	88 6 0 to 84 10 0 to 87 10 0
old, inferior kind	400 - 450	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	Linen	9 1 8 - 10	82 11 0 - 84 9 0	82 11 0 - 84 9 0	82 11 0 - 84 9 0
new, best mixed and high mixed	450 - 500	2 5 8 - 2 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	Flax, Gruana, crown, No. 1.	10 1 2 - 11 1 2	96 9 0 - 98 8 0	96 9 0 - 98 8 0	96 9 0 - 98 8 0
new inferior red, mixed and best red	380 - 430	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	1 10 0 - 1 8 4	Podolia, crown, No. 1.	10 1 2 - 11 1 2	96 9 0 - 98 8 0	96 9 0 - 98 8 0	96 9 0 - 98 8 0
Rye, old and new	330 - 380	1 9 8 - 1 8 4	1 9 8 - 1 8 4	1 9 8 - 1 8 4	Ashes, calcined crown	70	1 8 4	1 8 4	1 8 4
Barley, large	160 - 200	0 10 0 - 0 10 8	0 10 0 - 0 10 8	0 10 0 - 0 10 8	Bristles, best white	65 gr - 72 gr	12 10 0 - 13 8 4	12 10 0 - 13 8 4	12 10 0 - 13 8 4
small	178 - 185	0 17 8 - 0 18 4	0 17 8 - 0 18 4	0 17 8 - 0 18 4	Yarn, Lth. 12-20 lbs.	5 4	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
Oats	110 - 130	0 11 8 - 0 13 4	0 11 8 - 0 13 4	0 11 8 - 0 13 4	30-40 lbs.	5 8	0 8 0	0 8 0	0 8 0
Peas, white, new	240 - 270	1 8 8 - 1 8 7	1 8 8 - 1 8 7	1 8 8 - 1 8 7	40-50 lbs.	5	0 8 0 - 0 10 0	0 8 0 - 0 10 0	0 8 0 - 0 10 0
grey	240 - 270	1 8 8 - 1 8 7	1 8 8 - 1 8 7	1 8 8 - 1 8 7					
Beans	810 - 230	1 0 10 - 1 0 9	1 0 10 - 1 0 9	1 0 10 - 1 0 9					
Tares	160 - 170	0 18 3 - 0 17 8	0 18 3 - 0 17 8	0 18 3 - 0 17 8					
Lined, crushing	13 1 4 - 14	1 11 6 - 1 10 10	1 11 6 - 1 10 10	1 11 6 - 1 10 10					
sowing	18 - 21	1 0 0 - 1 0 0	1 0 0 - 1 0 0	1 0 0 - 1 0 0					

The above prices in sterling money, free on board, are calculated at the exchange of 205 s. gr., and at the proportion of 10½ Imp. qrs. per last.

L.

LAC, or GUM LAC (Ger. *Lack*, *Gummilack*; Fr. *Lacque*, *Gomme lacque*; It. *Lacca*, *Gommilacca*; Sp. *Goma laca*; Rus. *Laka*, *Gummilak*; Arab. *Lauk*; Hind. *Laksh*; Sans. *Lakshā*), a substance, which has been improperly called a gum, produced in Bengal, Assam, Pegu, Siam, &c., on the leaves and branches of certain trees, by an insect (*Chermes lacca*). The trees selected by the insect on which to deposit its eggs are known by the names of the bihar tree (*Croton laciferum* Lin.), the popal (*Butea frondosa*), both, and coosim trees, &c. After being deposited, the egg is covered by the insect with a quantity of this peculiar substance, or lac, evidently intended to serve, in the economy of nature, as a nidus and protection to the ovum and insect in its first stage, and as food for the maggot in its more advanced stage. It is formed into cells, finished with as much art as a honey-comb, but differently arranged. Lac yields a fine red dye, which, though not so bright as the true Mexican cochineal, is said to be more permanent; and the resinous part is extensively used in the manufacture of sealing wax and hats, and as a varnish.

Lac, when in its natural state, encrusting leaves and twigs, is called *stick lac*; it is collected twice a year; and the only trouble in procuring it is in breaking down the leaves and branches, and carrying

them to market. When separated from them, as freight. The best stick lac is when broken shreds of their cells, it becomes pale for a varnish.

Lac dye, lac lake, or lake process have been adopted instead of indigo. It should be scraped or powdered, it is sandy, light-coloured and rejected.

Notwithstanding the extent of the country. The annual since 1818. The finest quality manufactured under contract. When stick lac has been rounded, the native silk water. The yellowish, but mustard seed, is called *stick lac*. The natives use the lower class of female superior classes.

Stick lac is produced from a charcoal fire, when the most liquefiable, is obtained. Thin-transparent, or embossed, it should always, when burnt, however thin, should be burnt with a strong country in the manufacture to be very extensively used in the last three or four years, fall in the price of lac dye. In Bengal, lac is chiefly obtained from the stick lac, is inferior to that produced from the lac tree.

Account of the Quantities into Great Britain,

Year.	Lac Dye or Lac Lake.
1814	378,392
1815	568,392
1816	260,080
1817	324,000
1818	242,387
1819	178,098
1820	439,439
1821	640,584
1822	872,367
1823	425,231

The finest lac dye is distinguished by J. Mc R. 1 the third, by C. E., & the different species of lac in bond follows—

Lac lake	per lb.
dye, D. T.	—
J. Mc R.	—
C. E.	—
law and mid.	—
Best lac	per cw
Stick lac	—
Shellac, liver	—

LACE (Du. *Kanten*; Sp. *Encajes*), a threads of gold, silver, hem or fringe of a garment. The origin of this del there is no doubt it lays many beautiful lace patterns and from the derivation. It is supposed to be from Venice, where, and long previously worn; but laces of gold, and silk are exported.—(1 Rich. 3. c. begun in England prior (19 Hon. 7. c. 21, § 5 E

In addition to the above and from other countries.

them to market. When the twigs or sticks are large, or only partially covered, the lac is frequently separated from them, as it always ought to be when shipped for Europe, to lessen the expense of freight. The best stick lac is of a deep red colour. When held against the light, it should look bright, and when broken should appear in diamond-like points. If it be not gathered till the insects have left their cells, it becomes pale, and pierced at the top; and is of little use as a dye, though probably better for a varnish.

Lac dye, lac lake, or cake lac, consists of the colouring matter extracted from the stick lac. Various processes have been adopted for this purpose. It is formed into small square cakes or pieces, like those of indigo. It should, when broken, look dark-coloured, shining, smooth, and compact; when scraped or powdered, it should be of a bright red colour, approaching to that of carmine. That which is sandy, light-coloured and spongy, and which, when scraped, is of a dull brick-dust colour, should be rejected.

Notwithstanding the continued fall in the price of cochineal, the use of lac dye has been extending in this country. The annual consumption may at present amount to about 600,000 lbs., having trebled since 1818. The finest qualities of lac dye are seldom met with for sale in Calcutta, being generally manufactured under contract for the European market.

When stick lac has been separated from the twigs to which it naturally adheres, and coarsely powdered, the native silk and cotton dyers extract the colour as far as it conveniently can be done by water. The yellowish, hard, resinous powder which remains, having somewhat of the appearance of mustard seed, is called **seed lac**. When liquified by fire, it is formed into cakes, and denominated **lump lac**. The natives use the latter in making bangles, or ornaments in the form of rings, for the arms of the lower class of females; the best **shellac** being used in manufacturing these ornaments for the superior classes.

Shellac is produced from seed lac, by putting the latter into bags of cotton cloth, and holding it over a charcoal fire, when the lac melts, and being strained through the bag, the resinous part, which is the most liquefiable, is obtained in a considerable degree of purity; it is formed into thin sheets or plates. Thin-transparent, or amber-coloured shells are the best; and that which is thick, dark, or speckled; it should always, when broken, be amber-coloured on the edge; that which has a dark brown fracture, however thin, should be rejected. When laid on a hot iron, shellac, if pure, will instantly catch fire, and burn with a strong but not disagreeable smell. It used to be principally employed in this country in the manufacture of sealing wax, and as a varnish; but within these few years it has begun to be very extensively used in the manufacture of hats. Shellac has advanced rapidly in price during the last three or four years; a circumstance which has had a considerable effect in accelerating the fall in the price of lac dye; the quantity of the latter being necessarily increased in consequence of the greater demand for the former.

In Bengal, lac is chiefly produced in the forests of Sylhet and Burdwan. The finest dye is said to be obtained from the stick lac of Slam and Pegu; but the shellac or resinous part obtained from the latter, is inferior to that produced from Sylhet stick lac. It may be obtained in almost any quantity.

Account of the Quantities of Lac Dye or Lac Lake, Shellac and Seed Lac, and Stick Lac, imported into Great Britain, from the Countries eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, since 1814.

Year.	Lac Dye or Lac Lake.	Shellac and Seed Lac.	Stick Lac.	Year.	Lac Dye or Lac Lake.	Shellac and Seed Lac.	Stick Lac.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1814	278,929	110,670	44,439	1824	592,197	571,684	437
1815	586,522	675,039	32,677	1825	735,505	708,657	13,581
1816	269,080	427,110	4,240	1826	730,720	443,589	90,395
1817	384,009	653,256	254,005	1827	729,212	499,813	8,835
1818	942,387	839,977	569,051	1828	669,205	681,371	
1819	178,088	631,549	40,478	1829	590,721	725,780	
1820	429,430	845,569	342,240	1830	485,269	649,636	37,595
1821	640,984	718,063	58,880	1831	753,252	1,146,128	149,144
1822	872,267	282,621	18,420	1832	459,379	1,070,261	319,373*
1823	425,231	366,321	15,517				

The finest lac dye is distinguished by the mark D. T.; the second by J. M. R.; the third, by C. F. R. In January, 1824, the prices of the different species of lac in bond in the London market were as follows:—

	per lb.	L. s. d.	to	L. s. d.
Lac lake		0 0	to	0 0
dye, D. T.		0 8	to	0 8
J. M. R.		0 1	to	0 1
C. F. R.		0 1	to	0 1
low and mid.		0 0	to	0 1
Seed lac	per cwt.	8 0	to	4 0
Stick lac		2 10	to	2 16
Shellac, liver		6 0	to	6 10

Shellac, liver, D. T.	per cwt.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
— orange		7 0	to 7 10
— black		6 0	to 6 10

In 1829, D. T. lac dye was as high as 8s. 6d. and 8s. 6d. per lb. The duties used to be 6 per cent. on lac dye, seed lac, and stick lac; and 30 per cent. on shellac; but it was obviously absurd to charge shellac, which, as already seen, is prepared from the refuse of the lac dye, with four times the duty laid upon the latter. This ridiculous distinction is now, however, put an end to; the present duties being 6s. a cwt. on lac dye and shellac, and 1s. a cwt. on stick lac—(See *Encyclopædia of Practical Colours*, vol. II. pp. 11—20) *Annals of Man. Ind. & Milburn's Orient. Com. & Transit Information*.)

LACE (Du. *Kanten*; Fr. *Dentelle*; Ger. *Spitzen*; It. *Merletti*, *Pizzi*; Rus. *Krushewo*; Sp. *Encajes*), a plain or ornamental net-work, tastefully composed of many fine threads of gold, silver, silk, flax, or cotton, interwoven, from *Lacinia* (Lat.), the guard hem or fringe of a garment.

The origin of this delicate and beautiful fabric is involved in considerable obscurity, but there is no doubt it lays claim to high antiquity. In Mr. Hope's *Costumes of the Ancients*, many beautiful lace patterns are portrayed on the borders of the dresses of Grecian females; and from the derivation of the word "lace," it is probable it was not unknown to the Romans. It is supposed that Mary de' Medici was the first who brought lace into France, from Venice, where, and in the neighbouring states of Italy, it is understood to have been long previously worn; but we find that in England, so early as 1483, "laces of thread, and laces of gold, and silk and gold," were enumerated among the articles prohibited to be imported.—(1 *Rich. 3. c. 10*.) It is, therefore, fair to presume that this manufacture had begun in England prior to that period, as this and many subsequent acts were passed—(10 *Hon. 7. c. 21*; 5 *Eliz. c. 7*; 13 & 14 *Car. 2. c. 13*; 4 & 5 *W. & M. c. 10*, &c.)—

* In addition to the above, an inconsiderable quantity of lac dye, &c. is sometimes imported at second hand from other countries.

for the encouragement and protection of our home manufacture; but it may equally be concluded, that as *pins* (which are indispensable in the process of lace making) were not used in England till 1543, the manufacture of lace must have been vulgar in fabric, and circumscribed in its extent. Tradition says that the lace manufacture was introduced into this country by some refugees from Flanders, who settled at or near Cranfield, now a scattered village on the west side of Bedfordshire, and adjoining Bucks; but there is no certain evidence that we are indebted to the Flemings for the original introduction of this beautiful art, although from them we have undoubtedly derived almost all the different manufactures relating to dress. We have, however, imitated many of their lace fabrics, and greatly improved our manufactures at various periods, from the superior taste displayed in the production of this article in the Low Countries. In 1626, Sir Henry Borlase founded and endowed the free school at Great Marlow, for 24 boys, to read, write, and cast accounts; and for 24 girls to knit, spin, and make *bone lace*—(*Lewis's Topography*); so that there is reason to suppose that at this time the manufacture had commenced in Buckinghamshire, which, by degrees extended to the adjoining counties of Bedford and Northampton. In 1640, the lace trade was a flourishing interest in Buckinghamshire—(*Fuller's Worthies*, and different *Itineraries*); and so greatly had it advanced in England, that by a royal ordinance in France, passed in 1660, a mark was established upon the thread lace imported from this country and from Flanders, and upon the point lace from Genoa, Venice, and other foreign countries, in order to secure payment of the customs duties.—(*Universal Dictionary*.)

Pillow Lace,—the original manufacture,—is worked upon a hard stuffed pillow, with silk, flax, or cotton threads, according to a parchment pattern placed upon it, by means of pins, bobbins and spindles, which are placed and displaced, twisting, and interweaving the threads, so as to imitate the pattern designed. This manufacture has been long pursued in almost every town and village in the midland counties, particularly in Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Northamptonshire, besides at Honiton, in Devon, and various other places in the west of England. The principal places where it is made in the Netherlands are Antwerp, Brussels, Mechlin, Louvaine, Ghent, Valenciennes, and Lisle. It is also made at Chantilly near Paris (celebrated for veils), Charleville, Sedan, Le Compté de Bourgoyne, Liege, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Harfleur, Pont l'Evesque, Gosors, Fescamp, Caen, Arras, Bapaume, &c., in France; and at various places in Spain, Portugal, and Italy. We can form no estimate of the number of persons employed on the Continent; but in Brussels alone not less than 10,000 are said to be engaged in this manufacture.—(*Ency. Metrop.*) In England and Ireland, besides the laws passed at different times to encourage and protect the manufacture, associations were formed in various places, with the view of exciting a spirit of emulation and improvement, by holding out premiums for the production of the best pieces of bone lace; and although smuggling of foreign lace was carried on to a great extent, (in 1772, 72,000 ells of French lace were seized in the port of Leigh, and lodged in the king's warehouse there, besides numerous other seizures,) the British manufacture advanced in an unparalleled degree.—(*Gentleman's Mag.* 1751, vol. xxi. p. 520; vol. xlii. p. 434.) It is imagined that the first lace ever made in this country was of the sort called *Brussels point*, the net work made by bone bobbins on the pillow, and the pattern and sprigs worked with the needle. Such appears to have been the kind worn by the nobility and people of high rank, as is evident by the different portraits now in existence, painted by Vanduyke, in the time of Charles I., and afterwards by Sir Peter Lely and Sir Godfrey Kneller, in the succeeding reigns of Charles II., Queen Anne, and George I. About a century since, the *grounds* in use were the old Mechlin, and what the trade termed the *wire ground*, which was very similar, if not identical, with the *modern Mochlin*, the principal article in the present French manufacture. The laces made in these grounds were singularly rich and durable; the designs of the *old Mechlin* resembled the figures commonly introduced in ornamental carving. Between 70 and 80 years ago, a great deterioration was occasioned by the introduction of the *Trolley ground*, which was exceedingly coarse and vulgar, the figure angular, and altogether in the worst taste conceivable. An improvement, however, took place about the year 1770, when the ground which is probably the most ancient known, was reintroduced; this was no other than the one still in partial use, and denominated the *old French ground*. About 1777 or 1778, quite a *new ground* was attempted by the inhabitants of Buckingham and its neighbourhood, which quickly superseded all the others; this was the *point ground*, which had (as is supposed) been imported from the Netherlands. From the first appearance of this ground may be dated the origin of the modern pillow lace trade; but it was not until the beginning of the present century that the most striking improvements were made; for during the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the article, though certainly much more light and elegant from the construction of the ground, was miserably poor and spiritless in the design. Soon after the year 1800, a freer and bolder style was adopted; and from that time to 1812, the improvement and consequent success were astonishing and unprecedented. At Honiton, in Devon, the manufacture had arrived at that perfection, was so tasteful in the design, and so delicate and

beautiful in the workmanship. During the late war they are now sold from ever, were about this time new manufacture. The lace, and has at length become truly deplorable. It is in pillow lace making, however, that the neighbourhood of Honiton and the neighbourhood of 120,000 persons were diminished.

Nottingham Lace.—In the year 1768, was the first of money, employment in wife's cap, that he could see. *Senior Henson* on *Hosiery* is ostensibly for lace (imported from London) was called *Brussels ground*. This in manufacturing the lace their leisure hours employed perfecting a complete lace in 1782, the warp frame was in 1799, it was first attended answer. During the use of the machines, with succeeded in discovering for 14 years for his invention 1815-16; but did not succeed and a great stimulus was Heathcoat's patent, the different hand frames had trade; and numerous barked capital in so to be increased; but the demand of general supply,—rivalling of France and the Netherlands.

Mr. William Felkin, manufacturer, considers bobbin net trade may be

Capital employed in spinning
 First capital in 35 spinning and
 factories—784,000 spinning 296,
 spindles
 Floating capital in spinners' and de-
 and necessary sundries

Direct labour employed for
 net trade
 Total capital in spinning and
 English bobbin net trade
 Capital employed in
 First capital in 25 factories, for
 power machines
 1,100 power machines
 11-4ths wide
 5,800 hand machines
 8-4ths wide
 Floating capital in stock on hand:
 Power owners
 Hand owners

Capital in embroidering, preparing
 Total capital employed in the

In 1831 (*vide form*)
 23,400,000 square yards

* Since this article was
 first inventor of the bobbin
 machinery was unknown
 Mr. Brunel, engineer, who
 Vicary Gibbs, in March, 1812,
 carried the other half of the
 shire or pillow lace, the
 we feel it due to Mr. Hens-

beautiful in the workmanship, as not to be excelled even by the best specimens of Brussels lace. During the late war, veils of this lace were sold in London at from 20 to 100 guineas; they are now sold from 8 to 15 guineas. The effects of the competition of machinery, however, were about this time felt; and in 1815, the broad laces began to be superseded by the new manufacture. The pillow lace trade has since been gradually dwindling into insignificance, and has at length sunk into a state which, compared with its condition 20 years back, is truly deplorable. It is difficult to form an estimate of the number of persons employed in pillow lace, making during its prosperity; but in a petition from the makers in Buckingham and the neighbourhood, presented to her present Majesty in 1830, it was stated that 120,000 persons were dependent on this trade; but this number had since been materially diminished.

Nottingham Lace.—A frame-work knitter of Nottingham, named Hammond, about the year 1788, was the first who made lace by machinery. Dissipated in habits, and destitute of money, employment, or credit, the idea struck him, while looking at the broad lace on his wife's cap, that he could fabricate a similar article by means of his stocking frame.—(*Grassner's History of Hosiery, Lace, &c.*, p. 295.) He tried, and succeeded. The first machine ostensibly for lace (introduced at Nottingham about the same period, by A. Else and Harvey of London) was called a pin machine, for making single press *point net* in imitation of the Brussels ground. This machine, although lost here, is still used in France to a great extent in manufacturing the net called *tulle*. This was the age of experiments; and workmen at their leisure hours employed themselves in forming new meshes on the hand, in hope of perfecting a complete hexagon, which had hitherto eluded all their efforts to discover. In 1782, the warp frame was introduced, which is still in use for making *warp lace*; and in 1799, it was first attempted to make *bobbin net* by machinery; but this was not found to answer. During the succeeding 10 years many alterations were made in the construction of the machines, with no better success, until at length, in 1809, Mr. Heathcoat of Tiverton succeeded in discovering the correct principle of the bobbin net frame, and obtained a patent for 14 years for his invention.* Steam power was first introduced by Mr. John Lindley, in 1815-16; but did not come into active operation till 1820. It became general in 1822-23; and a great stimulus was at this period given to the trade, owing to the expiration of Mr. Heathcoat's patent, the increased application of power, and the perfection to which the different hand frames had by this time been brought. A temporary prosperity shone on the trade; and numerous individuals—clergymen, lawyers, doctors, and others—readily embarked capital in so tempting a speculation. Prices fell in proportion as production increased; but the demand was immense; and the Nottingham lace frame became the organ of general supply,—rivaling and supplanting, in plain nets, the most finished productions of France and the Netherlands.

Mr. William Felkin, of Nottingham, the author of a very able statement relative to this manufacture, considers that the amount of capital and the number of hands employed in the bobbin net trade may be thus estimated.—(Published August, 1833.)

Capital employed in spinning and doubling the Yarn.		Number of Hands employed.	
L.	£.		
Fixed capital in 85 spinning and 34 doubling factories—724,000 spinning 296,700 doubling spindles	716,000	In spinning: adults, 4,400; children, 5,500	10,900
Floating capital in spinners' and doublers' stock, and necessary sundries	200,000	In doubling: adults, 1,300; children, 2,000	3,300
Deduct 1-8th employed for foreign bobbin net trade	155,000	Deduct 1-8th employed for foreign demand	2,300
Total capital in spinning and doubling for English bobbin net trade	760,000		11,300
Capital employed in Bobbin Net making.			
Fixed capital in 25 factories, principally for power machines	85,000	In power net making: adults, 1,500; youths, 1,000; children, 500; women and girls, mending, 2,000	5,000
1,101 power machines, averaging 11-4ths wide	170,000	In hand machine working: small machine owners, 4,000; journeymen and apprentices, 4,000; winders, 4,000; mendors, 4,000	16,000
9,800 hand machines, averaging 9-4ths wide	207,000	In mending, pearting, drawing, finishing, &c.	36,000
Floating capital in stock on hand: Power owners	150,000	In embroidering: at present very uncertain; probably about	100,000
Hand owners	250,000	Total of hands employed	116,800
Capital in embroidering, preparing, and stock	250,000		
Total capital employed in the trade	£ 1,308,000		

* I expressed our conviction, in the former edition of this work, that Mr. Felkin had exaggerated the number of persons employed; and we observe, that in this estimate the number is materially diminished; but it must be remarked, that during the last 2 years an extraordinary depression has taken place in the embroidery branch, and many have abandoned the trade.

In 1831 (*vide* former edition of this work), the annual produce was estimated at 23,400,000 square yards, worth 1,891,875*l.* It is now estimated at 30,771,000 square yards,

* Since this article was printed in our first edition, Mr. Heathcoat was pointed out to us as the original inventor of the bobbin net machine, and that, prior to his patent being obtained, bobbin net by machinery was unknown, although numerous attempts had been made to produce it by its means. Mr. Brunel, engineer, who was examined, as a witness, in the action *Boville v. Moore*, tried before Sir Vinery Gibbs, in March, 1816, stated in reference to this machine, that when Mr. Heathcoat had separated one half of the threads, and placed them on a beam as warp threads, and made the bobbin which carried the other half of the threads act between those warp threads, so as to produce Buckinghamshire or pillow lace, *the lace machine was invented*. Relying upon the authenticity of his statement, we feel it due to Mr. Heathcoat to give this explanation.

worth 1,850,650*l*. It would therefore appear that 7,000,000 square yards more per annum are now produced for about the same amount of wages and profits. This increase in quantity is understood to have arisen from the new and improved machinery which in the mean time has been introduced. At this moment, there are, perhaps, 20 new applications of known principles, all tending to promote variety and increased production; but it is doubtful if any new principle has been brought into operation. A considerable increase has also taken place in bobbin net machinery on the Continent, particularly at Calais, where, in 1823, there were not 35 machines, and, perhaps, not 100 on the Continent altogether. Mr Felkin states the number of frames now employed there, as under:—

Calais	600	8-4ths 11 point hand circular quillings. 100 of these built this year and last.	Paris	10	hand machines chiefly.
Do.	60	7-4th 11 point hand levers.	Lyons	50	do. do.
Do.	45	various widths; old machines, pinbars, traverses, &c.	Villages in the north of France	340	do. do.
Boulogne	80	hand circular; chiefly 8-4th quillings.	Switzerland	80	nearly all hand machines.
St. Omers	30	hand machines; plain nets.	Saxony	70	do. do.
Donay	145	part power, part hand machines; plain net.	Austria	60	power and hand do.
Lisle	120	chiefly 8-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths, power; plain nets.	Russia and Prussia	20	probably; and both hand and power.
Ghent	35	power, 10-4ths.			
St. Quentin	30	chiefly hand; plain nets.			
Do.	80	8-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths, power; plain nets chiefly.			
Caen	35	hand; quillings chiefly.			
			Total	1,850	machines.

The produce of these machines is estimated at 9,924,000 square yards of net, of the value in English money of 570,250*l*. In France alone, it was stated in an address presented to the Chamber of Deputies in March, 1833, that bobbin net to the value of 1,000,000*l*, sterling was annually used in that country, formed of equal moieties of French and English manufacture. But in other parts of Europe, where the manufacture was previously unknown, it is now also beginning to be established. Besides Austria, Russia, and Prussia, it is stated that orders have been sent to this country for bobbin net frames from Barcelona and Astorga in Spain, and even from some places in Persia. The attention of government has been called to the circumstance, and measures taken to prevent the illegal exportation of machinery. At a public meeting, held in Nottingham in August last, a committee was formed for the same purpose.

The population of Nottingham and the surrounding villages in 1811, when the bobbin net manufacture commenced, was 47,000; the present number is 79,000. As the hosiery and the point net trade are understood to have declined in the mean time, and no other branch materially advanced or sprung up, this large increase may fairly be attributed to the bobbin net manufacture.

By comparing the value of 1,270,000 lbs. of Sea Island cotton, worth 148,000*l*, and about 10,000*l* worth of thrown silk, which appears to be annually used in this manufacture, with the manufactured value of the same, worked into 30,771,000 square yards of bobbin net, the estimated value of which is 1,850,650*l*, the great national utility of this trade becomes at once evident. A clear surplus of more than a pound sterling is realised upon every pound avoirdupois of the raw material, which is distributed over the trade in rent, profit, and wages, and this is altogether independent of the profits arising from embroidering, in itself a most extensive and important branch. About half, or perhaps three-fourths, of this production is supposed to be exported in a plain state, chiefly to Hamburg, the Leipzig and Frankfort fairs, Antwerp and the rest of Belgium, to France (contraband), Italy, Sicily, and North and South America. Of the remainder, three-fourths are sold unembroidered, and the remaining fourth embroidered, in this country.

The English manufacture from machinery is now confined to *point net*, *warp net*, and *bobbin net*, so called from the peculiar construction of the machines by which they are produced. There were various other descriptions made; viz. *two-plain net*, *square or tuck knotted net*, the *fish mesh net*, and the *platted or Urling's net*; but they are now discontinued—(*Gravenor Henson*.) Nottingham is the *dépot* of the lace trade; and the supplies, collected from all the surrounding villages, and even from the more distant counties where it is manufactured, are thence distributed to the four quarters of the world.

Present condition of the Lace Trade, Wages, &c.—We are grieved to say that the manufacture, not only of pillow but also of Nottingham lace, is at this moment in a state of great depression. The growth of the latter has been the means of destroying the former; but as the new manufacture is by far the most valuable, the change, though severely felt by many thousands of poor persons in Bucks, Bedford, and other counties, is, in a national point of view, decidedly advantageous. The depression in the Nottingham lace trade seems to be the result of its previous prosperity; which, besides contributing to the extraordinary increase in the powers of production, attracted too much capital and too many hands to the trade. So long as the demand kept pace with the supply, workmen were kept in full employment, wages and profits were good, and the stocks on hand small. But of late years the supply has been a question of *quantity* rather than of *quality*, and prices have consequently suffered a great depression. Lace, having become a common ornament, easily accessible to all classes, has lost its attractions in the fashionable circles, by which it was

formerly patronised, so that dresses, which in our drawing tasteful patterns in lace, are

The wages of the power to 18s. per week—(*Felkin*), eighth in number, and one chine than heretofore have shifts, or 18 hours per day, wages; the effect of which plaited in value), and reduce the increase in power machine workmen (already below the accumulating production, by immediate amelioration in the embroidering branch; he employed, and had to leave mens of embroidery (some 14 hours a day), the young filiation of the embroiderers in tion of the Belgians, who is easy to account for. The c Many have now abandoned though not a much more pro cation of thread lace, worki age, than *two shillings* and Ten years ago they could, w

The health of the power m factories are neither hot nor the machines. Hand machin "shifts," the men are seldom lered, that the gradual depre riorate the general health of The embroidery frame is, per at a tender age; and from co state of inactivity, they are pulmonary disease. Notwith general health is understood these employments, the hou purely domestic employment of the latter depends on the sities place filial considerati since.

The most celebrated foreign is

1. *Brussels*, the most valuable. There ground, having a hexagon mesh, formed by crossed filis to a perpendicular line of moe made of silk—mooshe partly straight, and lra is worked separately, and set on by the

2. *Machine*; a hexagon mesh formed of 5 plaited to a perpendicular line or pillar. T is net.

3. *Valenciennes*; an irregular hexagonal mesh and plaited at the top of the mesh. a die net similar to Mechlin lace.

4. *Lille*; a diamond mesh, formed of 5 filis.

5. *Alençon* (called blond); hexagon of 2 to Buckingham lace) considered the most the coblin.

6. *Alençon Point*; formed of 8 threads and square meshes alternately.

LACE, a word used in t supposing them standards, or LADING, BILL OF. See LAGAN. See FLOTZAK. LA GUAYRA, the principi Caraccas, on the Caribbean S 6,000. In 1810, the populat being a consequence of the lo the massacres and proscription city of Caraccas, of which La curse, from 43,000 in 1810;

Part.—There is neither quany had to the north, at from ½ to 4

formerly patronised, so that very rich lace is no longer in demand. And many articles of dress, which in our drawing-rooms and ball-rooms, lately consisted of the most costly and beautiful patterns in lace, are now either superseded, or made of a different manufacture.

The wages of the *power loom* workmen have fallen, within the last 4 years, from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*s.* per week—(Felkin, p. 2.) and, in 1830 and 1831, machines had increased one eighth in number, and one sixth in capacity of production. But wider or speedier machines than heretofore have since come into more general use, worked by 3 men in 6 hour shifts, or 18 hours per day, and calculated to produce about a *fourth more net for the same wages*; the effect of which is to supersede the single-handed machines, (now much depreciated in value), and reduce many of the small owners to journeymen. The tendency of the increase in power machinery is still further to depreciate the wages of the *hand machine* workmen (already below the standard of the power loom weaver); and the increased and accumulating production, beyond a proportionate demand, renders it hopeless to expect any immediate amelioration in their condition. A favourable reaction is now taking place in the *embroidering* branch; but many of the embroiderers in Nottingham were recently unemployed, and had to leave the trade; and even for the most splendid and beautiful specimens of embroidery (some of which have occupied 6 weeks, working 8 days a week and 14 hours a day), the young women did not earn more than 1*s.* a day. The depressed condition of the embroiderers is believed to be owing in no inconsiderable degree to the competition of the Belgians, who have acquired a superiority in this department which it is not easy to account for. The condition of the *pillow lace* workers is still more deplorable. Many have now abandoned that pursuit for straw plaiting, which offers a more certain, though not a much more profitable employment; but those who still linger on in the fabrication of thread lace, working from 12 to 14 hours a day, cannot obtain more, on the average, than *two shillings and sixpence a week* for their anxious and unremitting labour. Ten years ago they could, with greater ease, earn 10*s.* a week, working only 8 hours a day.

The health of the power machine workman is, on the whole, understood to be good; the factories are neither hot nor confined; and the hands have only to superintend, not work the machines. Hand machine labour is much heavier; but as it is the custom to work by "shifts," the men are seldom more than 6 hours a day at the frame. It is, however, believed, that the gradual depression of wages, requiring increased exertion, will tend to deteriorate the general health of this class, particularly of those employed in wide machines. The embroidery frame is, perhaps, the most destructive. The workers in general, commence at a tender age; and from constantly leaning over the frame, while their bodies remain in a state of inactivity, they are frequently distorted in their persons, and become the victims of pulmonary disease. Notwithstanding the sedentary habits of the pillow lace workers, their general health is understood to be better than that of the lace embroiderers; but, in both these employments, the hours of labour are too long for children. They are, however, purely domestic employments, under the superintendence of parents; but as the existence of the latter depends on the quantity of labour they can bring into operation, their necessities place filial considerations beyond the reach of legislative, or even social, interference.

The most celebrated foreign laces are—

1. *Brunois*; the most valuable. There are 2 kinds; *Brunois ground*, having a hexagon mesh, formed by plaiting and twisting 4 strands of flax in a perpendicular line of mesh; *Brunois veuve ground*, made of silk—meshes partly straight, and partly arched. The pattern is worked separately, and set on by the needle.
2. *Mechlin*; a hexagon mesh formed of 8 flax threads twisted and plaited in a perpendicular line or pillar. The pattern is worked in the net.
3. *Falencienne*; an irregular hexagonal form of 8 threads, partly twisted and plaited at the top of the mesh. The pattern is worked in the net similar to Mechlin lace.
4. *Lille*; a diamond mesh, formed of 8 threads plaited to a pillar.
5. *Alencon* (called blind); hexagon of 8 threads, twisted similar to buckingham lace; considered the most inferior of any made on the cushion.
6. *Alencon Point*; formed of 8 threads to a pillar, with octagon and square meshes alternately.

The French nets made by machinery, are—

1. *Single Presspoint*, called, when not ornamented, *tulle*, and when ornamented, *dentelle*; made of silk; is an inferior net, but is attractive from the beautiful manner in which it is stiffened.
 2. *Tulle Berlin*; so called from its being invented at Berlin, and the stitch being removed 3 needles from its place of looping; is fanciful and ornamented in appearance, but not in demand in England.
 3. *Tulle de Tulle*, made from the warp net machine; mesh of 8 descriptions, which gives a shaded appearance to the net.
 4. *Tulle Anglaise* is double pressed point lace.
- Bobbin net*, principally made by English emigrants, who have *Warp net*, settled in France.

* * * We are indebted for this learned and very excellent article to Mr. Robert Slater, of Finsbury Street, London.

LACK, a word used in the East Indies to denote the sum of 100,000 rupees, which, supposing them standard, or sicca, at 2*s.* 6*d.*, amounts to 12,500*l.* sterling.

LADING, BILL OF. See **BILL OF LADING.**

LAGAN. See **FLOTSAM.**

LA GUAYRA, the principal sea-port of the republic of Venezuela, in the province of Caracas, on the Caribbean Sea, in lat. 10° 36' 19" N., lon. 67° 6' 45" W. Population 6,000. In 1810, the population is believed to have amounted to 13,000; the reduction being a consequence of the loss of life caused by the tremendous earthquake of 1812, and the massacres and proscriptions incident to the revolutionary war. The population of the city of Caracas, of which La Guayra may be considered as the port, fell off, from the same cause, from 43,000 in 1810; to 23,000 in 1830; but they are now both increasing.

Port.—There is neither quay nor mole at La Guayra. Ships moor E.N.E. and W.S.W., with their head to the north, at from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from the land, in from 9 to 16 fathoms. The holding ground

in good; and notwithstanding the openness of the road, vessels properly found in anchors and cables run very little risk of being driven from their moorings.

Trade.—The principal articles of export are coffee, cacao, indigo, hides, sarsaparilla, &c. The quantities and values of these articles exported in 1829, 1830, and 1831, are exhibited in the following Table:—

Years.	Coffee.		Cacao.		Indigo.		Hides.		Sarsaparilla.		Sugar.	
	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Number.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.
1829	4,822,221	83,758	1,834,322	45,020	865,974	1,099	8,993	2,295	4,201	93	2,314	—
1830	4,870,609	81,301	2,121,448	87,045	917,658	39,237	6,990	2,130	32,172	782	75,410	—
1831	5,268,646	69,390	1,791,814	63,741	102,055	31,456	12,508	4,189	14,990	965	232,672	2,228

The principal articles of import are cotton, linen, and woollen goods, principally from England; with provisions, hats, machinery and utensils, hardware, wine, &c. The entire value of the imports in 1831, was supposed to amount to 102,503*l.*; of which 62,423*l.* was furnished by England; 26,082*l.* by Germany; 32,758*l.* by the United States; 39,344*l.* at second hand by St. Thomas; and the residue by France, Spain, &c.

The duties are moderate. Cottons and linsens pay 27 per cent. *ad valorem*. Smuggling has been very prevalent; but efforts have recently been made, by establishing a sort of coast-guard, to effect its suppression.

Arrivals in 1831.

Countries.			Vessels.	Tons.	Countries.			Vessels.	Tons.
England	-	-	9	1,411	United States	-	99	5,234	
France	-	-	4	435	Colombia	-	16	98	
Germany	-	-	4	74					
Holland	-	-	13	648					
Denmark	-	-	17	1,222					
					Total		91	8,726	

Port Charges payable by a Ship of 300 Tons, discharging and loading at the Port of La Guayra.

	National.		Foreign (not privileged).			National.		Foreign (not privileged).	
	Dollars.	cents.	Dollars.	cents.		Dollars.	cents.	Dollars.	cents.
Tonnage duty	37	50	150	0	Municipal bill of health	0	0	0	0
Entrance fee	4	0	0	0	Permit to load, and stamp	1	12 1/2	0	0
Anchorage	12	0	16	0	Certificate of sea-worthiness from captain of port, prior to loading, and stamp	0	0	0	0
Captain of port's fee	0	0	8	0					
Interpreter's fee and translating manifest	8	0	4	0					
Permit to discharge and stamp	1	12 1/2	1	12 1/2	Value in sterling money	£17	15 10	£39	14 3
Health officer's fee	4	0	4	0					
Municipal charge for water	40	0	40	0					

N. B.—A ship introducing a cargo, and sailing in ballast, would be liable to all the above charges, with the exception of the last two.

The charge for water is levied without regard to tonnage; viz. sloops and schooners, 20 dollars each, brig, 20, and ships 40.

Port Regulations.—On casting anchor, a visit is paid by the collector of customs, or his agent, accompanied by other officers, who take from the master his register, manifest, and muster-roll, and an officer is left on board until the cargo is discharged. The master must, within 24 hours after his arrival, when the permit to discharge is granted, and within 3 days all invoices must be presented. The discharge completed, the same officers repair on board to examine the vessel, and all being found in order, the officer is withdrawn. The clearing of a vessel outwards (that has entered with cargo) in ballast is then completed by paying the port charges; proof whereof being produced, the permission to sail is signed by the governor and harbour master. If the vessel take cargo on board, then the same formality, as to visiting, is pursued, as on the entry of a vessel.

Credit.—Goods imported are almost invariably sold upon credit; those exported are, on the other hand always sold for ready money. The terms of credit vary from 2 to 6 months, or more. Bankruptcy is very rare.

Commissioners, Brokers, &c.—Any one who pleases may undertake the functions of broker, factor, or merchant in Venezuela. The only obligation is the paying the patent or licence, that must be taken out by every one exercising such trades. This varies, according to the business, from about 1*l.* to 4*l.*, to 6*l.*, 18*l.*, 4*l.*, and falls on natives as well as foreigners. The rates of commission are as follows:—

On sales of goods imported	5 per cent.	But when monies are collected, and remittance is ordered in bills of exchange, including guarantee of the same.	2 1/2 per cent.
Quarantining the same without regard to time	2 1/2	Negotiating and indorsing bills	2 1/2
On sales of produce	1 1/2	On money remitted as return for goods sold	1 1/2
On shipping produce, as returns for goods imported, or upon orders where cash is provided by the purchaser	2 1/2	On bills remitted as return for goods sold, including guarantee thereof, as may be agreed	1 to 2 1/2
But upon orders where the amount has to be drawn for, or when provision is made in bills of exchange	8	Advancing money upon letters of credit, and drawing for the same	2 1/2
Collecting monies, and remitting the same	8	Collecting or procuring freight for vessels	8

Insurance.—There are no establishments for conducting the business of insurance in Venezuela. **Money, Weights, and Measures.**—The currency of the country consists of silver money, known by the name of *escudos*, divided into dollars of 8 reals, 4 dn. of 3 reals, besides reals, 4 reals, and quattiles or 1/2 reals. This money is of very unequal weight and purity, the coins issued since the commencement of the revolutionary war having been often a good deal defaced. The real should be worth 5*d.* sterling.

Weights and measures same as those of Spain, but it is intended to introduce the British Imperial gallon.

Taxes.—Real tare is taken both at the Custom-house and by the merchant.

Commercial Prospects.—The commerce and industry of Venezuela suffered severely from the revolutionary struggle of which she has been the theatre. But the country is now comparatively tranquil, and there seem to be good reasons for thinking that she is about to enter on a career of prosperity. As the riches of Venezuela consist entirely of the products of her agriculture, the legislature has wisely asserted itself to give it all the encouragement possible. In this view tithes have been abolished, and their collection was finally to cease on the 1st of January, 1834. The tobacco monopoly has also

been abolished, and invites the prospect of their being taken by Spain of the interests; and it is to be 1 We have derived these from Ker Porter, the British con

(LAMAR, formerly Peru, on the west coast population, 2,000.)

In 1833 Lamar is declared public. His situation is, he and is obliged to import at Arica, on the other. The country, where the towns at La Cruz is conveyed across the mines being brought in and chichilla skins, from desert; the copper is founded in the shape of ore.

Pera possesses a long navigation to the Bay of Pica, which the Bolivian government which besides greatly impairs the interest of Arica, which is of her trade. Ellitherto, however, Lamar at present engrosses the trade.

We submit the decree of

1. From and after the 1st of July 1834 shall be absolutely free and open to every nation every nation may enter any place, without being subjected to any tax, or during their stay, or

3. They shall be free from any tax, or any other charge, by levying, or reloading of cargo, or whatever denomination.

4. Goods may be deposited in private warehouses on the part of the government.

5. The custom-house of Port Lamar will be a commissioner's office, for the purpose the transportation of goods in

6. Wherever goods are to be sent to be submitted to the commissioner, to be weighed.

7. The commissioner will register their valuation, made by two merchants of their owners, of the person of who will be sent. This is to be signed by who at the same time binds himself to the custom house for which they will be the transportation of goods in

8. The commissioner shall be the collector of the custom-house for which specifying the numbers, characters, and quantities of the goods.

9. The goods must not be carried by any other means and the public may pass through any place at which entered, the permits must be exhibited with their seals unbroken may be necessary.

(See Digest of Commercial Law.)

43. **Balti, Abregó de la G. LAMB-SKINS (Ger. Piel de carderos).** The colour of the wool.

other colour. English lambs introduced by Merino of quality, arrived at a pitch of the best fleeces in Spain on an average of 1831 are supplied by Italy. They

LAMP (Ger. Lampe) instrument used for the producing artificial light.

It is unnecessary to give a further remark that the decrees issued in producing a lamp one of the most ingenious and important of Mr. Huddle, of the great importance of Sir

"Besides the facilities afforded, it has enabled the direct expedition, both the presence by each with a candle, as is in order to ascertain its present

facts, prove the actual state of the lamp, in an experiment and as usual in matters of mere conjecture.

been abolished, and invitations have been held out to foreigners to settle in the country; but there is little prospect of their being much attended to, at least for some considerable time. The final recognition by Spain of the independence of this and the other new states would materially promote their interests; and it is to be hoped that it may not be much longer deferred.

We have derived these details principally from the carefully drawn up *Answers* made by Sir Robert Ker Porter, the British consul at Caracas, to the *Circular Queries*.

(LAMAR, formerly COCHISA, a sea-port of the republic of Bolivia, the ci-devant Upper Peru, on the west coast of South America, in lat. 22° 39' 30" S., long. 70° 12' W. Population, 2,000.)

In 1833 Lamar was declared a free port, and in it centres almost the whole foreign trade of the republic. Its situation is, however, very unfavourable. It labours under a great want of fresh water; and is obliged to import all its provisions by sea, either from Valparaiso, on the one hand, or from Arica, on the other. The desert of Atacama lies between it and the internal and populous part of the country, where the towns of Potosi, Cochabamba, Chiriqui, &c. are situated. The produce imported at Lamar is conveyed across the desert on the backs of mules to the interior; the gold and silver of the mines being brought in the same way to the port to be shipped. These, with copper, saltpetre, and chinchilla skins, form the principal articles of export. Saltpetre is found in large quantities in the desert; the copper is found near the coast, and owing to the scarcity of fuel, most part of it is exported in the shape of ore.

Peru possesses a long narrow slip of land, stretching along the coast of the Pacific from Arequipa to the Bay of Pica, which ought naturally to belong to Bolivia, being, in fact the *littoral* of the latter. The Bolivian government has set on foot various negotiations to obtain the cession of this tract, which, besides greatly improving the frontier of the republic, would, at the same time, render her mistress of Arica, which is, in all respects, much better fitted than Lamar for becoming the entrepôt of her trade. Hitherto, however, these negotiations have proved abortive, so that, as already stated, Lamar at present engrosses the whole foreign trade of the state.

We subjoin the decree constituting Lamar a free port:—

1. From and after the 1st of July of the present year, 1833, Port Lamar shall be absolutely free and open.
2. Vessels of every nation may enter this port and remain as long as they please, without being subjected to any tax whatever, either at arrival, or during their stay, or on their departure.
3. They shall be free from all duties of anchorage, tonnage, shifting, unloading, or reloading of cargo, deposit, storage, or any other of whatever denomination.
4. Goods may be deposited in private warehouses, without any interference on the part of the government.
5. The custom-house of Port Lamar is suppressed. In its stead will be a commissary's office, for the purpose of distributing permits for the transportation of goods into the interior.
6. Whichever goods are to be sent into the interior, they must first be presented to the commissary, together with the invoice corresponding.
7. The commissary will register them in a book, together with their valuation, made by two merchants of the place, and the names of their owners, of the person of whom, and the place where they are to be sent. This is to be signed by the person entering the goods, who at the same time binds himself to have them transported direct to the custom house for which they are destined, without opening any of the casks, bags, or other envelops, such of which shall be sealed, marked, and numbered before departure. These points are to be expressed in the permit.
8. The commissary shall by the earliest post send a notice to the collector of the custom-house for which any merchandise is destined, specifying the numbers, characters, quantities, and qualities of the several articles.
9. The goods must not be carried by any accustomed roads, but only through Catana and the public thoroughfares; and whenever they pass through any place at which a guard or commissary is stationed, the permits must be exhibited, in order that their arrival and their sale subsequent may be ascertained.

(See *Digest of Commercial Regulations published by the Government of the United States*, vol. iii. p. 413. *Bull. Abregé de la Géographie*, p. 1106.)—Sup.)

LAMB-SKINS (Ger. *Lammfelle*; Fr. *Peaux d'agneaux*; It. *Pelli agnelline*; Sp. *Pielles de corderos*). The value of lamb-skins varies according to the fineness, brilliancy, and colour of the wool. Black lamb-skins are more generally esteemed than those of any other colour. English lamb-skins are seldom to be met with perfectly black; but since the introduction of Merino sheep into this country, many of the white fleeces have, in point of quality, arrived at a pitch of perfection which justly entitles them to be ranked with some of the best fleeces in Spain. The importation of lamb-skins is immense, having amounted, on an average of 1831 and 1832, to 2,365,635. Eight tenths of the whole quantity are supplied by Italy. They are mostly used in the glove manufacture.

LAMP (Ger. *Lampe*; Fr. *Lampe*; It. *Lucerna*; Sp. *Lampara*; Rus. *Lampadu*), an instrument used for the combustion of liquid inflammable bodies, for the purpose of producing artificial light.

It is unnecessary to give any description of instruments that are so well known. We may, however, remark that the discovery of Sir H. Davy, who, by covering the flame with wire gauze, succeeded in producing a lamp that may be securely used in coal mines charged with inflammable gas; is one of the most ingenious and valuable that has ever been made. The following extracts from a communication of Mr. Huddell, one of the ablest and best-informed coal engineers in the kingdom, evince the great importance of Sir Humphry Davy's invention.

"Besides the facilities afforded by this invention to the working of coal mines abounding in fire damp, it has enabled the directors and superintendents to ascertain, with the utmost precision and expedition, both the presence, the quantity, and correct situation of the gas. Instead of creeping inch by inch with a candle, as is usual, along the galleries of a mine suspected to contain fire damp, in order to ascertain its presence, we walk firmly on with the safe lamp, and, with the utmost confidence, prove the actual state of the mine. By observing attentively the several appearances upon the flame of the lamp, in an examination of this kind, the cause of accidents which happened to the most experienced and cautious miners is completely developed; and this has hitherto been in a great measure matter of mere conjecture.

"It is not necessary that I should enlarge upon the national advantages which must necessarily result from an invention calculated to prolong our supply of mineral coal, because I think them obvious to every reflecting mind; but I cannot conclude without expressing my highest sentiments of admiration for those talents which have developed the properties, and controlled the power, of one of the most dangerous elements which human enterprise has hitherto had to encounter."

LAMP-BLACK (Ger. *Kienruss*; Fr. *Noir de fumée*; It. *Nero di fumo*, *Negrofumo*; Sp. *Negro de humo*). "The finest lamp-black is produced by collecting the smoke from a lamp with a long wick, which supplies more oil than can be perfectly consumed, or by suffering the flame to play against a metalline cover, which impedes the combustion, not only by conducting off part of the heat, but by obstructing the current of air. Lamp-black, however, is prepared in a much cheaper way for the demands of trade. The dregs which remain after the eliquation of pitch, or else small pieces of fir wood, are burned in furnaces of a peculiar construction, the smoke of which is made to pass through a long horizontal flue, terminating in a close boarded chamber. The roof of this chamber is made of coarse cloth, through which the current of air escapes, while the soot remains."—(*Ure's Dictionary*.)

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Custom-house, whose duty it is, upon landing any merchandise, to taste, weigh, measure, or otherwise examine the various articles, &c., and to take an account of the same. They are likewise styled searchers, and are to attend, and join with, the patent searchers, in execution of all cockets for the shipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts; and, in cases where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent searchers, are to certify the shipping thereof on the debentures.

LAPIS LAZULI. See **ULTRAMARINE**.

LAST, an uncertain quantity, varying in different countries, and with respect to different articles. Generally, however, a last is estimated at 4,000 lbs.; but there are great discrepancies.

The following quantities of different articles make a last, viz.—14 barrels of pitch, tar, or asphalt; 12 dozen of hides or skins; 18 barrels of cod-fish, potato, or meal; 20 cades, each of 1,000 herrings, every 1,000 ten handrats, and every 100 five score; 104 quarters of cole-seed; 10 quarters of corn or rape-seed; in some parts of England, 21 quarters of corn go to a last; 13 sacks of wool; 20 dickers (every dicker 12 skins) of leather; 18 barrels of unpacked herrings; 10,000 pilchards; 24 barrels (each barrel containing 100 lbs.) of gunpowder; 1,700 lbs. of feathers or flax.

Last is sometimes used to signify the burden or load of a ship.

LATH, LATHS (Du. *Latten*; Fr. *Lattes*; Ger. *Latten*; It. *Correnti*; Rus. *Slégi*), long, thin, and narrow slips of wood, nailed to the rafters of a roof or ceiling, in order to sustain the covering. Laths are distinguished into various sorts, according to the different kinds of wood of which they are made, and the different purposes to which they are to be applied. They are also distinguished, according to their length, into 5, 4, and 3 feet laths. Their ordinary breadth is about an inch, and their thickness $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch. Laths are sold by the bundle, which is generally called a hundred; but 7 score, or 140, are computed in the hundred for three feet laths; 6 score or 120, in such as are 4 feet; and for those which are denominated 5 feet, the common hundred, or 5 score.

LATTEN, a name sometimes given to tin plates; that is, to thin plates of iron tinned over.—(See **TRX**.)

LAWN (Ger. and Fr. *Linon*; It. *Linone*, *Rensa*; Sp. *Cambray clarin*), a sort of clear or open worked cambric, which, till of late years, was exclusively manufactured in France and Flanders. At present, the lawn manufacture is established in Scotland, and in the north of Ireland, where articles of this kind are brought to such a degree of perfection, as nearly to rival the productions of the French and Flemish manufactories. In the manufacture of lawns, finer flaxen thread is used than in that of cambric.

LAZARETTO. See **QUARANTINE**.

LEAD (Ger. *Bley*, *Blei*; Du. *Lood*, *Loot*; Fr. *Plomb*; It. *Piombo*; Sp. *Plomo*; Rus. *Swinez*; Pol. *Ołow*; Lat. *Plumbum*; Arab. *Anuk*; Hind. *Sisa*; Pers. *Surb*), one of the most useful metals. It is of a bluish white colour, and when newly melted is very bright, but it soon becomes tarnished by exposure to the air. It has scarcely any taste, but emits, on friction, a peculiar smell. It stains paper or the fingers of a bluish colour. When taken internally, it acts as a poison. It is one of the softest of the metals: its specific gravity is 11.35. It is very malleable, and may be reduced to thin plates by the hammer; it may also be drawn out into wire, but its ductility is not very great. Its tenacity is so small, that a lead wire $\frac{1}{16}$ inch diameter is capable of supporting only 18.4 lbs. without breaking. It melts at 612°.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Lead is a metal of much importance, as, from its durability, it is extensively used in the construction of water-pipes and cisterns, as a covering for flat surfaces or tops of buildings, &c. &c. Its salts, which are poisonous, are used in medicine to form sedative external applications; and frequently not a little, by the disreputable wine merchant, to stop the progress of acetous fermentation. Wine thus poisoned, may, however, be readily distinguished, a small quantity of the bicarbonate of potassa producing a white precipitate, and sulphureted hydrogen a black one. Pure wine will not be affected by either of these tests. "The oxide

of lead enters into the composition of lead glass, and is also used in glazing common red pans become poisonous when other metals, forms pewter; with lead, &c."—(*Joyce's Chem. Minerals*.)

The lead mines of Great Britain to 1829, however, it would seem the year now mentioned, lead was not so abundant as it was formerly, and it is certain, that the ore of these mines was not so rich as it was in their working. The produce of the lead mines of Derbyshire annually has been declining since the year 1829. Those on the border of the field, at an average, from 11,000 to 12,000 tons.—(*General Report of Scotland*.) The Welsh lead mines have suffered from inundations. Subjoined is

An Account of the Exports and Imports of Lead in Great Britain, from 1829 to 1833.

Year.	Fig and Rolled Lead and Sls.		Litharge.		Red Lead.	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1829	15,300	205	226	226	226	226
1830	15,648	573	243	243	243	243
1831	12,784	576	441	441	441	441
1832	11,044	816	280	280	280	280
1833	10,633	586	323	323	323	323
1829	8,616	331	323	323	323	323
1830	10,222	901	408	408	408	408
1831	13,275	1,140	534	534	534	534
1832	10,001	1,545	323	323	323	323
1833	6,822	463	283	283	283	283
1831	7,442	490	520	520	520	520
1832	6,777	335	281	281	281	281
1833	12,181	433	390	390	390	390

An Account of British Lead and Lead Ore, from 1829 to the 1st of January, 1833; and of the Imports of Lead and Lead Ore, from 1829 to the 1st of January, 1833; Pounds omitted in the Columns, 1

Countries to which exported.	Fig. and Rolled Lead and Sls.		Tons.
	Tons.	Tons.	
Spain	1,384	1,384	1,384
Sweden	1	1	1
Norway	1	1	1
Denmark	1	1	1
Prussia	1	1	1
Germany	1	1	1
The Netherlands	1	1	1
France	1	1	1
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	1	1	1
Spain and the Canaries	1	1	1
Gibraltar	1	1	1
Italy	1	1	1
Malta	1	1	1
Ionian Islands	1	1	1
Turkey and the Levant	1	1	1
Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	1	1	1
East Indies and China	2,908	2,908	2,908
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	808	808	808
Cape of Good Hope	82	82	82
Other parts of Africa	284	284	284
British North American colonies	801	801	801
British West Indies	413	413	413
Foreign West Indies	69	69	69
United States of America	4,048	4,048	4,048
Brazil	1	1	1
Mexico	1	1	1
Columbia	1	1	1
Chili	1	1	1
Peru	1	1	1
State of La Plata	1	1	1
Total	12,181	12,181	12,181

Full of Prices. Spanish Lead Mines, amount of the imports, and the extent

of lead enters into the composition of white glass, which it renders clearer and more fusible; it is also used in glazing common earthen vessels; hence the reason that pickles kept in common red pans become poisonous. Lead, with tin, and a small quantity of some of the other metals, forms pewter; with antimony, it forms the alloy of which printing types are made.—(*Joyce's Chem. Mineralogy.*)

The lead mines of Great Britain have been wrought from a very remote era. Previously to 1829, however, it would seem that those of Derbyshire only had been explored. But in the year now mentioned, lead mines were discovered in Wales; and the fact being ascertained, that the ore of these mines produced some silver, increased attention was paid to their working. The produce of the lead mines at present wrought in Great Britain cannot be accurately ascertained. Mr. Stevenson supposes (*art. England, Edin. Ency.*) that the lead mines of Derbyshire annually produce 5,000 or 6,000 tons; but they seem to be on the decline. Those on the borders of Cumberland and Northumberland are supposed to yield, at an average, from 11,000 to 12,000 tons. The total produce of the Scotch lead mines is estimated at 65,000 bars; which, as each bar is 1 cwt. 1 qr. 2 lbs., is equal to 4,120 tons.—(*General Report of Scotland, vol. iii. Addenda, p. 7.*) Some of the most productive of the Welsh lead mines have either been wrought out, or have been rendered unserviceable from inundations. Subjoined is

An Account of the Exports and Imports of Lead and Lead Ore, &c. for Thirteen Years, ending the 5th of January, 1833.

Year.	Exports.						Imports.			
	Pig and Rolled Lead and Shot.	Litharge.	Red Lead.	White Lead.	Lead Ore.	Total British Lead and Lead Ore.	Foreign Lead in Fig.	Foreign Lead Ore.	Lead.	Lead Ore.
1821	18,300	395	229	603	252	19,779	4	-	4	-
1822	15,646	573	242	652	287	17,400	-	-	-	275
1823	13,784	576	441	574	455	15,330	60	12	73	811
1824	11,044	816	220	549	325	12,914	228	9	369	177
1825	10,333	686	338	885	350	12,991	749	-	712	191
1826	8,616	831	338	616	139	10,560	3,655	-	6,193	1,603
1827	10,222	901	408	629	249	12,409	1,847	-	913	1,129
1828	13,275	1,140	534	1,012	256	16,217	2,282	-	2,104	1,076
1829	10,001	1,545	322	1,133	195	13,256	1,785	-	2,450	5,016
1830	6,822	463	322	750	220	8,647	1,700	-	1,533	175
1831	7,442	490	520	662	194	9,308	859	-	662	341
1832	6,777	335	261	435	105	7,933	1,234	-	1,232	321
1833	12,151	433	396	652	236	13,868	937	-	1,029	269

An Account of British Lead and Lead Ore exported from the United Kingdom from the 1st of January, 1832, to the 1st of January, 1833; distinguishing the Countries to which it was sent.—(Quartars and Pounds omitted in the Columns, but allowed for in the summing up.)

Countries to which exported.	British Lead and Lead Ore.						Foreign Lead and Lead Ore.	
	Pig and Rolled Lead and Shot.	Litharge.	Red Lead.	White Lead.	Lead Ore.	Total of British Lead and Lead Ore.	Pig Lead.	White Lead.
Russia	1,264 8	141 3	0 10	10 11	-	1,486 6	498 10	-
Sweden	48 3	0 11	11 9	44 16	-	115 0	-	-
Norway	51 7	0 16	0 1	18 4	-	70 8	-	-
Denmark	138 18	18 4	9 17	125 11	-	292 5	-	-
Prussia	69 6	32 11	7 1	49 18	-	156 1	-	-
Germany	173 13	129 19	123 3	64 0	-	477 17	4 7	-
The Netherlands	198 0	29 10	86 0	2 10	149 0	456 1	371 18	-
France	65 7	0 19	4 5	-	-	70 11	-	22 14
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	104 3	5 0	7 10	86 11	-	195 5	-	-
Spain and the Canaries	27 0	1 4	2 0	3 1	-	38 6	-	-
Cyprus	16 15	-	0 4	-	-	16 15	-	-
Gibraltar	40 14	45 0	17 11	3 7	45 5	181 17	-	-
Malta	4 0	-	1 4	3 5	-	7 5	-	-
Ionian Islands	1 0	-	1 4	-	-	6 4	-	-
Turkey and the Levant	65 18	0 10	4 15	4 0	-	64 17	-	22 16
Iles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	248 8	0 15	0 1	30 7	-	289 7	8 4	-
East Indies and China	2,308 12	-	56 14	15 10	-	2,379 16	15 14	-
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	206 18	-	0 9	15 15	-	223 9	15 0	-
Cape of Good Hope	85 7	-	4 26	6 17	1 10	98 11	-	-
Other parts of Africa	284 15	-	-	11 10	40 6	336 5	-	-
British North American colonies	382 15	-	6 3	91 12	-	480 11	-	-
British West Indies	412 7	-	0 13	22 14	-	436 14	-	-
Foreign West Indies	69 5	-	-	4 0	-	73 5	-	-
United States of America	4,844 14	22 0	42 18	51 2	-	4,969 17	-	-
Spain	423 3	-	0 5	0 12	-	423 11	-	-
Mexico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 18
Colombia	2 18	0 7	-	-	-	3 3	-	-
Chili	11 7	0 7	-	-	-	17 6	-	-
Peru	7 0	0 7	-	-	-	7 7	-	-
States of La Plata	14 7	0 8	0 4	3 10	-	17 6	9 6	-
Total	12,151 9	432 14	896 5	652 5	225 15	13,396 3	956 16	22 18

Fall of Prices. Spanish Lead Mines.—The falling off in the exports of British lead, the increased amount of the imports, and the extraordinary fall that has taken place in the price of lead since 1825,

value of the finished articles, then the value of the manufacture must exceed 16,000,000*l.* We, however, are inclined to think that we shall be nearer the truth, if we take the smaller sum, and estimate the value of the manufacture at 12,500,000*l.* To get the number of persons employed, we have first to deduct from this sum, 4,000,000*l.* for the material, which leaves 8,500,000*l.* as the aggregate amount of profits, wages, &c. And setting aside 20 per cent. as profit, rent of workshops, compensation for capital wasted, &c., we have a sum of 6,800,000*l.* remaining as wages: and supposing those employed as shoemakers, saddlers, glovers, &c., to make at an average 30*l.* a year each, the entire number of such persons will amount to 226,000.

This, however, does not give the total number of persons employed in the leather trade, inasmuch as it excludes the tanners, curriers, &c., employed in dressing and preparing the leather. But if, from the value of the prepared leather, 4,000,000*l.*, we deduct 1,000,000*l.* for the value of the hides, and 2,000,000*l.* for tanners' and curriers' profits, including the expense of lime, bark, pits, &c., we shall have 1,000,000*l.* left as wages. Now, as the wages of tanners, curriers, leather dressers, &c., may, we believe, be taken at 35*l.* a year at an average, we shall have 28,300 as the number employed in these departments. And adding these to the persons employed in manufacturing the leather, we have a grand total of 254,300 persons employed in the various departments of the business.

Those who may be inclined to suspect these estimates of exaggeration, would do well to reflect on the value of the shoes annually manufactured. It is generally supposed that the expenditure upon shoes may be taken, at an average of the whole population, at 10*s.* each individual, young and old; which, supposing the population to amount to 16,000,000, would give 160*m.* millions for the value of shoes only; but taking the value of the shoes at only 8*s.* 6*d.* each individual, it gives 6,800,000*l.* for the amount. Mr. Stevenson (art. *England, Edin. Ency.*) supposes that the value of the saddlery, harness, gloves, &c. may be assumed to be at least equal to that of the shoes; but we believe this is too high, and have taken it at 1,100,000*l.* below the value of the shoes. In estimating the value of the entire manufacture at 12,500,000*l.*, we incline to think that we are as near the mark as it is easy to come in such investigations.

In speaking of the leather manufacture, Dr. Campbell has the following striking observations:—"If we look abroad on the instruments of husbandry, on the implements used in most mechanic trades, on the structure of a multitude of engines and machines; or if we contemplate at home the necessary parts of our clothing—breeches, shoes, boots, gloves—or the furniture of our houses, the books on our shelves, the harness of our horses, and even the substance of our carriages; what do we see but instances of human industry exerted upon leather? What an aptitude has this single material in a variety of circumstances for the relief of our necessities, and supplying conveniences in every state and stage of life? Without it, or even without it in the plenty we have it, to what difficulties should we be exposed!—(*Political State of Great Britain*, vol. ii. p. 176.)

Leather was long subject to a duty; the manufacture being, in consequence, necessarily conducted under the surveillance of the excise. In 1812, the duty, which had previously amounted to 1*d.* per lb., was doubled; and continued at 3*d.* per lb. till July, 1822, when it was again reduced to 1*d.* per lb. The reduced duty produced a net revenue of about 360,000*l.* It is clear, however, that either the duty ought not to have been reduced in 1822, or that it ought to have been totally repealed. The continuance of any part of the duty rendered it necessary to continue all the vexatious regulations required to insure the collection of the revenue, while the reduction of 1*d.* in the cost of preparing a pound of leather was so trifling as hardly to be sensible. It is, however, unnecessary to enter into any discussion to show the extreme inexpediency of laying any duty on an article so indispensable to the labouring class, and to the prosecution of many branches of industry, as leather; and still less to show the inexpediency of subjecting so very important and valuable a manufacture to a vexatious system of revenue laws, for the sake of only 360,000*l.* a year. Luckily, however, these have become matters of history. The leather duties were totally abolished in 1830; and as the manufacture is now relieved from every sort of trammel and restraint, its rapid increase may be confidently expected. It is to be hoped that no future necessity may arise to occasion the re-imposition of the leather duty.

Account of the Number of Pounds' Weight of Leather charged with Duties of Excise in England, in 1824—1829.

1824	-	53,420,539	1826	-	44,927,316	1828	-	50,233,080
1825	-	52,274,957	1827	-	37,616,316	1829	-	46,300,843

The quantity annually charged with duty in Scotland during the same period was, at an average, about 6,000,000 lbs.

The quantity of wrought and unwrought leather exported in 1820, amounted to 1,335,937 lbs., of the declared value of 208,360*l.* The value of the saddlery and harness exported during the same year was 52,303*l.* Nearly two thirds of the leather exported, is sent, principally in the shape of shoes, to the British West Indian and North American colonies.

LEDGER, the principal book of accounts kept by merchants and tradesmen, wherein every person's account is placed by itself, after being extracted from the Journal.—(See *BOOK-KEEPING*.)

LEECH FISHERY. The demand for the medicinal leech (*Hirudo medicinalis*) is so great as to afford employment to a considerable number of persons in catching and selling the animal. It is common throughout Europe, America, and India, inhabiting lakes and pools. Norfolk supplies the greater part of the leeches brought to the London market; but some are taken in Kent, Suffolk, Essex, and Wales; and large quantities are imported

with the exception of those produced by Italy. Sugar, coffee, and all sorts of colonial produce; cotton stuffs, yarn, and wool; corn, woollen stuffs, spices, dried fish, indigo, dye woods, rice, iron, tin, hides, &c.; are among the most prominent articles. Ships with corn on board may unload within the limits of the lazaretto, without being detained to perform quarantines; a circumstance which has contributed to make Leghorn one of the principal depôts for the wheat of the Black Sea. Hard wheat, particularly from Taganrog, is in high estimation here and in the other Italian ports. It is particularly well fitted for making vermicelli, macaroni, &c. The government do not publish any official account of the imports and exports of Leghorn; and no mercantile circulars that we have been fortunate enough to fall in with, afford the means of supplying the deficiency.

Money.—Accounts are principally kept in *pezza da otto reati* (or *denari* of 8 reati), the *pezza* being divided into 20 *scudi* or 240 *denari*. The *lire* is another money of account, chiefly used in inferior transactions; it is also divided into 20 *scudi* and 240 *denari*: 1 *pezza* = 154 *lire*.

The pieces of Leghorn have two values; the one called *moneta* being the other *moneta lunga*. The former is the effective money of the place. *Moneta lunga* is converted into *moneta lunga* by adding 1/4, and the latter is reduced to the former by subtracting 1/24. The *lire* of account = 8 1/2 *scudi*, sterling very nearly; hence the *pezza* = 3s. 10 3/4d. very nearly.

The principal silver coins are, the *Francesconi*, or *Leopoldo*, of 10 *scudi*, or 6 2/3 *lire* = 4s. 6d. sterling very nearly. The pieces of 5 *lire* = 3s. 4 1/2d., and the *lire* = 7 1/2d. sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The pound by which gold and silver are all sorts of merchandises are weighed, is divided into 12 ounces, 96 *grains*, 288 *denari*, and 6,912 *grains*. It is = 359.542 French grammes, or 5.240 English grains. Hence 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 100 lbs. *avodupois*; but in mercantile calculations it is usual to reckon 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 77 lbs. *avodupois*; this, perhaps, has arisen from taking the *lance* and other allowances, as to which there is a good deal of uncertainty, into account. Thus it is found that the English *wt.* *avodupois* weighs more than 140 or 142 lbs. at Leghorn, though it is = 150 lbs.; in the instances of logwood, tobacco, and a few others, it does not render more than 136 lbs. The *quintal*, or *centajo* = 100 lbs. The *cantaro* is generally 150 lbs.; but a *cantaro* = 100 lbs.

Prices of Corn.—The subjoined account of the different sorts of grain free on board at Leghorn in January, 1833, is interesting, as negating the notions so current in this country as to the extraordinary cheapness at which corn may be brought from the Black Sea.

Prices of Corn free on board at Leghorn, January, 1833.

Species of Corn.	Price in Italian Money per Sack.		Price in Sterling per Imp. Qr.		Species of Corn.	Price in Italian Money per Sack.		Price in Sterling per Imp. Qr.	
	Liv.	Liv.	L.	s. d.		Liv.	Liv.	L.	s. d.
Wheat, Tuscan white	16 1/2	17 1/2	9	9 1/2	Wheat, Meschiglie	11	12	1	1 1/2
red, 1st quality	15	16	8	10	Romagnu, 1st quality	15 1/2	16	8	5 1/4
2d quality	14	15	8	3	2d quality	14	15	8	2
Ottava, 1st quality	13	12 1/2	7	18 3	Rome, Alexandria, new	6 1/2	6 1/2	0	19 7
2d quality	12 1/2	13	1	18 11	Barley, Ottava	3 1/2	3	0	14 4
hard Taganrog, 1st	14	14 1/2	8	1	Indian corn	5 1/2	5	1	5 4
2d	11 1/2	12	1	18 11	Linnseed, Egyptian	14	14 1/2	1	18 11
Ottava	12	13	1	16 9					

Shipping.—Arrivals in 1829, 1830, and 1831.

	Yr.	Ships.	Crews.	Tons.
British	1829	189	1,792	28,411
	1830	219	2,078	33,990
	1831	193	1,792	28,468

The crews and tonnage of the foreign ships entering the port are not given. Their numbers in 1831 were as follows:—

Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.
French	180	Dutch	12	Neapolitan	266	Lucchese	31
Russian	47	Austrian	106	Sardinian	690	Roman	39
Swedish	39	Spanish	18	Tuscan	1,257	Greek	82
Danish	16	American	89				

The greater portion of the Neapolitan, Sardinian, Tuscan, Roman, and Lucchese vessels consists of small coasting craft of from 15 to 20 tons burden.

Port Charges are the same on native and foreign ships. The anchorage dues on a vessel of 300 tons amount to 112 current lire, or to 3l. 14s. sterling; besides which she must have a bill of health, which costs 7s. 2d. sterling; These, if she clear out in ballast, are the only charges to which she is subject; but if she clear out loaded, the bill of health will cost about 9s. sterling, and there is besides a charge of about 3d. sterling for each bill of lading. There are no other port charges whatever. Good water may be had at about 11d. sterling per tun; and beef, bread, and fuel are all reasonably cheap. There are companies for the insurance of ships, but not of lives or houses.—(We have gleaned these particulars from the *Annuaire du Commerce* for 1833, p. 303.; *Kelly's Cambist*; *Nelkenbrecher, Manuel Universel*; *Circular Statement of Grant and Co.*, Leghorn, 2d of January, 1833; *Consul's Answer to Circular Queries*, &c. A plan of the road of Leghorn is given in Captain Smyth's *General Chart of the Mediterranean*.)

Trade of Italy and the Italian Islands with England.—It is not generally known that with the single exception of Germany, Italy is the largest European importer of English goods. During the year 1831,

the real or declared value of the different articles of British and Irish produce shipped from the United Kingdom direct for Italy, amounted to 2,490,376*l*. Cotton stuffs and twist formed about $\frac{1}{10}$ of this immense sum (see vol. 1. p. 527.). The articles next in importance were refined sugar, value 501,152*l*.; woollens, value 204,186*l*.; iron and steel, value 50,360*l*.; with hardware, linens, fish, earthenware, &c. It is right, however, to add, that a part of these articles was not intended for the consumption of Italy; but was sent to Genoa and Trieste, for the purpose of being subsequently forwarded to Switzerland, Austria, Hungary, &c. There are no means of accurately estimating the value of the products destined for such ulterior consumption, but there are good grounds for thinking that they do not amount to 1-4th part of the total value of the exports; leaving above 2,000,000*l*. for the consumption of Italy.

During the same year (1831), we imported from Italy 23,867 cwt. barilla; 96,143 do. oak and cork bark; 264,944 do. sulphur; 263,059 quarters of wheat (a good deal of second hand from the Black Sea); 70,547 straw bonnets; 64,348 packages of oranges and lemons; 3,557,983 gallons olive oil; 105,248 bushels linseed; 127,531 cwt. shumac; 526,510 lbs. raw silk; 516,457 kid skins; 2,113,676 lamb skins; 17,644 cwt. valonia; 227,468 gallons wine; exclusive of various other articles of inferior importance.

LEMONS (Ger. *Limonen*; Du. *Limoenen*; Fr. *Limon, Citrons*; It. *Limoni*; Sp. *Limonas*; Port. *Límdes*; Rus. *Limonú*; Arab. *Lémón*), the fruit of the lemon tree (*Citrus medica* var. β . C.). It is a native of Assyria and Persia, whence it was brought into Europe; first to Greece and afterwards to Italy. It is now cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France, and is not uncommon in our greenhouses. Lemons are brought to England from Spain, Portugal and the Azores, packed in chests, each lemon being separately rolled in paper. The Spanish lemons are most esteemed.—(For an account of the imports, see **ORANGES**.)

LEMON JUICE, or CITRIC ACID (Ger. *Zitronensaft*; Fr. *Jus de limon*; It. *Agro o Sugo de limone*; Sp. *Jugo de limon*), the liquor contained in the lemon. It may be preserved in bottles for a considerable time by covering it with a thin stratum of oil; thus secured, great quantities of the juice are exported from Italy to different parts of the world; from Turkey, also, where abundance of lemons are grown, it is a considerable article of export, particularly to Odessa. The discovery of the antiscorbatic influence of lemon juice is one of the most valuable that has ever been made. The scurvy, formerly so fatal in ships making long voyages, is now almost wholly unknown; a result that is entirely to be ascribed to the regular allowance of lemon juice served out to the men. The juice is also frequently administered as a medicine, and is extensively used in the manufacture of punch.

LEMON PEEL (Ger. *Zitronenshalen, Limonschellen*; Fr. *Lames d'écorce de citron*; It. *Scorze de limone*; Sp. *Cortezas de citra*). The outward rind of lemons is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter,—qualities depending on the essential oil it contains. It is turned to many uses; and when well candied, constitutes a very good preserve. In Barbadoes, a *liqueur*, known under the name of *Eau de Barbade*, is manufactured from lemon peel, which the inhabitants have the art of preserving in a manner peculiar to themselves. Both the liqueur and the conserve used to be in high repute, especially in France.

LETTER. (See **POST OFFICES**.)

LETTER OF CREDIT, a letter written by one merchant or correspondent to another, requesting him to credit the bearer with a certain sum of money. Advice by post should always follow the granting of a letter of credit; a duplicate of it accompanying such advice. It is prudent, also, in giving advice, to describe the bearer of the letter, with as many particulars as possible, lest it fall improperly into other hands.

LETTERS OF MARQUE AND REPRISAL, "are grantable by the law of nations, whenever the subjects of one state are oppressed and injured by those of another, and justice is denied by that state to which the oppressor belongs."—(*Chitty's Com. Law*, vol. iii. p. 604.) Before granting letters of marque, government is directed by the 5 Hen. 5. c. 7, to require that satisfaction be made to the party aggrieved; and in the event of such satisfaction not being made within a reasonable period, letters of marque and reprisal may be issued, authorising the aggrieved party to attack and seize the property of the aggressor nation, without hazard of being condemned as a robber or pirate. Such letters are now only issued to the owners or captains of privateers during war, or when war has been determined upon. They may be revoked at the pleasure of the sovereign; and when hostilities terminate, they cease to have any effect.

LICENCES, in commercial navigation. The rules and regulations to be observed in the granting of licences to ships are embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 53., and are as follow:—

Vessels of certain Proportions, not being square-rigged, &c. to be licensed.—All vessels belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, not being square-rigged, or propelled by steam, and all vessels belonging as aforesaid, whether propelled by steam or otherwise, being of less burden than 200 tons, of which the length is to the breadth in a greater proportion than 3 feet 6 inches to 1 foot, and all such last-mentioned vessels carrying arms for resistance, and all vessels of more than 200 tons burden, belonging as aforesaid, armed with more than 2 carriage guns of a calibre exceeding 4 pounds, and with more than 2 muskets for every 10 men, and all boats belonging as aforesaid, which shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, shall be forfeited, unless the owners thereof shall have obtained a licence from the commissioners of his Majesty's customs in the manner herein-after directed.— \S 16.

British Vessels and Boats, or those whereof Half the Persons on board are British Subjects, not to be navigated with more than a specified Number of Persons, unless licensed.—Every vessel or boat belonging

to the whole or in part to his Majesty, (not being navigated by a greater number of persons than is to be specified in the licence) if of 30 tons or more, 5 men; if of 20 tons or more, 7 men; and above 30 tons, 10 men; and above 40 tons or more, 12 men; and above 50 tons or more, 15 men; and above 60 tons or more, 18 men; and above 70 tons or more, 21 men; and above 80 tons or more, 24 men; and above 90 tons or more, 27 men; and above 100 tons, 30 men; and above 110 tons, 33 men; and above 120 tons, 36 men; and above 130 tons, 39 men; and above 140 tons, 42 men; and above 150 tons, 45 men; and above 160 tons, 48 men; and above 170 tons, 51 men; and above 180 tons, 54 men; and above 190 tons, 57 men; and above 200 tons, 60 men; and above 210 tons, 63 men; and above 220 tons, 66 men; and above 230 tons, 69 men; and above 240 tons, 72 men; and above 250 tons, 75 men; and above 260 tons, 78 men; and above 270 tons, 81 men; and above 280 tons, 84 men; and above 290 tons, 87 men; and above 300 tons, 90 men; and above 310 tons, 93 men; and above 320 tons, 96 men; and above 330 tons, 99 men; and above 340 tons, 102 men; and above 350 tons, 105 men; and above 360 tons, 108 men; and above 370 tons, 111 men; and above 380 tons, 114 men; and above 390 tons, 117 men; and above 400 tons, 120 men; and above 410 tons, 123 men; and above 420 tons, 126 men; and above 430 tons, 129 men; and above 440 tons, 132 men; and above 450 tons, 135 men; and above 460 tons, 138 men; and above 470 tons, 141 men; and above 480 tons, 144 men; and above 490 tons, 147 men; and above 500 tons, 150 men; and above 510 tons, 153 men; and above 520 tons, 156 men; and above 530 tons, 159 men; and above 540 tons, 162 men; and above 550 tons, 165 men; and above 560 tons, 168 men; and above 570 tons, 171 men; and above 580 tons, 174 men; and above 590 tons, 177 men; and above 600 tons, 180 men; and above 610 tons, 183 men; and above 620 tons, 186 men; and above 630 tons, 189 men; and above 640 tons, 192 men; and above 650 tons, 195 men; and above 660 tons, 198 men; and above 670 tons, 201 men; and above 680 tons, 204 men; and above 690 tons, 207 men; and above 700 tons, 210 men; and above 710 tons, 213 men; and above 720 tons, 216 men; and above 730 tons, 219 men; and above 740 tons, 222 men; and above 750 tons, 225 men; and above 760 tons, 228 men; and above 770 tons, 231 men; and above 780 tons, 234 men; and above 790 tons, 237 men; and above 800 tons, 240 men; and above 810 tons, 243 men; and above 820 tons, 246 men; and above 830 tons, 249 men; and above 840 tons, 252 men; and above 850 tons, 255 men; and above 860 tons, 258 men; and above 870 tons, 261 men; and above 880 tons, 264 men; and above 890 tons, 267 men; and above 900 tons, 270 men; and above 910 tons, 273 men; and above 920 tons, 276 men; and above 930 tons, 279 men; and above 940 tons, 282 men; and above 950 tons, 285 men; and above 960 tons, 288 men; and above 970 tons, 291 men; and above 980 tons, 294 men; and above 990 tons, 297 men; and above 1000 tons, 300 men; and above 1010 tons, 303 men; and above 1020 tons, 306 men; and above 1030 tons, 309 men; and above 1040 tons, 312 men; and above 1050 tons, 315 men; and above 1060 tons, 318 men; and above 1070 tons, 321 men; and above 1080 tons, 324 men; and above 1090 tons, 327 men; and above 1100 tons, 330 men; and above 1110 tons, 333 men; and above 1120 tons, 336 men; and above 1130 tons, 339 men; and above 1140 tons, 342 men; and above 1150 tons, 345 men; and above 1160 tons, 348 men; and above 1170 tons, 351 men; and above 1180 tons, 354 men; and above 1190 tons, 357 men; and above 1200 tons, 360 men; and above 1210 tons, 363 men; and above 1220 tons, 366 men; and above 1230 tons, 369 men; and above 1240 tons, 372 men; and above 1250 tons, 375 men; and above 1260 tons, 378 men; and above 1270 tons, 381 men; and above 1280 tons, 384 men; and above 1290 tons, 387 men; and above 1300 tons, 390 men; and above 1310 tons, 393 men; and above 1320 tons, 396 men; and above 1330 tons, 399 men; and above 1340 tons, 402 men; and above 1350 tons, 405 men; and above 1360 tons, 408 men; and above 1370 tons, 411 men; and above 1380 tons, 414 men; and above 1390 tons, 417 men; and above 1400 tons, 420 men; and above 1410 tons, 423 men; and above 1420 tons, 426 men; and above 1430 tons, 429 men; and above 1440 tons, 432 men; and above 1450 tons, 435 men; and above 1460 tons, 438 men; and above 1470 tons, 441 men; and above 1480 tons, 444 men; and above 1490 tons, 447 men; and above 1500 tons, 450 men; and above 1510 tons, 453 men; and above 1520 tons, 456 men; and above 1530 tons, 459 men; and above 1540 tons, 462 men; and above 1550 tons, 465 men; and above 1560 tons, 468 men; and above 1570 tons, 471 men; and above 1580 tons, 474 men; and above 1590 tons, 477 men; and above 1600 tons, 480 men; and above 1610 tons, 483 men; and above 1620 tons, 486 men; and above 1630 tons, 489 men; and above 1640 tons, 492 men; and above 1650 tons, 495 men; and above 1660 tons, 498 men; and above 1670 tons, 501 men; and above 1680 tons, 504 men; and above 1690 tons, 507 men; and above 1700 tons, 510 men; and above 1710 tons, 513 men; and above 1720 tons, 516 men; and above 1730 tons, 519 men; and above 1740 tons, 522 men; and above 1750 tons, 525 men; and above 1760 tons, 528 men; and above 1770 tons, 531 men; and above 1780 tons, 534 men; and above 1790 tons, 537 men; and above 1800 tons, 540 men; and above 1810 tons, 543 men; and above 1820 tons, 546 men; and above 1830 tons, 549 men; and above 1840 tons, 552 men; and above 1850 tons, 555 men; and above 1860 tons, 558 men; and above 1870 tons, 561 men; and above 1880 tons, 564 men; and above 1890 tons, 567 men; and above 1900 tons, 570 men; and above 1910 tons, 573 men; and above 1920 tons, 576 men; and above 1930 tons, 579 men; and above 1940 tons, 582 men; and above 1950 tons, 585 men; and above 1960 tons, 588 men; and above 1970 tons, 591 men; and above 1980 tons, 594 men; and above 1990 tons, 597 men; and above 2000 tons, 600 men; and above 2010 tons, 603 men; and above 2020 tons, 606 men; and above 2030 tons, 609 men; and above 2040 tons, 612 men; and above 2050 tons, 615 men; and above 2060 tons, 618 men; and above 2070 tons, 621 men; and above 2080 tons, 624 men; and above 2090 tons, 627 men; and above 2100 tons, 630 men; and above 2110 tons, 633 men; and above 2120 tons, 636 men; and above 2130 tons, 639 men; and above 2140 tons, 642 men; and above 2150 tons, 645 men; and above 2160 tons, 648 men; and above 2170 tons, 651 men; and above 2180 tons, 654 men; and above 2190 tons, 657 men; and above 2200 tons, 660 men; and above 2210 tons, 663 men; and above 2220 tons, 666 men; and above 2230 tons, 669 men; and above 2240 tons, 672 men; and above 2250 tons, 675 men; and above 2260 tons, 678 men; and above 2270 tons, 681 men; and above 2280 tons, 684 men; and above 2290 tons, 687 men; and above 2300 tons, 690 men; and above 2310 tons, 693 men; and above 2320 tons, 696 men; and above 2330 tons, 699 men; and above 2340 tons, 702 men; and above 2350 tons, 705 men; and above 2360 tons, 708 men; and above 2370 tons, 711 men; and above 2380 tons, 714 men; and above 2390 tons, 717 men; and above 2400 tons, 720 men; and above 2410 tons, 723 men; and above 2420 tons, 726 men; and above 2430 tons, 729 men; and above 2440 tons, 732 men; and above 2450 tons, 735 men; and above 2460 tons, 738 men; and above 2470 tons, 741 men; and above 2480 tons, 744 men; and above 2490 tons, 747 men; and above 2500 tons, 750 men; and above 2510 tons, 753 men; and above 2520 tons, 756 men; and above 2530 tons, 759 men; and above 2540 tons, 762 men; and above 2550 tons, 765 men; and above 2560 tons, 768 men; and above 2570 tons, 771 men; and above 2580 tons, 774 men; and above 2590 tons, 777 men; and above 2600 tons, 780 men; and above 2610 tons, 783 men; and above 2620 tons, 786 men; and above 2630 tons, 789 men; and above 2640 tons, 792 men; and above 2650 tons, 795 men; and above 2660 tons, 798 men; and above 2670 tons, 801 men; and above 2680 tons, 804 men; and above 2690 tons, 807 men; and above 2700 tons, 810 men; and above 2710 tons, 813 men; and above 2720 tons, 816 men; and above 2730 tons, 819 men; and above 2740 tons, 822 men; and above 2750 tons, 825 men; and above 2760 tons, 828 men; and above 2770 tons, 831 men; and above 2780 tons, 834 men; and above 2790 tons, 837 men; and above 2800 tons, 840 men; and above 2810 tons, 843 men; and above 2820 tons, 846 men; and above 2830 tons, 849 men; and above 2840 tons, 852 men; and above 2850 tons, 855 men; and above 2860 tons, 858 men; and above 2870 tons, 861 men; and above 2880 tons, 864 men; and above 2890 tons, 867 men; and above 2900 tons, 870 men; and above 2910 tons, 873 men; and above 2920 tons, 876 men; and above 2930 tons, 879 men; and above 2940 tons, 882 men; and above 2950 tons, 885 men; and above 2960 tons, 888 men; and above 2970 tons, 891 men; and above 2980 tons, 894 men; and above 2990 tons, 897 men; and above 3000 tons, 900 men; and above 3010 tons, 903 men; and above 3020 tons, 906 men; and above 3030 tons, 909 men; and above 3040 tons, 912 men; and above 3050 tons, 915 men; and above 3060 tons, 918 men; and above 3070 tons, 921 men; and above 3080 tons, 924 men; and above 3090 tons, 927 men; and above 3100 tons, 930 men; and above 3110 tons, 933 men; and above 3120 tons, 936 men; and above 3130 tons, 939 men; and above 3140 tons, 942 men; and above 3150 tons, 945 men; and above 3160 tons, 948 men; and above 3170 tons, 951 men; and above 3180 tons, 954 men; and above 3190 tons, 957 men; and above 3200 tons, 960 men; and above 3210 tons, 963 men; and above 3220 tons, 966 men; and above 3230 tons, 969 men; and above 3240 tons, 972 men; and above 3250 tons, 975 men; and above 3260 tons, 978 men; and above 3270 tons, 981 men; and above 3280 tons, 984 men; and above 3290 tons, 987 men; and above 3300 tons, 990 men; and above 3310 tons, 993 men; and above 3320 tons, 996 men; and above 3330 tons, 999 men; and above 3340 tons, 1002 men; and above 3350 tons, 1005 men; and above 3360 tons, 1008 men; and above 3370 tons, 1011 men; and above 3380 tons, 1014 men; and above 3390 tons, 1017 men; and above 3400 tons, 1020 men; and above 3410 tons, 1023 men; and above 3420 tons, 1026 men; and above 3430 tons, 1029 men; and above 3440 tons, 1032 men; and above 3450 tons, 1035 men; and above 3460 tons, 1038 men; and above 3470 tons, 1041 men; and above 3480 tons, 1044 men; and above 3490 tons, 1047 men; and above 3500 tons, 1050 men; and above 3510 tons, 1053 men; and above 3520 tons, 1056 men; and above 3530 tons, 1059 men; and above 3540 tons, 1062 men; and above 3550 tons, 1065 men; and above 3560 tons, 1068 men; and above 3570 tons, 1071 men; and above 3580 tons, 1074 men; and above 3590 tons, 1077 men; and above 3600 tons, 1080 men; and above 3610 tons, 1083 men; and above 3620 tons, 1086 men; and above 3630 tons, 1089 men; and above 3640 tons, 1092 men; and above 3650 tons, 1095 men; and above 3660 tons, 1098 men; and above 3670 tons, 1101 men; and above 3680 tons, 1104 men; and above 3690 tons, 1107 men; and above 3700 tons, 1110 men; and above 3710 tons, 1113 men; and above 3720 tons, 1116 men; and above 3730 tons, 1119 men; and above 3740 tons, 1122 men; and above 3750 tons, 1125 men; and above 3760 tons, 1128 men; and above 3770 tons, 1131 men; and above 3780 tons, 1134 men; and above 3790 tons, 1137 men; and above 3800 tons, 1140 men; and above 3810 tons, 1143 men; and above 3820 tons, 1146 men; and above 3830 tons, 1149 men; and above 3840 tons, 1152 men; and above 3850 tons, 1155 men; and above 3860 tons, 1158 men; and above 3870 tons, 1161 men; and above 3880 tons, 1164 men; and above 3890 tons, 1167 men; and above 3900 tons, 1170 men; and above 3910 tons, 1173 men; and above 3920 tons, 1176 men; and above 3930 tons, 1179 men; and above 3940 tons, 1182 men; and above 3950 tons, 1185 men; and above 3960 tons, 1188 men; and above 3970 tons, 1191 men; and above 3980 tons, 1194 men; and above 3990 tons, 1197 men; and above 4000 tons, 1200 men; and above 4010 tons, 1203 men; and above 4020 tons, 1206 men; and above 4030 tons, 1209 men; and above 4040 tons, 1212 men; 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and above 4380 tons, 1314 men; and above 4390 tons, 1317 men; and above 4400 tons, 1320 men; and above 4410 tons, 1323 men; and above 4420 tons, 1326 men; and above 4430 tons, 1329 men; and above 4440 tons, 1332 men; and above 4450 tons, 1335 men; and above 4460 tons, 1338 men; and above 4470 tons, 1341 men; and above 4480 tons, 1344 men; and above 4490 tons, 1347 men; and above 4500 tons, 1350 men; and above 4510 tons, 1353 men; and above 4520 tons, 1356 men; and above 4530 tons, 1359 men; and above 4540 tons, 1362 men; and above 4550 tons, 1365 men; and above 4560 tons, 1368 men; and above 4570 tons, 1371 men; and above 4580 tons, 1374 men; and above 4590 tons, 1377 men; and above 4600 tons, 1380 men; and above 4610 tons, 1383 men; and above 4620 tons, 1386 men; and above 4630 tons, 1389 men; and above 4640 tons, 1392 men; and above 4650 tons, 1395 men; and above 4660 tons, 1398 men; and above 4670 tons, 1401 men; and above 4680 tons, 1404 men; and above 4690 tons, 1407 men; and above 4700 tons, 1410 men; and above 4710 tons, 1413 men; and above 4720 tons, 1416 men; and above 4730 tons, 1419 men; and above 4740 tons, 1422 men; and above 4750 tons, 1425 men; and above 4760 tons, 1428 men; and above 4770 tons, 1431 men; and above 4780 tons, 1434 men; and above 4790 tons, 1437 men; and above 4800 tons, 1440 men; and above 4810 tons, 1443 men; and above 4820 tons, 1446 men; and above 4830 tons, 1449 men; and above 4840 tons, 1452 men; and above 4850 tons, 1455 men; and above 4860 tons, 1458 men; and above 4870 tons, 1461 men; and above 4880 tons, 1464 men; and above 4890 tons, 1467 men; and above 4900 tons, 1470 men; and above 4910 tons, 1473 men; and above 4920 tons, 1476 men; and above 4930 tons, 1479 men; and above 4940 tons, 1482 men; and above 4950 tons, 1485 men; and above 4960 tons, 1488 men; and above 4970 tons, 1491 men; and above 4980 tons, 1494 men; and above 4990 tons, 1497 men; and above 5000 tons, 1500 men; and above 5010 tons, 1503 men; and above 5020 tons, 1506 men; and above 5030 tons, 1509 men; and above 5040 tons, 1512 men; and above 5050 tons, 1515 men; and above 5060 tons, 1518 men; and above 5070 tons, 1521 men; and above 5080 tons, 1524 men; and above 5090 tons, 1527 men; and above 5100 tons, 1530 men; and above 5110 tons, 1533 men; and above 5120 tons, 1536 men; and above 5130 tons, 1539 men; and above 5140 tons, 1542 men; and above 5150 tons, 1545 men; and above 5160 tons, 1548 men; and above 5170 tons, 1551 men; and above 5180 tons, 1554 men; and above 5190 tons, 1557 men; and above 5200 tons, 1560 men; and above 5210 tons, 1563 men; and above 5220 tons, 1566 men; and above 5230 tons, 1569 men; and above 5240 tons, 1572 men; and above 5250 tons, 1575 men; and above 5260 tons, 1578 men; and above 5270 tons, 1581 men; and above 5280 tons, 1584 men; and above 5290 tons, 1587 men; and above 5300 tons, 1590 men; and above 5310 tons, 1593 men; and above 5320 tons, 1596 men; and above 5330 tons, 1599 men; and above 5340 tons, 1602 men; and above 5350 tons, 1605 men; and above 5360 tons, 1608 men; and above 5370 tons, 1611 men; and above 5380 tons, 1614 men; and above 5390 tons, 1617 men; and above 5400 tons, 1620 men; and above 5410 tons, 1623 men; and above 5420 tons, 1626 men; and above 5430 tons, 1629 men; and above 5440 tons, 1632 men; and above 5450 tons, 1635 men; and above 5460 tons, 1638 men; and above 5470 tons, 1641 men; and above 5480 tons, 1644 men; and above 5490 tons, 1647 men; and above 5500 tons, 1650 men; and above 5510 tons, 1653 men; and above 5520 tons, 1656 men; and above 5530 tons, 1659 men; and above 5540 tons, 1662 men; and above 5550 tons, 1665 men; and above 5560 tons, 1668 men; and above 5570 tons, 1671 men; and above 5580 tons, 1674 men; and above 5590 tons, 1677 men; and above 5600 tons, 1680 men; and above 5610 tons, 1683 men; and above 5620 tons, 1686 men; and above 5630 tons, 1689 men; and above 5640 tons, 1692 men; and above 5650 tons, 1695 men; and above 5660 tons, 1698 men; and above 5670 tons, 1701 men; and above 5680 tons, 1704 men; and above 5690 tons, 1707 men; and above 5700 tons, 1710 men; and above 5710 tons, 1713 men; and above 5720 tons, 1716 men; and above 5730 tons, 1719 men; and above 5740 tons, 1722 men; and above 5750 tons, 1725 men; and above 5760 tons, 1728 men; and above 5770 tons, 1731 men; and above 5780 tons, 1734 men; and above 5790 tons, 1737 men; and above 5800 tons, 1740 men; and above 5810 tons, 1743 men; and above 5820 tons, 1746 men; and above 5830 tons, 1749 men; and above 5840 tons, 1752 men; and above 5850 tons, 1755 men; and above 5860 tons, 1758 men; and above 5870 tons, 1761 men; and above 5880 tons, 1764 men; and above 5890 tons, 1767 men; and above 5900 tons, 1770 men; and above 5910 tons, 1773 men; and above 5920 tons, 1776 men; and above 5930 tons, 1779 men; and above 5940 tons, 1782 men; and above 5950 tons, 1785 men; and above 5960 tons, 1788 men; and above 5970 tons, 1791 men; and above 5980 tons, 1794 men; and above 5990 tons, 1797 men; and above 6000 tons, 1800 men; and above 6010 tons, 1803 men; and above 6020 tons, 1806 men; and above 6030 tons, 1809 men; and above 6040 tons, 1812 men; and above 6050 tons, 1815 men; and above 6060 tons, 1818 men; and above 6070 tons, 1821 men; and above 6080 tons, 1824 men; and above 6090 tons, 1827 men; and above 6100 tons, 1830 men; and above 6110 tons, 1833 men; and above 6120 tons, 1836 men; and above 6130 tons, 1839 men; and above 6140 tons, 1842 men; and above 6150 tons, 1845 men; and above 6160 tons, 1848 men; and above 6170 tons, 1851 men; and above 6180 tons, 1854 men; and above 6190 tons, 1857 men; and above 6200 tons, 1860 men; and above 6210 tons, 1863 men; and above 6220 tons, 1866 men; and above 6230 tons, 1869 men; and above 6240 tons, 1872 men; and above 6250 tons, 1875 men; and above 6260 tons, 1878 men; and above 6270 tons, 1881 men; and above 6280 tons, 1884 men; and above 6290 tons, 1887 men; and above 6300 tons, 1890 men; and above 6310 tons, 1893 men; and above 6320 tons, 1896 men; and above 6330 tons, 1899 men; and above 6340 tons, 1902 men; and above 6350 tons, 1905 men; and above 6360 tons, 1908 men; and above 6370 tons, 1911 men; and above 6380 tons, 1914 men; and above 6390 tons, 1917 men; and above 6400 tons, 1920 men; and above 6410 tons, 1923 men; and above 6420 tons, 1926 men; and above 6430 tons, 1929 men; and above 6440 tons, 1932 men; and above 6450 tons, 1935 men; and above 6460 tons, 1938 men; and above 6470 tons, 1941 men; and above 6480 tons, 1944 men; and above 6490 tons, 1947 men; and above 6500 tons, 1950 men; and above 6510 tons, 1953 men; and above 6520 tons, 1956 men; and above 6530 tons, 1959 men; and above 6540 tons, 1962 men; and above 6550 tons, 1965 men; and above 6560 tons, 1968 men; and above 6570 tons, 1971 men; and above 6580 tons, 1974 men;

to the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or whereof half the persons on board shall be subjects of his Majesty, (not being a lugger, and at the time fitted and rigged as such,) which shall be navigated by a greater number of men (officers and boys included) than in the following proportions; (that is to say,) if of 30 tons or under, and above 5 tons, 4 men; if of 40 tons or under, and above 30 tons, 5 men; if of 50 tons or under, and above 40 tons, 6 men; if of 60 tons or under, and above 50 tons, 7 men; if of 70 tons or under, and above 60 tons, 8 men; if of 80 tons or under, and above 70 tons, 9 men; if of 90 tons or under, and above 80 tons, 10 men; if of 100 tons or under, and above 90 tons, 11 men; if of 110 tons or under, and above 100 tons, 12 men; and if above 100 tons, 1 man for every 10 tons of such additional tonnage, which shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, shall be forfeited, unless such vessel, boat, or lugger, shall be especially licensed for that purpose by the commissioners of customs.—§ 17.

Certain Particulars to be inserted in Licences for Vessels and Boats.—Every licence granted by the commissioners of customs under this act shall contain the proper description of the vessel or boat, the name or names of the owner or owners, with his or their place or places of abode, and the manner and the limits in which the same is to be employed, and, if armed, the numbers and description of arms, and the quantity of ammunition, together with any other particulars which the said commissioners may require and direct; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to restrict the granting of a licence for any vessel or boat in any way that they may deem expedient for the security of the revenue.—§ 18.

The Owners to give Security by Bond, with the Condition herein-mentioned.—Before any such licence shall be issued or delivered, or shall have effect for the use of such vessel or boat, the owner or owners of the same shall give security by bond in the single value of such vessel or boat, with condition as follows; (that is to say,) that the vessel or boat shall not be employed in the importation, landing, or removing of any prohibited or uncustomed goods, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act or any other act relating to the revenues of customs or excise, nor in the exportation of any goods which are or may be prohibited to be exported, nor in the reimporting of any goods contrary to law, nor shall receive or take on board or be found at sea or in port with any goods subject to forfeiture, nor shall do any act contrary to this act, or any act hereafter to be made relating to the revenues of customs or excise, or for the protection of the trade and commerce of the United Kingdom, nor shall be employed otherwise than mentioned in the licence, and within the limits therein mentioned; and in case of loss, breaking up, or disposal of the vessel or boat, that the licence shall be delivered, within 6 months from the date of such loss, breaking up, or disposal of such vessel or boat, to the collector or principal officer of customs at the port to which such vessel or boat shall belong; and that no such bond given in respect of any boat shall be liable to any stamp duty.—§ 19.

Bonds not to exceed 1,000*l.*, or single Value of the Vessel.—Nothing herein contained shall authorise the requiring any bond in any higher sum than 1,000*l.*, although the single value of the vessel or boat for which such licence is to be issued may be more than 1,000*l.*—§ 20.

Licence Bonds given by Minors to be valid.—All bonds given by persons under the age of 21 years, in pursuance of the directions herein contained, shall be valid and effectual to all intents and purposes, any thing in any act, or any law or custom, to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.—§ 21.

Vessels not to be used in any Manner not mentioned in the Licence.—When any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been used or employed in any manner or in any limits other than such as shall be specified in the licence, or if such licence shall not be on board such vessel or boat, or shall not at any time be produced and delivered for examination to any officer of the army, navy, or marines duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, demanding the same, then and in every such case such vessel or boat, and all the goods laden on board, shall be forfeited.—§ 22.

Certain Vessels, Boats, and Luggers not required to be licensed.—Nothing herein contained shall extend or be deemed or taken to extend to any vessel, boat, or lugger belonging to any of the royal family, or being in the service of the navy, victualling, ordnance, customs, excise, or post-office, nor to any whale boat, or boat solely employed in the fisheries, nor to any boat belonging to any square-rigged vessel in the merchant service, nor to any life boat, or tow boat used in towing vessels belonging to licensed pilots, nor to any boat used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any boats solely used in fishing on the coasts of the North and West Highlands of Scotland, nor to any boats so used on the coast of Ireland.—§ 23.

Penalty for counterfeiting or falsifying Licences, or making Use thereof.—If any person or persons shall counterfeit, erase, alter, or falsify, or cause to be counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, any licence so to be granted as aforesaid, or shall knowingly make use of any licence so counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, such person or persons shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 50*l.*—§ 24.

How long Bonds are to be in Force.—No bond given on account of the licence of any vessel or boat under the said act for the prevention of smuggling shall be cancelled until the space of 12 months after the licence for which such bond had been entered into shall have been delivered up to the proper officer of the customs, and such bond shall remain in full force and effect for 12 months after the delivering up of the licence as aforesaid.—§ 25.

Licences and Bonds granted previous to this Act to continue valid.—§ 26.
Provisions as to Licences to extend to Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man.—§ 27.

LICENCES, in the excise, are required in order that individuals may engage in certain businesses.—(See Table in the next page.)

LICENCES, in the stamps, are required by those engaged in the professions and businesses mentioned below:—

	Per Annum.	Per Annum.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Pawnbrokers, in London and Westminster, or within	10 0 0	any quantity of gold exceeding 5 pennyweight, and under 2 ounces, or any quantity of silver exceeding 5 pennyweight and under 30 ounces, in 1 piece	5 6 0
Troopship post limits	0 10 0	Do. of greater weight, and every pawnbroker taking in or delivering out pawns of such plate, and every refuser of gold or silver	5 15 0
Apprentices (not being auctioneers)	0 10 0	Gold or silver lace is not deemed plate.	
Bakers	0 0 0		
Persons exercising the faculty of	15 0 0		
All persons trading in gold or silver plate, in which			

LIGHT-HOUSE, a tower situated on a promontory, or headland on the sea coast, or on rocks in the sea, for the reception of a light for the guidance of ships at night.* There are also floating lights, or lights placed on board vessels moored in certain stations, and intended for the same purposes as those on shore.

* *Usus ejus, nocturno marium cursu ignis ostenders, ad prænuntianda vada, portugus introitum.* (Plin Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. cap. 13.)

An account of the Businesses that cannot be carried on in Great Britain without Excise Licences; of the Sums charged for such Licences; of the Number of Licences granted for carrying on each Business in the Year ended the 5th of January, 1833, and of the Total Amount of Revenue derived therefrom.

Description of Licences.	Rate of Licences per Annum.		Number of Annual Licences granted.	Description of Licences.	Rate of Licences per Annum.		Number of Annual Licences granted.
	L.	s. d.			L.	s. d.	
Auctions.				Paper.			
Auctioneers	5	0 0	3,392	Makers of paper, pasteboard, or scale-board	4	0 0	53
Beer.				Printers, painters, or stainers of paper	4	0 0	104
Brewers of strong beer,				Scap makers	4	0 0	979
not exceeding 20 bria.	0	10 0	8,593	Distillers	10	0 0	11
Exceeding 20	1	0 0	8,444	Rectifiers	10	0 0	96
50	1	0 0	1,100	Dealers in spirits, not being retailers	10	0 0	11
100	1	0 0	1,009	Retailers of spirits whose premises are not under 10l. per annum	0	2 0	35,40
2,000	5	0 0	7,000	at 10l. and under 20	4	4 0	1,36
5,000	7	0 0	2,000	20	6	0 0	1,37
7,500	8	0 0	3,000	25	7	0 0	1,37
10,000	9	0 0	3,000	30	8	0 0	1,37
20,000	11	5 0	11 5 0	35	8	0 0	1,37
30,000	12	0 0	16 0 0	40	8	0 0	1,37
40,000	13	0 0	23 0 0	45	8	0 0	1,37
50,000	14	0 0	33 0 0	50	8	0 0	1,37
60,000	15	0 0	63 0 0	55	8	0 0	1,37
75,000	16	0 0	75 0 0	60	8	0 0	1,37
80,000	17	0 0	80 0 0	65	8	0 0	1,37
90,000	18	0 0	89 0 0	70	8	0 0	1,37
100,000	19	0 0	90 0 0	75	8	0 0	1,37
110,000	20	0 0	90 0 0	80	8	0 0	1,37
120,000	21	0 0	90 0 0	85	8	0 0	1,37
130,000	22	0 0	90 0 0	90	8	0 0	1,37
140,000	23	0 0	90 0 0	95	8	0 0	1,37
150,000	24	0 0	90 0 0	100	8	0 0	1,37
160,000	25	0 0	90 0 0	105	8	0 0	1,37
170,000	26	0 0	90 0 0	110	8	0 0	1,37
180,000	27	0 0	90 0 0	115	8	0 0	1,37
190,000	28	0 0	90 0 0	120	8	0 0	1,37
200,000	29	0 0	90 0 0	125	8	0 0	1,37
210,000	30	0 0	90 0 0	130	8	0 0	1,37
220,000	31	0 0	90 0 0	135	8	0 0	1,37
230,000	32	0 0	90 0 0	140	8	0 0	1,37
240,000	33	0 0	90 0 0	145	8	0 0	1,37
250,000	34	0 0	90 0 0	150	8	0 0	1,37
260,000	35	0 0	90 0 0	155	8	0 0	1,37
270,000	36	0 0	90 0 0	160	8	0 0	1,37
280,000	37	0 0	90 0 0	165	8	0 0	1,37
290,000	38	0 0	90 0 0	170	8	0 0	1,37
300,000	39	0 0	90 0 0	175	8	0 0	1,37
310,000	40	0 0	90 0 0	180	8	0 0	1,37
320,000	41	0 0	90 0 0	185	8	0 0	1,37
330,000	42	0 0	90 0 0	190	8	0 0	1,37
340,000	43	0 0	90 0 0	195	8	0 0	1,37
350,000	44	0 0	90 0 0	200	8	0 0	1,37
360,000	45	0 0	90 0 0	205	8	0 0	1,37
370,000	46	0 0	90 0 0	210	8	0 0	1,37
380,000	47	0 0	90 0 0	215	8	0 0	1,37
390,000	48	0 0	90 0 0	220	8	0 0	1,37
400,000	49	0 0	90 0 0	225	8	0 0	1,37
410,000	50	0 0	90 0 0	230	8	0 0	1,37
420,000	51	0 0	90 0 0	235	8	0 0	1,37
430,000	52	0 0	90 0 0	240	8	0 0	1,37
440,000	53	0 0	90 0 0	245	8	0 0	1,37
450,000	54	0 0	90 0 0	250	8	0 0	1,37
460,000	55	0 0	90 0 0	255	8	0 0	1,37
470,000	56	0 0	90 0 0	260	8	0 0	1,37
480,000	57	0 0	90 0 0	265	8	0 0	1,37
490,000	58	0 0	90 0 0	270	8	0 0	1,37
500,000	59	0 0	90 0 0	275	8	0 0	1,37
510,000	60	0 0	90 0 0	280	8	0 0	1,37
520,000	61	0 0	90 0 0	285	8	0 0	1,37
530,000	62	0 0	90 0 0	290	8	0 0	1,37
540,000	63	0 0	90 0 0	295	8	0 0	1,37
550,000	64	0 0	90 0 0	300	8	0 0	1,37
560,000	65	0 0	90 0 0	305	8	0 0	1,37
570,000	66	0 0	90 0 0	310	8	0 0	1,37
580,000	67	0 0	90 0 0	315	8	0 0	1,37
590,000	68	0 0	90 0 0	320	8	0 0	1,37
600,000	69	0 0	90 0 0	325	8	0 0	1,37
610,000	70	0 0	90 0 0	330	8	0 0	1,37
620,000	71	0 0	90 0 0	335	8	0 0	1,37
630,000	72	0 0	90 0 0	340	8	0 0	1,37
640,000	73	0 0	90 0 0	345	8	0 0	1,37
650,000	74	0 0	90 0 0	350	8	0 0	1,37
660,000	75	0 0	90 0 0	355	8	0 0	1,37
670,000	76	0 0	90 0 0	360	8	0 0	1,37
680,000	77	0 0	90 0 0	365	8	0 0	1,37
690,000	78	0 0	90 0 0	370	8	0 0	1,37
700,000	79	0 0	90 0 0	375	8	0 0	1,37
710,000	80	0 0	90 0 0	380	8	0 0	1,37
720,000	81	0 0	90 0 0	385	8	0 0	1,37
730,000	82	0 0	90 0 0	390	8	0 0	1,37
740,000	83	0 0	90 0 0	395	8	0 0	1,37
750,000	84	0 0	90 0 0	400	8	0 0	1,37
760,000	85	0 0	90 0 0	405	8	0 0	1,37
770,000	86	0 0	90 0 0	410	8	0 0	1,37
780,000	87	0 0	90 0 0	415	8	0 0	1,37
790,000	88	0 0	90 0 0	420	8	0 0	1,37
800,000	89	0 0	90 0 0	425	8	0 0	1,37
810,000	90	0 0	90 0 0	430	8	0 0	1,37
820,000	91	0 0	90 0 0	435	8	0 0	1,37
830,000	92	0 0	90 0 0	440	8	0 0	1,37
840,000	93	0 0	90 0 0	445	8	0 0	1,37
850,000	94	0 0	90 0 0	450	8	0 0	1,37
860,000	95	0 0	90 0 0	455	8	0 0	1,37
870,000	96	0 0	90 0 0	460	8	0 0	1,37
880,000	97	0 0	90 0 0	465	8	0 0	1,37
890,000	98	0 0	90 0 0	470	8	0 0	1,37
900,000	99	0 0	90 0 0	475	8	0 0	1,37
910,000	100	0 0	90 0 0	480	8	0 0	1,37
920,000	101	0 0	90 0 0	485	8	0 0	1,37
930,000	102	0 0	90 0 0	490	8	0 0	1,37
940,000	103	0 0	90 0 0	495	8	0 0	1,37
950,000	104	0 0	90 0 0	500	8	0 0	1,37
960,000	105	0 0	90 0 0	505	8	0 0	1,37
970,000	106	0 0	90 0 0	510	8	0 0	1,37
980,000	107	0 0	90 0 0	515	8	0 0	1,37
990,000	108	0 0	90 0 0	520	8	0 0	1,37
1,000,000	109	0 0	90 0 0	525	8	0 0	1,37
1,010,000	110	0 0	90 0 0	530	8	0 0	1,37
1,020,000	111	0 0	90 0 0	535	8	0 0	1,37
1,030,000	112	0 0	90 0 0	540	8	0 0	1,37
1,040,000	113	0 0	90 0 0	545	8	0 0	1,37
1,050,000	114	0 0	90 0 0	550	8	0 0	1,37
1,060,000	115	0 0	90 0 0	555	8	0 0	1,37
1,070,000	116	0 0	90 0 0	560	8	0 0	1,37
1,080,000	117	0 0	90 0 0	565	8	0 0	1,37
1,090,000	118	0 0	90 0 0	570	8	0 0	1,37
1,100,000	119	0 0	90 0 0	575	8	0 0	1,37
1,110,000	120	0 0	90 0 0	580	8	0 0	1,37
1,120,000	121	0 0	90 0 0	585	8	0 0	1,37
1,130,000	122	0 0	90 0 0	590	8	0 0	1,37
1,140,000	123	0 0	90 0 0	595	8	0 0	1,37
1,150,000	124	0 0	90 0 0	600	8	0 0	1,37
1,160,000	125	0 0	90 0 0	605	8	0 0	1,37
1,170,000	126	0 0	90 0 0	610	8	0 0	1,37
1,180,000	127	0 0	90 0 0	615	8	0 0	1,37
1,190,000	128	0 0	90 0 0	620	8	0 0	1,37
1,200,000	129	0 0	90 0 0	625	8	0 0	1,37
1,210,000	130	0 0	90 0 0	630	8	0 0	1,37
1,220,000	131	0 0	90 0 0	635	8	0 0	1,37
1,230,000	132	0 0	90 0 0	640	8	0 0	1,37
1,240,000	133	0 0	90 0 0	645	8	0 0	1,37
1,250,000	134	0 0	90 0 0	650	8	0 0	1,37
1,260,000	135	0 0	90 0 0	655	8	0 0	1,37
1,270,000	136	0 0	90 0 0	660	8	0 0	1,37
1,280,000	137	0 0	90 0 0	665	8	0 0	1,37
1,290,000	138	0 0	90 0 0	670	8	0 0	1,37
1,300,000	139	0 0	90 0 0	675	8	0 0	1,37
1,310,000	140	0 0	90 0 0	680	8	0 0	1,37
1,320,000	141	0 0	90 0 0	685	8	0 0	

The first light-house erected on the Eddystone rocks only stood about 7 years, having been blown down in the dreadful storm of the 27th of November, 1703; a second, erected in 1708, was burnt down in 1755. The present light-house, constructed by the celebrated engineer Smeaton, was completed in 1759. It is regarded as a masterpiece of its kind; and bids fair to be little less lasting than the rocks on which it stands.

The Bell Rock light-house was built by Mr. Stevenson on the model of the Eddystone.

Numerous light-houses, marking the most dangerous points, and the entrance to the principal harbours, are now erected in most civilised maritime countries. They are particularly abundant in the Baltic and in the Sound, and have contributed, in no ordinary degree, to render their navigation comparatively safe. Within these few years several new ones have been erected on the British coasts, and on those of France, the United States, &c.

Precautions as to Light-houses.—Many fatal accidents have arisen from ships mistaking one light for another; and hence the importance of those on the same coast being made to differ distinctly from each other, and of their position and appearance being accurately laid down and described. The modern inventions of revolving, intermitting, and coloured lights, afford facilities for varying the appearance of each light unknown to our ancestors, and have been, in that respect, of the greatest importance.

Chart of Light-houses, &c.—A good descriptive work on light-houses, beacons, &c. is a desideratum. That of Coulier, *Guide des Marins pendant la Navigation nocturne*, Paris, 1829, is perhaps the best. It must not be judged by its preface, which is as bad as possible; consisting of scraps from the most fantastical parts of Bryant's Mythology, and of attacks on us for our conduct in relation to Parga, and the alleged ill-treatment of the crew of a vessel wrecked on the island of Alderney. The book is really pretty good, which could not certainly be anticipated from such a commencement. The reader will find the existing English and Irish light-houses, and the greater number of those belonging to Scotland, laid down in the chart attached to the article CANALS in this work. Its accuracy may be depended upon; as it has been copied from the beautiful chart of the light-houses on the British and contiguous coasts recently published by the Trinity House; the corporation having readily and obligingly granted permission to that effect. In the Supplement the reader will find the position, description, &c. of the principal British and Irish light-houses and floating lights.

Law as to British Light-houses.—The 8 Eliz. c. 13. empowers the corporation of the Trinity House to erect beacons, &c. to prevent accidents to ships; and though the act does not expressly mention light-houses, it has been held to extend to them; and on its authority, and the privileges attached to the office of buoyage and beaconage conferred on the Trinity House in 1594, the corporation erects light-houses. The tolls for their maintenance are generally collected under the authority of letters patent from the crown; those for the support of the Eddystone light, and some others in different parts of the kingdom, being, however, established by act of parliament. The first light-house erected by the Trinity Corporation was in 1675; but several had been previously erected by private parties in virtue of letters patent. Customs' officers are prohibited from making out any cockpit or other discharge, or taking any report outwards for any ship, until the light duties are paid, and the master shall have produced a light-bill testifying the receipt thereof. It is lawful for persons authorised by the Trinity House to go on board any British or foreign ship to receive the duties, and for non-payment to detain the tackle of the ship; and in case of delay of payment for 3 days after distress, the collectors of the said duties may cause the same to be appraised by two persons, and proceed to sell the distress. (2 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. § 54.)

All the light-houses, floating lights, &c., exclusive of harbour lights, from the Fern Islands, on the coast of Northumberland, round by Beachy Head and the Land's End, to the coast of Cumberland, have always belonged to the Trinity House, with the exception of about a dozen lights, viz. Tyne-mouth, Spurn (shore), Winterton and Orford, Harwich, Dungeness, Skerries, &c. These lights have been partly public and partly private property; provision has, however, been made in the act now referred to, for vesting them exclusively in the Trinity House.—(See below.) The duties on their account have been, for the most part, always payable to the Trinity collectors.

Fees on Account of Light-houses.—A wish to keep the charges on native ships as low as possible, and to insure them a preference, seems to have given rise to the practice that has long existed, of exacting comparatively high duties from the foreign shipping entering our ports. But whatever may have been the motives for making this distinction, its policy seems more than questionable. It is quite right that the foreign ships coming to our shores for commercial purposes should be made to pay the same light and harbour duties as British vessels; but the imposition of comparatively high duties on them is decidedly injurious, inasmuch as it provokes retaliatory measures on the part of other states, obstructs the resort of foreigners to our markets, and, consequently, checks the growth of commerce.

This system was very properly condemned in a report by a committee of the House of Commons, in 1822. There is, in the evidence annexed to that report, some well-authenticated instances of foreign ships having been totally lost, from the disinclination of the captain to enter a British port, while it was in their power, on account of the heavy charges to which they would have been exposed for lights, &c. Down, indeed, to 1835, all ships, whether native or foreign, coming into any British port by stress of weather, were charged with full light duties; but we are glad to say that this inhospitable regulation has been repealed by an order in council of the 7th of February that year, issued on the recommendation of the Trinity House, which exempts such vessels from all charge on account of lights. Our whole policy as to light duties, port charges, &c. has, within these few years, been materially improved, and is now the very reverse of illiberal. It is true that the discriminating duties on foreign ships are still kept up; but in consequence of the general establishment of reciprocity treaties, the distinction has become rather nominal than real, and affects comparatively few of the ships sailing our seas.*

We are glad, also, to have to announce, that very large deductions have been, in most instances,

* We stated inadvertently in the former impressions of this work, that light duties were charged on foreign ships, if in the prosecution of their voyage they came within sight of any of our light-houses. But in point of fact, no light duties are charged by the Trinity House either upon foreign or British ships for voyages from one foreign port to another; unless, in the course of such voyages, they actually come to or touch at a British port or roadstead. (See No. 3. of Instructions to Trinity Collectors, given below.) But foreign vessels sailing along the Irish coasts are charged 4d. a ton for each light passed, except harbour lights, which are only charged upon vessels entering the same.

LIGHT-HOUSE.

You shall from time to time effect: and, before you do, all of your light bills, to enter the same distinctly in a book to be provided by the Corporation for that purpose, wherein all the particulars which are to be entered—of all which you are, within 14 days after the 1st of every, the 1st of April, the 1st of July, and the 1st of October (to which periods you are to make up your accounts), to send a copy of

the printed form furnished from this house, together with the balance of your collection, after a deduction of the pound for your care, trouble, and ordinary expenses therein, to the Secretary of the Corporation at this house.
By command of the Corporation,
J. HANBERT, Secretary.

Account specifying the various Light-houses and Floating Lights under the management of the Corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond; the Rates of Charge on the British and Foreign Ships passing such Lights; with the Amount of Duties collected on Account of each Light, during each of the Three Years ending with 1836.—(Furnished by Trinity House.)

Name of Light.	Rates of Charge.			Amounts collected.		
	Coasters.	British and Foreign privileged Vessels Overseas per Ton.	Foreign Vessels not privileged Overseas per Ton.	1833.	1834.	1835.
St. John's - 1 light-house	1 shilling per vessel	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	2,269 8 11 ²	2,471 9 4 ²	2,513 5 11 ²
St. John's - 1 light-house	2 shillings	1 halfpenny	1 penny	2,551 5 1 ²	2,704 14 4 ²	2,768 5 3 ²
Portland - 1 light-house	1 shilling	1 halfpenny	1 penny	4,518 18 8	4,971 3 5 ²	5,144 7 0 ²
Portland - 2 light-houses	1 shilling	1 halfpenny	1 penny	8,105 5 2 ²	8,280 13 0 ²	8,390 4 9 ²
St. Bees - 1 light-house	(Vessels entering the harbours of Whitehaven, Furness, and Workington, and none else, 2 pence per ton, year.)	1 farthing	1 farthing	458 16 8	474 7 10	527 19 4
Furness - 1 light-house	1 farthing per vessel	1 farthing	1 farthing	5,517 0 2 ²	5,900 8 8 ²	5,911 13 1 ²
Carlisle Bay - 1 light-house	2 shillings	1 halfpenny	1 penny	2,081 15 3 ²	2,153 0 4 ²	2,237 16 8 ²
Carlisle Bay - 1 floating light	1 shilling per 100	1 shilling per 100 tons	2 shillings per 100 tons	2,569 19 0 ²	2,631 18 0 ²	2,756 10 0 ²
Wool - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	8,089 18 10 ²	8,074 10 6 ²	8,260 11 4 ²
Falsham - 1 light-house	1824, 1 shilling per vessel within the Bristol Channel. Other coasters, 1 halfpenny per ton.	1 farthing	1 penny	1,855 17 11 ²	1,768 8 0 ²	1,874 11 8 ²
Lind - 2 light-houses	2 shillings per vessel	1 halfpenny	1 penny	3,286 5 2 ²	3,713 14 8	3,785 1 0 ²
Wexham and Hurd - 2 light-houses	1 shilling	1 halfpenny	1 penny	3,291 15 2 ²	3,576 7 11 ²	3,456 7 4 ²
Owers - 1 floating light	1 shilling per vessel	1 halfpenny	1 penny	3,023 1 0 ²	3,228 14 6 ²	3,325 1 0 ²
Widow - 2 light-houses	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	3,541 17 2 ²	3,691 16 2 ²	3,807 8 10 ²
Greenwich - 1 floating light	1 shilling per vessel	1 halfpenny	1 penny	3,660 9 0 ²	3,841 9 0 ²	4,077 8 10 ²
South Foreland - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton	1 halfpenny	1 penny	4,351 4 9	5,311 9 0 ²	5,378 8 4 ²
North Foreland - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	3,788 18 10	3,810 10 1 ²	4,110 4 11 ²
South Beach - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	2,505 15 9	2,518 10 0 ²	3,103 7 5 ²
Run - 2 light-houses	2 shillings per ton	2 farthings	3 halfpenny	2,227 5 5	2,020 5 5 ²	3,337 0 8
Beaumaris - 2 light-houses	1 shilling per vessel	1 farthing	1 penny	677 17 0	654 15 6	651 8 9
Leith - 2 light-houses	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	3,618 8 5 ²	3,705 16 10 ²	3,828 8 11 ²
Albion - 1 floating light	2 pence per ton	4 pence	5 pence	843 7 7	857 14 4	1,011 0 1
Leith - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	1,720 18 2 ²	1,978 12 7	1,944 1 2 ²
Leith - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	4,389 15 7 ²	4,307 1 5 ²	4,718 18 5 ²
Black Burn - 1 light-house	1 shilling per voyage on limestone rocks	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	625 10 4	640 5 0 ²	626 8 7
Strait - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	1,644 13 0 ²	1,785 18 4 ²	1,928 18 8 ²
Low Well - 1 floating light	1 shilling per vessel	1 farthing	1 farthing	518 3 1	558 5 5 ²	628 10 8 ²
Beaumaris - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	1,490 5 11	1,296 16 9	1,405 11 10
Beaumaris - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	1,774 8 1	1,254 4 7	1,518 4 11 ²
Beaumaris - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	728 17 8	628 7 10	636 1 1
Beaumaris - 2 light-houses	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	1,897 12 4 ²	2,028 14 2 ²	2,155 16 2 ²
Beaumaris - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	3,505 5 5	3,680 5 11 ²	3,828 14 6 ²
Beaumaris - 1 floating light	1 eighth of a penny per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	1,988 0 11 ²	2,076 18 10	2,158 9 2 ²
Beaumaris - 2 light-houses	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 halfpenny	2,815 16 10 ²	2,850 19 10	3,108 14 6 ²
Totals				87,496 17 0 ²	91,447 8 5 ²	95,791 18 0 ²

* All British vessels, and all foreign vessels privileged as British in respect of charges, are exempted from all rates and duties payable to the Trinity Corporation when navigated wholly in ballast.

* These lights were, on the expiration of the Crown lease of the same to Greenwich Hospital, on the 30th of June, 1832, transferred to the Trinity House, that corporation paying to the commissioners of the Hospital the sum of 8,390*l.* for the purchase of the buildings, the ground on which they are erected, stores, &c. On this transfer being made, the tolls were reduced from *1d.* to *1/2d.* per ton.

† This light exhibited 20th of April 1836; the following are the rates of charges—
4*d.* per ton. Foreign vessels not privileged as British, double the foregoing rates.

British and foreign privileged vessels overseas - 1/2
British and foreign vessels entering the port of Falmouth, but not for the purposes of trade - 1/2
All vessels entering Falmouth harbour from stores of weather on -
Dues collected at Falmouth, Truro, and Greenwich only.

Private Light-houses.—Private individuals erecting light-houses have generally obtained a lease of the same from the Crown for a definite number of years, with authority to charge certain fees on shipping. Owing to the great increase of navigation, some of these light-houses have become very valuable properties. The *Minna* and *Loneuse* lights have always belonged to the Trinity House, but were leased by that body to private individuals. The leases have, however, been recently purchased by the Corporation.—We extract from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 608. Sess. 1836, the following

Account of the Gross and Nett Revenue of the private Light-houses of Harwich, Dungeness, Wintertonness and Orfordness, and Hunstanton Cliff, during 1834 and 1835, stating how the same was divided.

Names of Light-houses.	Gross Receipts.	Expense of Collecting and Maintenance.	Nett Proceeds.	Appropriation of the Nett Revenue.	
				Amount paid to the Crown.	Amount paid to the Lessee.
Harwich light houses	1834 8,324 11 1835 10,468 12	1834 1,400 4 1835 1,777 14	1834 6,924 7 1835 8,691 18	1834 8 11 1835 3,475 13	1834 8,316 12 1835 5,216 4
Dungeness light-houses	1834 2,855 18 1835 2,940 11	1834 1,366 7 1835 1,548 18	1834 1,489 11 1835 1,392 10	1834 1,489 11 1835 1,392 10	1834 1,366 7 1835 1,548 11
Wintertonness and Orfordness	1834 8,407 6 1835 10,006 1	1834 1,871 3 1835 1,984 1	1834 6,536 3 1835 8,022 0	1834 3,568 3 1835 4,060 15	1834 4,969 3 1835 3,961 5
Hunstanton Cliff	1834 977 11 1835 631 18	1834 184 18 1835 288 9	1834 793 11 1835 343 9	1834 472 18 1835 408 9	1834 500 9 1835 235 0

Harwich Lights, held by General Rowley, under lease from the Crown, for 24 years from the 6th of January, 1827, paying to the Crown 3-6ths of the nett duty collected.

Dungeness Lights, held under lease from the Crown by Thomas Williams Cole, Esq. for 20 years from Midsummer 1828. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and the lessee. The duties were reduced at the renewal of the lease from 1d. to 1-2d. per ton and it is provided, that at the termination of the light-houses and buildings connected therewith, and the ground on which they are erected, shall become the property of the lessee.

Wintertonness and Orfordness Lights, held by Lord Braybrooke under a lease from the Crown, which expires on the 1st of June, 1843. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and his Lordship. The duties were reduced at the last renewal of the lease in 1826, from 1d. to 1-2d. per ton. At the expiration of the lease, the light-houses, grounds, &c. become the property of the Crown.

Hunstanton Cliff Light, held by S. Lane, Esq. under a lease from the Crown, which expires in 1848. From the 16th of October, 1837, 4-15th parts of the nett produce are to go to the Crown; and

The nett revenue of the *Small Light-house* in St. George's Channel amounted, at an average of the 2 years ending with 1832, to 10,510*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* a year. The lease had then 44 years to run. In 1822, the Trinity Corporation having proposed to purchase the reversion, the lessee demanded for it 148,430*l.* The Corporation has recently effected the purchase; but owing to the increase of commerce in the interim, they have had to pay a larger sum, notwithstanding the diminished length of the lease. This fact affords a striking illustration of the extreme inexpediency of the practice of leasing light-houses to private parties. Wherever they are necessary, they ought to be raised at the public expense, and the fees kept as low as possible. There cannot, in fact, be any greater improvidence or abuse, than to make over to a private individual or association a power to levy, for a long series of years, a certain amount of toll on the ships passing particular lights. The renewals mentioned above are, however, the last transactions of the sort that are ever likely to occur; for by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 76, the whole right and property in the Harwich, Dungeness, Winterton and Orford, and Hunstanton lights is vested in the Trinity House, subject to the existing leases; and for these the Corporation is at present (1836) in treaty.

The *Skerries* is by far the most valuable of the private light-houses. It is situated on a small island or rock to the north-west of the island of Anglesey; and was granted to the ancestor of the present proprietor, to be for ever holden by him, his heirs and assigns, by the act 3 Geo. 2. c. 36. This light produced, at an average of the 7 years ending with 1834, a nett revenue of 13,524*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.* a year!

The *Scottish or Northern Lights* are under the management of a set of parliamentary commissioners. The act of 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, s. 46, enacts, that from the 1st of January, 1837, all British and foreign privileged vessels, not wholly in ballast, which shall pass any Scotch light-house, or derive any benefit therefrom, shall pay 1-2d. per ton for each time of passing every such light-house, except that on the Bell Rock, for which they are to pay 1*d.* per ton each time of passing. Foreign vessels, not privileged, pay double these rates.

Irish Lights.—It appears from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 608. Sess.

Compensation to Private Parties.—The authority acquired by certain individuals and public bodies, under letters patent, acts of parliament, and otherwise, of levying certain duties on account of light, beacon, pilotage, harbour, dues, &c. entitles them, for the most part, to demand higher fees from foreign than from British shipping. When, therefore, we entered into reciprocity treaties with foreign powers, government had to compensate the parties in question for the diminution that consequently took place in their charges on foreign ships. The total sum paid on this account, in 1832, amounted to 35,182*l.* Of this sum 1,566*l.* was paid to the lessees of the *Small Light-house* already alluded to, and 3,982*l.* to the proprietors of the *Skerris* and *Skerries* lights. The Trinity Corporation relinquished their claim to compensation some time since; and the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, forbids such compensation being made to them, the Commissioners of Northern Lights, and the commissioners for managing the Irish lights.—(For some account of the Trinity Corporation, the reader is referred to that article; and for accounts of the charges on account of Beaconage, Ballastage, Pilotage, &c. see these titles.)

(The following important regulations, in respect of light-houses, are embodied in the act of the last session, 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79.)

All English Lights to be subjected to the Control of the Trinity House.—Provision is made by this act for placing all light-houses, floating lights, harbour lights, buoys, beacons, &c. on and round the coasts of England and Wales, under the control and management of the Trinity House; and also for placing all light-houses, &c. on the coasts of Scotland and of Ireland respectively under the control and management of the Commissioners of Northern Lights and of the Commissioners for improving the Irish lights.—(For some account of this object, and to attain that uniformity of management that is so desirable, the property of all light-houses (Dungeness, Harwich, Wintertonness, Hun-

stanton and Orfordness, and *Howe*, subject to the existing leases, to purchase up the right of the property and interest in the Trinity House, and the Tyne-mouth light) to agree as to the sum to be agreed to a jury, the method of a new light-house shall in the Trinity House having the power at all times to enter a

Duties on account of Scotch British ships, and all foreign ships passing each light on the coast of Great Britain, or on the coast of the British Empire, the duties on Foreign Ships to the Trinity House, the O

Edinburgh Light.—From 1834 in any port or place within the bounds of the Heilgoland, from within the above mentioned light.—(Sess. 1836.)

The following particulars, the Official Statement issued

the light-houses, &c., become, at the expiration of the lease, the property of the Crown, as in the case of the Dungeness and Winterton lights. The duties are to be reduced to a half in 1837. There are several other lights, of the revenue of which we have no account.

The charges for the undermentioned lights are as follow:—

	Foreign Ships.	British Ships.
Harwich	1 <i>d.</i> per ton.	1-2 <i>d.</i> per ton.
Hunstanton	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Longships (off Land's End)	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Munkles (near Swansea)	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Skerries (St. George's Channel)	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Dungeness	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Winterton and Orford	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Minna (St. George's Channel)	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Ditto (ditto) (coasting)	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Spurn (Spurn) mouth of Humber	1-2 <i>d.</i>	1-2 <i>d.</i>
Tysemouth	3 <i>d.</i> per ton.	1-2 <i>d.</i> per ton.
Ditto (additional)	1-2 <i>d.</i> per ton.	1-2 <i>d.</i> per ton.

1836, p. 12, that the gross sum collected for Irish light duties, during 1835, amounted to 44,841*l.* 6*s.* of which 26,558*l.* 14*s.* 2*d.* was collected in Great Britain. The rates of charge are as follow:—

Foreign vessels, 1-2*d.* per ton for each light; except labour lights, which are only chargeable to vessels entering the port within which they are situated.

British and Irish, 1-2*d.* per ton (1-2*d.* if in ballast) for each light, except as above.

With a duty of 5*s.* on every entry, cockpit, or warrant, when from foreign ports, but not otherwise.

station and Orfordness, and *Howe*, subject to the existing leases, to purchase up the right of the property and interest in the Trinity House, and the Tyne-mouth light) to agree as to the sum to be agreed to a jury, the method of a new light-house shall in the Trinity House having the power at all times to enter a

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The charges for the undermentioned lights are as follow:—

Name of Light.	Place where Light-house situated.
Edinburgh	Highest part of Agnes Island, Longships Rock, East.
Lizard	Lizard Point.
Eddystone	Eddystone Rocks, Casquet Rocks.
Portland	Bill of Portland.
Howe	Howe Beach.
Needle	Needle Point, Light.
Crows Nesting	East end of the shoals, coast of Belleisle Cliff.
Longships	Dungeness Point, South Pier, South Foreland.
South Sand Head	South end of the W. Sand.
Goodwin	Western edge of Goodwin Sands.
North Sand Head	North Sand Head.
Longships	South Pier Head, North Foreland.
Howe	Howe Beach, East end of the Sands.
Harwich	Harwich.
Galper	West end of the Loper Shoal.
East	East end of the Loper Shoal.
Orford	Orfordness, Harw.
Lowestoffe	Lowestoffe.
Winterton	Winterton Point, North end of H. Head.
Howe	Near Haisborough.
Orford	Orfordness, near C.
Claydon	Hunstanton Point, Off the back of the Sand, Lynn De.
Dungeness	Dungeness Shoal, Off Dungeness Point, Humber.
Spurn	Spurn Point.
Flamborough	Flamborough Head.
Winterton	Vincent's Pier H. West Pier Head.
Southland	North and South

station and Orfordness, *ante*, p. 142.), held under lease from the crown, is vested in the Trinity House, subject to the existing leases. Provision is also made in the act for enabling the Trinity House, to purchase up the reversion of the leases granted by them of the Longships and Smalls lights, and the property and interest of the owners or parties having the management of the Skerries, Spurn Point, and the Tynemouth light-houses. Should the Trinity House, and the parties interested, not be able to agree as to the sum to be paid the latter, the matter, in all such cases, is to be referred to the decision of a jury, the method of whose proceeding is pointed out in the act. It is also enacted that no new light-house shall in future be erected on the Scotch or Irish coasts, without the approval of the Trinity House having been previously obtained; and that the officers of the latter shall have power at all times to enter upon and examine such Scotch and Irish lights.—(§ 2, 3, 4, &c.)

Duties on account of Scotch Lights.—It is enacted that from and after the 1st of January, 1837, all British ships, and all foreign privileged ships, not wholly in ballast, shall pay 1d. per ton each time of passing each light on the coasts of Scotland, with the exception of the Bell Rock light, the charge on passing which is 1d. per ton.—(§ 40.)

Extra Duties on Foreign Ships privileged.—These are no longer to be paid out of the customs' duties to the Trinity House, the Commissioners of Northern Lights, or the Commissioners for Improving the Port of Dublin.—(§ 31, 41.)

Heligoland Light.—From the 31st of December, 1836, foreign ships clearing out from any British port to any port or place within or near the rivers Elbe and Weser, are to be charged 1d. per ton, on account of the Heligoland light; and, from the same date, foreign ships, arriving at a British port from within the above mentioned limits, are to be charged the like sum of 1d. per ton for the said light.—(§ 36.)

The following particulars, as to the principal British and Irish light-houses, have been taken from the Official Statement issued by the Admiralty.

I. ENGLISH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Name of Light.	Place whereon Light-house stands.	Number of Lights.	Description of Light.	Time of Revolution of Revolv.	Time of Flash.	Colour of Light, as it appears by Day.	Height of Light-house, or its Appearance by Water, in Feet.	Height of Building in Feet.	Position.		
									N. Latitude.	Longitude.	
Silly.	Highest part of St. Agnes' Island.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	17	White.	138	83	51 11	9 11	
Longships.	Longships Rock, Land's End.	1	Fixed.	-	14	Stone.	88	86	50 4	8 44	
Liard.	Liard Point.	2	Fixed.	-	90	White.	E. 221 W. 224	Bell 45.	49 67 16	6 10 30	
Eddystone.	Eddystone Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every 15 seconds.	13	Stone.	73	73	50 10 54	4 15 3	
Caquet.	Caquet Rocks.	2	Revolving.	Every 15 seconds.	13	Stone.	80	80	49 52 17	2 23 54	
Portland.	Bill of Portland.	2	High light revolving, low light fixed.	Every 2 minutes.	19	White.	189	181	50 31 22	3 26 49	
Hurst.	Hurst Beach.	2	Fixed.	-	19	Red.	Highest 66, lowest 29.	80	50 42 33	1 33 50	
Needles.	Needles Point, Isle of Wight.	1	Fixed.	-	29	White.	69	58	50 39 53	1 33 55	
Owers, Scouting.	East end of the Owers also, coast of Sussex.	1	Fixed.	-	9	Carries a flag.	28	-	50 41	0 39	
Sandy Head.	Bellislet Cliff.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	28	White.	285	80	50 44	0 13 E.	
Dungeness.	Dungeness Point.	1	Fixed.	-	20	Bright red.	92	86	50 55	0 57 48	
South Foreland.	South Foreland.	2	Fixed.	-	12	White.	60	18	51 7	1 16	
South Foreland.	South Foreland.	2	Fixed.	-	20	White.	330	41	51 6	1 52	
South Head, Scouting.	South end of the Goodwin Sands.	1	Fixed.	-	10	Carries a flag.	375	32	51 10	1 27	
Gull, Scouting.	Western edge of the Goodwin Sands.	2	Fixed.	-	7	Carries a flag.	14	-	51 17	1 30	
Goodwin, Scouting.	North Sand Head.	2	Fixed.	-	9	Has 3 masts, and carries a flag.	-	-	51 19	1 35	
Bumpkin.	South Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	-	6	White.	35, the others 23.	-	51 20	1 26	
North Foreland.	North Foreland.	1	Fixed.	-	22	White.	340	80	51 22	1 27	
North Foreland.	East end of the More Sands.	1	Fixed.	-	10	Carries a flag.	83	-	51 29	0 48	
Harwich.	Harwich.	2	Fixed.	-	12	Highest grey brick, lowest white.	68	68	51 56 26	1 17 8	
Galley, Scouting.	West end of the Galley Shoer.	1	Fixed.	-	10	Carries a flag.	32	-	51 45	1 84	
Bank, Scouting.	East end of the Bank sand off Harwich.	1	Fixed.	-	9	Carries a flag.	50	-	51 47	1 29	
Orford.	Orfordness.	2	Fixed.	-	23	Stone.	-	83	52 4 60	1 34 15	
Lewes.	Lewes.	2	Fixed.	-	18	Stone.	116	55	52 29 10	1 45 14	
Wier.	Wier.	1	Fixed.	-	10	Stone.	38	-	52 43	1 41	
Hastbury, Scouting.	North end of Halseborough Sand.	2	Fixed.	-	9	Carries a flag.	37	-	52 27	1 36	
Hastbury.	Near Halseborough.	2	Fixed.	-	17	Red.	137	77	52 49	1 31	
Cromer.	Foulness, near Cromer.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	32	Stone.	100	83	52 55 20	1 16 30	
Clay Wall, Scouting.	Flamborough Point. Off the hook of the Long Sand, Lynn Deep.	1	Fixed.	-	14	White.	85	30	52 57 6	0 29 41	
Clay Wall, Scouting.	Flamborough Point. Off the hook of the Long Sand, Lynn Deep.	1	Fixed.	-	10	Carries a flag.	32	-	53 1	0 25	
Delph, Scouting.	Delph Shoal.	1	Fixed.	-	19	Carries a flag.	33	-	53 10	0 27	
Spurn, Scouting.	Off Spurn Point, River Humber.	1	Fixed.	-	9	Carries a flag.	30	-	53 34	0 13	
Spurn.	Spurn Point.	2	Fixed.	-	15	Highest dark brick, lowest dark red.	100	80	53 34 44	0 7	
Flamborough.	Flamborough Head.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	18	White.	50	44	53	54 7	0 8 W.
Sturborough.	Vincent's Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	-	11	White.	41	33	54 17	0 23	
Widley.	West Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	-	15	Yellowish stone.	58	60	54 30	0 37	
Stadeland.	North and South Piers.	2	Fixed.	-	N. 20 S. 0	Yellow.	73	64	54 55	1 28	

English Light-Houses—continued.

Name of Light.	Place whereon Light-house stands.	Number of Lights.	Description of Light.	Time of Revolving or Flashing.	Time of Flashing or Intermittence.	Colour of Light, or its Appearance by Day.	Height of Light-house above the Sea at High Water, in Feet.	Height of Building in Feet.	Position.	
									N Latitude.	Longitude.
Tynan	Front of Dock Wray Square, toward sea.	2	Fixed.	12	15	White.	123 77	49 76	58 0 1 28 W.	
Tynemouth Castle.	Tynemouth Castle Yard.	1	Revolving.	Every 15 minutes.	18	Stone.	168	62	58 1	1 25
Oster Fern.	Longstone Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	15	Stone.	74	71	55 30	1 30
Inner Fern.	S. W. point of Great Fern Island.	2	Highest revolving, lower fixed.	14 10		Stone.	Revolving 81, the other 60.	28 18	55 57	1 40
Berwick.	East end of the Pier.	2	Fixed.	12		Stone.	44 54		55 46	1 40
St. Ness.* Walney.*	St. Ness Head. South Point of Walney Island.	1 1	Revolving.	Every 5 minutes.	15	Stone.	33 70	53 60	54 21 3 21	
Fornby.* Black Rock.	Fornby Point. Rock Point, entrance of the Mersey.	1 1	Revolving.	Every 15 minutes.	15	White.	88	75	58 32 3 24	
Lanawa.	On the shore, between the Mersey and the Doe.	1	Fixed.	18		White.	118	118	53 24 3 27	
Hickson.* Upper Hoylake. Lower Hoylake. Liverpool, floating.	Hickson Hill. Hoylake. Hoylake. At the entrance of the Horse Channel.	1 1 1 3	Fixed.	20 10 9 9		Stone. Brick. Brick. Carriage siding.	300 58 34 36	50 39 19	53 24 3 4 3 11	
Alr.*	Point of Alr.	2	Fixed.	11 7		Striped red and white horizontally.	49 12	49	53 25 3 19 1/2	
Lynna.*	Point Lynna, Isle of Angleson.	2	Fixed.	20		Brick.	80	19	53 31	4 17 1/2
Sherrie.* South Stack.*	Island of Sherrie. South Stack Rock, off the north-west point of Holyhead Island.	1 1	Fixed. Revolving.	20 Every 3 minutes.	10	White. Stone.	117 301	54 69	53 25 3 18	4 26 4 41
Barbery.* Smalls.* Milford.*	Barbery Island. Smalls Rock. St. Ann's Point.	1 1 2	Flashing. Fixed. Fixed.	17 15 19		Stone. Red. White, red top.	141 70 182 159	79 58 44 17	52 45 3 4 3 10 1/2	4 67 4 0
Caldy.*	Caldy Island, south point.	1	Fixed.	20		Grey stone, red top.	310	40	51 27 1/2	4 40 1/2
Mumble.* Swansea Pier.*	Mumble Head. Westeria Pier Head.	1 1	Fixed.	15 8		White. White, black top.	14 28	69 30	51 24 3 3	3 58 1/2 2 56
Nash.* Uk.*	Nash Point. West side of the entrance to the Uk.	1 1	Fixed.	10		Stone.	30	58	51 24 3 0	3 3
Fathom.* Lundy.*	Fathom Island, south point. Lundy Island.	1 2	Fixed. Every 45 seconds.	17 22		White, red top.	164 470	77 9	51 23 1/2 3 10 1/2	3 7 1/2 4 40 1/2

Those marked * are what are called first-class lights.

THE SCOTCH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Inchkeith.*	Highest part of Inchkeith Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 20 minutes.	20	Stone.	230	45	56 2	3 9 W.
Isle of May.*	Highest part of Isle of May.	1	Fixed.	21		Stone.	240	67	56 11	3 28
Bell Rock.*	Bell Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	14	White.	90	100	56 26	2 23
Dundee Ferry.	On the ferry pier.	2	Fixed.	2 1/2		White.	16		56 28	2 28
Buttonness.*	Buttonness.	2	Fixed.	9		White.	85	70	56 28	2 45
Arbroath.	Northern Pier.	1	Fixed.	19		White.	65	50	56 33	2 25
Montrose.	Northern Pier.	2	Fixed.	8		White.	35		56 43	2 37
Aberdeen.	Head of the North Pier.	1	Fixed.	4		Red.	45		57 8	2 4
Girdleness.* Buchanans.*	Girdleness. Buchanans.	1 1	Flashing.	Every 5 seconds.	18	Stone.	150	100	57 8	3 8
Kinnaird.* Tarbet.	Kinnaird Head. Tarbetness.	1 1	Fixed. Intermittent.	16 Every 3 minutes.		Stone. Stone.	120 175	57 180	57 42	2 1 3 40
Dunnet.* Fentland.* Skerrin.* Start.*	Dunnet Head. Largest of the islands. Start Point, Sandy Island, Orkney.	2 2 1 1	Fixed. Fixed. Revolving.	24 15 16		Stone. Stone. Stone.	240 100 100	45 30 90	58 40 3 05 59 18	3 22 3 05 2 24
Semburgh.* Cape Wrath.*	Semburgh Head, Shetland. Cape Wrath.	1 1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	24	White.	400	60	59 37	5 0
Glas.*	North-east point of Island Glas, Harris Isles.	1	Fixed.	18		Stone.	150	30	57 52	6 30
Barr Head.* Lumosa.*	Barrera Island. Mousdale Island, Arran.	1 1	Fixed.	15		Stone.	108		56 48	7 30 6 30

Isle of May.*	Doverry Island, Isle of May.	
Kilgryn.*	S. Kilgryn.	
Flacks.*	Flacks Island, W. point of Island.	
Cumbra.* Toward.*	Little Cumbra. Toward Point.	
Clack.* Galloway.*	Clough Point. Corsewall Point.	
Isl. of Galloway.* Skelton.*	South point of V-shire. Skelton Point.	
Cape Clear.*	Cape Clear Island.	
Kilkee.* Curt Inver.* Inch Tower.*	Old Head of Kin. Rock's Point. Hook Head, E. entrance to Ford.	
Duncannon.	Duncannon Point, entrance to Water.	
Dunmore Harbour.	Pier Head, W. entrance to Ford.	
Onslow, or Salsburgh light.* Tunkers.*	Off Coningsburgh. Tunkers.	
Inchkeith floating light.*	South end of Inchkeith.	
Wicklow Head.	Wicklow Head.	
East Pier.	East Pier.	
End of North Quay.	End of North Quay, entrance to Harbour.	
Off north point of Bank.	Off north point of Bank.	
North Bally.	North Bally, N. side of Bay.	
North Harbour.	End of East Pier, Harbour.	
South Harbour.	South Harbour, entrance to Harbour.	
South Rock.	South Rock.	
Copeland.*	Small Copeland Island.	
Malden.*	Malden Rocks, and south.	
Malinbeg.*	Malinbeg Island.	
Loch Sulliv.* Tory Island.*	Fannet Point, Tory Island, point.	
Armagh.*	North point of Island.	
Ellybeg.* Ferry Islands.* Innisort.*	St. John's Point. Ferry Islands. Innisort. (Ch. Bay)	
Clare Island.*	North point of Island. (Clare Bay.)	
Slieve Head.* Mutton Island.*	Slieve Head Island. Mutton Island, way Harbour.	
Arva Island.*	Summit of South Island.	
Kilkeeran.*	Kilkeeran Point.	
Loughbeg.*	Shannon, Loughbeg, North of the River Shannon.	
Shelley.*	Shelley Rocks.	
Point of Arr.*	Point Arr, Isle Man.	
Off of Man.*	S. W. side of Isle Man.	
Dunha Harbour.	Dunha Harbour, North Pier Head.	

LIMA, the capital of Peru, on the west coast of South America, in lat. 12° 2' 45' S., lon. 77° 7' 15" W. Population variously estimated; but may probably amount to from 50,000 to 60,000.

Callao, the port of Lima, is about 6 miles W. from the latter. The harbour lies to the north of a projecting point of land, in the angle formed by the small uninhabited island of San Lorenzo. Previously to the emancipation of Peru, and the other *ci-devant* Spanish provinces in the New World, Lima was the grand *entrepôt* for the trade of all the west coast of South America; but a considerable portion of the foreign trade of Peru, is now carried on through Buenos Ayres, and the former is also in the habit of importing European goods at second hand from Valparaiso and other ports in Chili. The exports from Lima consist principally of copper and tin, silver, cordovan leather, and soap, vicunna wool, quinquina, &c. The imports consist principally of woollen and cotton stuffs, and hardware, from England; silks, brandy, and wine, from Spain and France; stock-fish from the United States, indigo from Mexico, Paraguay herb from Paraguay, spices, quicksilver, &c. Timber for the construction of ships and houses is brought from Guayaquil. The official value of the different articles of British produce and manufacture exported to Peru in 1781, amounted to 624,639*l.*, besides 21,392*l.* of foreign and colonial merchandise. The official value of the imports into Great Britain from Peru during the same year was 42,377*l.*

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ.
LIME (Ger. *Kalk*; Fr. *Chaux*; It. *Calcina, Calce*; Sp. *Cal*; Rus. *Invest*), an earthy substance of a white colour, moderately hard, but which is easily reduced to powder, either by sprinkling it with water or by trituration. It has a hot burning taste, and in some measure corrodes and destroys the texture of those animal bodies to which it is applied. Specific gravity, 2.3. Calcium, the metallic basis of lime, was discovered by Sir H. Davy.

There are few parts of the world in which lime does not exist. It is found purest in limestone, marble, and chalk. None of those substances is, however, strictly speaking, lime; but they are all easily converted into it by a well-known process; that is, by placing them in kilns or furnaces constructed for the purpose, and keeping them for some time in a white heat,—a process called the burning of lime.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

The use of lime, as mortar in building, has prevailed from the earliest antiquity, and is nearly universal. It is also very extensively used in this country, and in an inferior degree in some parts of the Continent and of North America, as a manure to fertile land. But it is a curious fact that the use of lime as a manure is entirely a European practice; and that its employment in that way has never been so much as dreamed of in any part of Asia or Africa. Lime is of much importance in the arts, as a flux in the smelting of metals, in the shape of chlorate in bleaching, in tanning, &c. Lime and limestones may be carried and landed coastwise without any customs document whatever. Its consumption in this country is very great.

LIME (Fr. *Citronier*; Ger. *Citron*; Hind. *Neembo*), a species of lemon (*Citrus medica*, var. *J. C.*), which grows in abundance in most of the West India islands, and is also to be met with in some parts of France, in Spain, Portugal, and throughout India, &c. The lime is smaller than the lemon, its rind is usually thinner, and its colour, when the fruit arrives at a perfect state of maturity, is a fine bright yellow. It is uncommonly juicy, and its flavour is esteemed superior to that of the lemon; it is, besides, more acid than the latter, and to a certain degree acrid.

LINEN (Ger. *Linnen*, *Leinwand*; Du. *Lynwaat*; Fr. *Toile*; It. *Tela*, *Panno lino*; Sp. *Lienza*, *Tela de lino*; Rus. *Polotno*), a species of cloth made of thread of flax or hemp. The linen manufacture has been prosecuted in England for a very long period; but though its progress has been considerable, particularly of late years, it has not been so great as might have been anticipated. This is partly, perhaps, to be ascribed to the efforts that have been made to bolster up and encourage the manufacture in Ireland and Scotland, and partly to the rapid growth of the cotton manufacture—fabrics of cotton having to a considerable extent supplanted those of linen.

In 1696, both houses of parliament addressed his Majesty (William III.), representing that the progress of the woollen manufacture of Ireland was such as to prejudice that of this country; and that it would be for the public advantage, were the former discouraged, and the linen manufacture established in its stead. His Majesty replied,—“I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and encourage the linen manufacture, and to promote the trade of England!” We may remark, by the way; that nothing can be more strikingly characteristic of the illiberal and erroneous notions that were then entertained with respect to the plainest principles of public economy, than this address and answer to it. But whatever the people of Ireland might think of their sovereign deliberately avowing his determination to exert himself to crush a manufacture in which they had begun to make some progress, government had no difficulty in prevailing upon the legislature of that country to second their views, by prohibiting the exportation of all woollen goods from Ireland, except to England, where prohibitory duties were already laid on their importation! It is but justice, however, to the parliament and government of England, to state that they have never discovered any backwardness to promote the linen trade of Ireland; which, from the reign of William III. downwards, has been the object of regulation and

encouragement. It may, indeed, be doubted whether the regulations have been always the most judicious that might have been devised, and whether Ireland has really gained any thing by the forced extension of the manufacture. Mr. Young and Mr. Wakefield, two of the highest authorities as to all matters connected with Ireland, contend that the spread of the linen manufacture has not really been advantageous. And it seems to be sufficiently established, that though the manufacture might not have been so widely diffused, it would have been in a sounder and healthier state had it been less interfered with.

Bounties.—Besides premiums and encouragements of various kinds, bounties were granted on the exportation of linen for a very long period down to 1830. In 1823, for example, notwithstanding it had been very much reduced, the bounty amounted to about 300,000*l.*, or to nearly *one seventh* part of the entire real or declared value of the linen exported that year! It is not easy to imagine a greater abuse. A bounty of this sort, instead of promoting the manufacture, rendered those engaged in it comparatively indifferent to improvements; and though it had been otherwise, what is to be thought of the policy of persisting for more than a century in supplying the foreigner with linens for less than they cost? We have not the least doubt, that were the various sums expended in well-meant but useless attempts to force this manufacture, added together, with their accumulations at simple interest, they would be found sufficient to yield an annual revenue, little, if at all, inferior to the entire value of the linens we now send abroad. And after all, the business never began to do any real good, or to take firm root, till the manufacture ceased to be a domestic one, and was carried on principally in mills, and by the aid of machinery,—a change which the old forcing system tended to counteract. The only real and effectual legislative encouragement the manufacture has ever met with, has been the reduction of the duties on flax and hemp, and the relinquishing of the absurd attempts to force their growth at home.

Exports of Linen from Ireland, &c.—The following Table, which we regret the parliamentary accounts do not furnish the means of continuing to the present day, gives

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linens exported from Ireland, from 1800 to 1830, both inclusive.

Years.	To Great Britain.	To Foreign Parts.	Total.	Amount of Bounty paid in Ireland, on Linen exported to Foreign Parts.	
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	£	s. d.
1800	81,979,039	2,568,989	24,569,868		
1802	32,916,913	2,368,911	25,615,854		
1804	39,837,101	3,303,528	43,140,629	10,545	8 2
1806	35,315,990	3,860,981	39,126,841	15,868	4 6
1808	41,938,719	2,033,367	43,968,066	6,740	16 9
1810	32,334,545	4,313,725	36,306,270	16,448	18 9
1812	23,320,767	2,624,656	25,845,452	11,948	3 4
1814	39,539,443	2,463,722	43,003,226	17,231	14 11
1815	37,986,359	5,496,206	43,482,566	17,430	17 3
1816	42,330,116	3,399,511	45,729,629	12,082	6 4
1817	50,288,942	6,911,733	56,230,375	21,521	15 4½
1818	44,716,354	6,178,954	50,923,308	26,248	6 2
1819	34,957,396	3,689,355	37,641,451	16,177	8 3½
1820	40,316,279	2,304,918	43,613,318	11,928	9 11
1821	45,619,509	4,011,659	49,531,159	16,218	19 3½
1822	43,228,710	3,374,993	46,601,702	17,112	9 2
1823	48,066,591	3,169,006	61,335,597	17,765	6 10
1824	46,466,950	3,026,427	49,493,377	17,114	13 10½
1825	52,559,078	2,553,587	55,113,265	12,015	9 9½
1826		2,726,397	- - -	10,249	17 9
1827		4,384,506	- - -	12,114	0 8
1828		2,314,911	- - -	9,494	7 5
1829		2,386,223	- - -	6,586	11 11

Of these exports, more than 12-13ths have been to Great Britain. The total average export, during the 3 years ending with 1825, was 51,947,413 yards, of which 49,031,073 came to this country; the surplus to all other parts being only 2,916,340. Since 1825, the trade between Ireland and Great Britain has been placed on the footing of a coasting trade, so that linens are exported and imported without any specific entry at the Custom-house.

Scottish Linen Manufacture.—In 1727, a Board of Trustees was established in Scotland for the superintendance and improvement of the linen manufacture. It is not easy to suppose that the institution of this Board could of itself have been of any material service; but considerable bounties and premiums being at the same time given on the production and exportation of linen, the manufacture went on increasing. Still, however, it did not increase so fast as cotton and some others, which have not received any adventitious support, until machinery began to be extensively employed in the manufacture; so that it is very doubtful whether the influence of the bounty has been so great as it would at first sight appear to have been. The regulations as to the manufacture, after having been long objected to by those concerned, were abolished in 1823; and the bounties have now ceased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linens exported from Ireland, from 1800 to 1830, both inclusive.

Year.	Yards.
1800	10,799,146 1-2
1811	20,120,620 1-4
1816	24,654,018 1-4
1818	28,112,046 1-2
1817	23,754,967 1-4

This account is not, however, as was paid, that is, on linen for private sale, was not

Dundee is the grand the last few years has not been unacceptable.

The manufacture at beginning of last century slow. In 1745, only 7 linen cloth during the being made either of a too, and those of about 230,000 yards sail-cloth tend itself gradually, the city of machinery was and principally of the manufacture, and part were obtained from the has, indeed, been quite tons in 1814, to 15,000 in a corresponding pro imported into Dundee 366,817 pieces, being yards, of sail-cloth; and

—(See an excellent 1832.) In the year 1830, besides 3,380 tons in a corresponding ratio

It appears, therefore, as those from all Ireland the latter, it has increased at Manchester, full progress. Something taining supplies of the long established in the northern parts of Fife, seem adequate to employment; and, however unable to any thing else difficult to explain as the departments of industry them on. But from a very difficult, when or them. They have, or dexterity in manipulation favour of old establishments, hence of combinations, speedily be devised for

Value of the Manufacture. which to form an accurate Britain and Ireland, shadow of a doubt that we expressed our conviction the investigation has shown that the entire product 7,500,000*l.* Some v

* Sir F. M. Eden estimated 2,000,000*l.*—(Treatise on

LINEN.

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An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linen Cloth manufactured and stamped for Sale in Scotland during the Ten Years ending with 1822, being the latest Period to which it can be made up.

Years.	Yards.	Value.				Average Price per Yard.	Years.	Yards.	Value.				Average Price per Yard.
		£.	s.	d.	q.				£.	s.	d.	q.	
1813	18,796,146 1-4	977,563	1	7 1-2	d.	1818	81,658,109 1-2	1,278,558	8	0 1-2	d.		
1814	28,158,620 1-4	1,358,574	0	10 1-2	11-8	1819	28,494,428 1-4	1,157,923	4	11	8-4		
1815	28,056,018 1-4	1,405,766	15	9	10-5	1820	27,950,011 1-4	1,038,708	18	6 1-4	8-4		
1816	28,112,045 1-2	1,028,674	1	11 3-4	9-4	1821	30,473,481 1-2	1,232,038	15	4 3-4	8-7		
1817	28,784,957 1-4	1,028,289	9	1-4	9-1	1822	36,536,350 1-2	1,366,385	18	11 1-2	9-9		

This account is not, however, of much use. The stamp was only affixed to linen on which a bounty was paid, that is, on linen intended for exportation. Linen manufactured for home use, or intended for private sale, was not stamped.—(Hedrick's Survey of Forfar, p. 506.)

Dundee is the grand seat of the Scotch linen manufacture; and its progress there during the last few years has been so extraordinary, that the following details in respect to it may not be unacceptable.

The manufacture appears to have been introduced into Dundee some time towards the beginning of last century; but, for a lengthened period, its progress was comparatively slow. In 1745, only 74 tons of flax were imported, without any hemp; the shipments of linen cloth during the same year being estimated at about 1,000,000 yards, no mention being made either of sail-cloth or bagging. In 1791, the imports of flax amounted to 2,444 tons, and those of hemp to 299 tons; the exports that year being 7,842,000 yards linen, 280,000 yards sail-cloth, and 85,000 do. bagging. From this period the trade began to extend itself gradually, though not rapidly. Previously to the peace of 1815, no great quantity of machinery was employed in spinning; but about this period, in consequence, partly and principally of the improvement of machinery, and its extensive introduction into the manufacture, and partly of the greater regularity with which supplies of the raw material were obtained from the Northern powers, the trade began rapidly to increase. Its progress has, indeed, been quite astonishing; the imports of flax having increased from about 3,000 tons in 1814, to 15,000 tons in 1830! The exports of manufactured goods have increased in a corresponding proportion. During the year ended the 31st of May, 1831, there were imported into Dundee 1,910 tons of flax, and 3,082 do. hemp; and there were shipped off 968,817 pieces, being about 56,000,000 yards, of linen; 85,522 pieces, or about 3,500,000 yards, of sail-cloth; and about 1,000,000 yards of bagging—in all, about 57,500,000 yards!—(See an excellent article on this subject in the *Dundee Chronicle*, 16th of October, 1832.) In the year ending the 31st of May, 1833, the imports of flax amounted to 18,777 tons, besides 3,380 tons of hemp. The shipments of linen, sail-cloth, &c. have increased in a corresponding ratio; and were valued, in the year now mentioned, at about 1,600,000*l*.

It appears, therefore, that the shipments of linen from this single port are quite as great as those from all Ireland; and while the manufacture has been very slowly progressive in the latter, it has increased at Dundee even more rapidly than the cotton manufacture has increased at Manchester. It is not easy to give any satisfactory explanation of this wonderful progress. Something must be ascribed to the convenient situation of the port for obtaining supplies of the raw material; and more, perhaps, to the manufacture having been long established in the towns and villages of Strathmore, the Carse of Gowrie, and the northern parts of Fife, of which Dundee is the emporium. But these circumstances do not seem adequate to explain the superiority to which she has recently attained in this department; and, however unphilosophical it may seem, we do not really know that we can ascribe it to any thing else than a concurrence of fortunate accidents. Nothing, in fact, is so difficult to explain as the superiority to which certain towns frequently attain in particular departments of industry, without apparently possessing any peculiar facilities for carrying them on. But from whatever causes their pre-eminence may arise in the first instance, it is very difficult, when once they have attained it, for others to come into competition with them. They have, on their side, established connections, workmen of superior skill and dexterity in manipulation, improved machinery, &c. Recently, indeed, the advantages in favour of old establishments have been, to a considerable extent, neutralised by the prevalence of combinations amongst their workmen; but it is to be hoped that means may speedily be devised for obviating this formidable evil.

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.—There are no means by which to form an accurate estimate of the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland. Dr. Colquhoun estimated it at 15,000,000*l*.; but there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that this is an absurd exaggeration. In the former edition of this work we expressed our conviction that it could not be valued at more than 10,000,000*l*.; but further investigation has satisfied us that even this estimate is very decidedly beyond the mark, and that the entire produce of the manufacture in the United Kingdom does not exceed 7,500,000*l*.^a Some very intelligent individuals, largely engaged in the trade, do not esti-

^a Sir F. M. Eden estimated the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain, in 1800, at 2,000,000*l*.—(Treatise on Insurance, p. 76.)

mate it at so much; and we feel fully confident that this sum, if not much beyond, is at all events not within the mark. Now, if we set aside a third part of this sum for the value of the raw material, and 25 per cent for profits, wages of superintendence, wear and tear of capital, coal, &c., we shall have 3,125,000*l.* to be divided as wages among those employed in the manufacture. And supposing each individual to earn, at an average, 18*l.* a year, the total number employed would be about 172,000. It may be thought, perhaps, that 18*l.* is too low an estimate for wages; and such, no doubt, would be the case, were not Ireland taken into the average. But as a great many persons are there employed in the manufacture at very low wages, we believe that 18*l.* is not very far from the mean rate.*

Linen Trade of the United Kingdom.—The following official statements show, in detail, the state of the import and export trade of the country in this department, in 1830, with the results for the subsequent years.

Account of the Quantities of Hemp and Flax, dressed and undressed, Hemp Tow, Flax Tow, and Linen Yarns, imported into Great Britain and Ireland, from Foreign Parts, in the year ended the 5th of January, 1831; distinguishing the Ports of Importation, and the Countries whence imported, together with the Real and Official Values thereof.—(Parl. Paper, No. 534. Sess. 1830, &c.)

Imports into Great Britain and Ireland from Foreign Parts in the Year ended 5th of January, 1831.							
Ports of Importation.	Hemp undressed.		Flax and Tow or Cordils of Hemp and Flax, dressed or undressed.		Linen Yarn.	Countries from which imported.	
	Cwt.	Val.	Cwt.	Val.		Cwt.	Val.
England.							
Londop	181,315	112,550	671				
Bristol	100						
Cardiff	5,385						
Southampton	1,007	222					
Truro	6,287						
Exeter	5,497	91,419					
Plymouth	12,548						
Falmouth	5,705	1,605					
Truro	700						
Falmouth	451						
Bridgewater	12,084	681					
Glocester	639	44					
Newport	58						
Chelster	471	123					
Liverpool	24,392	29,714					
Lancaster	708	24,691					
Whitehaven	4,818	181					
Berwick	470	329					
Newcastle	13,413	13,503					
Buxton	12,367	21					
Stockton	11,440						
Hull	67,550	118,198					
Gravel	191	18,362					
Grimsby	1,305						
Lytham	1,640						
Blackley and Clay	191						
Yarmouth	7,055						
Scotland.							
Leith	19,377	19,692	4,083				
Borowston	1,023	3,099					
Glasgow	818	43,737	404				
Kirkcaldy	41,119	385,982	309				
Dunoon	1,071	22,582					
Aberdeen	7,018	55,937					
Buff		654					
Liverness	6,991						
Thurso	738						
Perth	68						
Greenock	846	300					
Port Glasgow	4,567	2,378					
Glasgow	2,740	263					
Irvine	487						
Campbelltown	90						
Ireland.							
Dublin	3,818	3,769					
Waterford	3,361	98					
Cork	4,778	178					
Limerick	788						
Galway	810						
Londonderry	503						
Caterham	147						
Belfast	7,820	4,190	1,288				
Newry	451	80					
Dundalk	90						
Aggregate of the Importations from foreign countries into the various ports of the United Kingdom	606,771	944,096	19,311				
Exports from the U. K. during the same year	9,567	3,663					
Left for home consumption	497,194	940,433	19,311				
Retained for home consumption in 1831	504,308	819,581	17,852				
Do in 1832	708,748	861,569	25,394				
Do in 1833	537,890	1,127,798					

* A vast number of persons in Ireland are only partly employed in the manufacture; but the above estimate supposes that the 172,000 individuals are wholly employed in it.

Account of the Quantity

Species of Linen.
Linen, not French
French Linen and diaper manufactory
Linen, not French, plain Linen
diapers manufactory, and
others of linen, entered at val

Account exhibiting the C from England, Scotland, different Foreign Coun Duty paid on Exports

Countries to which exported.

Europe.
Russia
Denmark
Germany
The Netherlands
France
Portugal, Anvers and Madeira
Spain and the Canaries
Gibraltar
Italy
Malta
Ionian Islands
Turkey
the Guyanary, Jersey, Al Jersey, and Man
Africa.
British America
British Northern colonies
British West Indies
Foreign West Indies
United States
Brazil
Mexico
Colombia
Peru
Chili
Spain of the Rio de la Plata.
Total

Number of yards of Linen upon which bounty was paid in the year ending 5th of Jan. 1831.

Amount of bounty paid thereon

For the quantity and value of the consumption of Foreign declared value of those 20,000*l.*

Regulations as to the Livi thing, set up in any place, and foreigners practicing privileges of natural born Persons affixing stamps Ireland, shall forfeit 5*l.* & Linens as the manufacturer of linen so exposed to sale Any person stealing to during any stage of the in liable at the discretion of 7 years, or to be imprisoned three publicly or private

LIQUORICE (Ger. *Liquiritia*; Sp. *Regalio*; south of Europe, but e rey. Its root, which is and when fresh very ju the roots, when common druggists, by mand, like carrots or po

* No Br † The de

Account of the Quantity of Foreign Linens retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain, in the Year-ended 5th of January, 1831.

Species of Linen.	Quantity retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain.	Species of Linen.	Quantity retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain.
Lawn, and French square yards	908 1/2	Damask and damask diaper square yards	8,265 1/2
Plain linens and diaper (uncountered)		Drillines, ticks, and trilled linens	294
Lawn, and French, plain linens and		Suit-cloth	813-4
diapers (uncountered, and manu- factures of linen, entered at value declared value	11,179. 17s. 1d.	Cambrics and French lawns, plain ditto board handkerchiefs ditto	57,079 1/4 23,477 3/4 4601. 18s. 10d.

Account exhibiting the Quantity of British and Irish Linen Cloth of all Sorts, separately exported from England, Scotland, and Ireland, during 1830; specifying the Quantities sent from each to the different Foreign Countries importing the same, with their Real or Declared Value, and the Bounty paid on Exportation

Countries to which exported.	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.*	United Kingdom.	
	British Linen.	Irish Linen.	British Linen.	Irish Linen.	Irish Linen.	Total Exports. British and Irish Linen.	Total Declared Value of Exports.
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	L. s. d.
Europe.							
Denmark	140		906			4,452	250 4 3
Norway	11,282				402	17,859	8 15 11
Denmark	2,184	160				3,344	150 0 0
Germany	70,284	79	8,223			78,455	3,889 18 1
The Netherlands	71,219	618	8,278			79,814	4,054 8 8
France	102,739	200				102,939	11,138 14 0
Portugal, Anvers and Madaira	772 4/8	102,645	224,708		30,467	1,140,608	96,008 11 10
Spain and the Canaries	4,710,659	817,782	87,877	18,500		4,977,098	148,444 9 10
Gibraltar	1,211,133	67,239	104,949	554		1,271,949	48,161 8 8
Italy	277,904	16,819			1,500	805,804	4,241 6 10
Mexico	80,155	14,014	2,360			97,529	4,389 19 8
Ionian Islands	14,284	680				18,068	1,034 2 8
Turkey	40,550	8,112				45,662	2,858 0 0
Isle Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	234,968	11,994	9,715		8,923	253,684	14,028 19 0
Asia.	7,806,252	426,411	3695,18	18,854	35,811	3,482,048	258,097 17 8
Africa.	474,794	90,810	184,718	230	950	661,508	26,240 8 0
America.	625,419	7,190	8,620			665,970	24,254 11 0
British Northern Colonies	874,783	95,565	1,308,133	43,215	136,813	2,818,089	81,859 11 1
British West Indies	6,098,741	815,953	4,389,287	100,850	1,076,036	10,426,609	323,837 9 7
Foreign West Indies	2,711,449	831,748	2,632,486	28,349		5,023,669	153,130 10 10
United States	4,180,052	4,469,895	10,088,224	28,108	1,314,409	20,884,778	696,787 18 5
Brazil	6,782,804	1,036,816	1,231,418	11,138	78,946	8,084,318	172,217 11 8
Mexico	1,627,735	1,948,110				3,475,823	134,814 2 0
Colombia	848,052	2,330	816,208	2,091		1,664,623	31,525 5 10
Peru	263,547	467,898				781,846	81,865 0 0
Chili	83,744	78,638				162,387	1,870 6 0
Spain of the Rio de la Plata	407,281	238,100	275,659	27,620		978,440	81,883 0 1
Total	22,139,651	10,344,997	20,501,856	896,493	2,642,867	41,918,968	2,017,775 11 10†
Number of yards of linen upon which bounty was paid in the year ending 5th of Jan. 1831	22,139,748	7,848,987	20,500,010	315,992	1,921,870	35,615,608	
Amount of bounty paid thereon	69,978 1 6‡	23,146 7 11‡	55,608 19 8	968 10 3	6,828 19 8	153,110 1 5‡	

For the quantity and value of linens exported during 1830, and 1837, see Table on the following page.

Consumption of Foreign Linens.—It appears from the second of the foregoing accounts, that the consumption of foreign linens in this country is quite inconsiderable; the real or declared value of those entered for home consumption, in 1830, could hardly amount to 20,000*l*.

Regulations as to the Linen Manufacture.—Any person, native or foreigner, may, without paying any thing, set up in any place, privileged or not, corporate or not, any branch of the linen manufacture; and foreigners practising the same shall, on taking the oath of allegiance, &c., be entitled to all the privileges of natural born subjects.—(15 Cha. 2. c. 15.)

Persons affixing stamps to foreign linens in imitation of the stamps affixed to those of Scotland or Ireland, shall forfeit 5*l*. for each offence; and persons exposing to sale or packing up any foreign linen as the manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, shall forfeit the same, and 5*l*. for each piece of linen so exposed to sale or packed up.—(17 Geo. 2. c. 30.)

Any person sending to the value of 10*l*. any linen, woolen, silk, or cotton goods, whilst exposed during any stage of the manufacture in any building, field, or other place, shall, upon conviction, be liable at the discretion of the court to be transported beyond seas for life, or for any term not less than 7 years, or to be imprisoned for any term not exceeding 4 years, and, if a male, to be once, twice, or thrice publicly or privately whipped, as the court shall think fit.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29. § 14.)

LIQUORICE (Ger. *Sussholz*; Fr. *Réglisse*, *Racine douce*; It. *Regolizia*, *Logorizia*, *Liquirizia*; Sp. *Regaliz Orozuz*), a perennial plant (*Glycyrrhiza glabra*), a native of the south of Europe, but cultivated to some extent in England, particularly at Mitcham in Surrey. Its root, which is its only valuable part, is long, slender, fibrous, of a yellow colour, and when fresh very juicy. The liquorice grown in England is fit for use at the end of 3 years; the roots, when taken up, are either immediately sold to the brewers' druggists, or to common druggists, by whom they are applied to different purposes, or they are packed in sand, like carrots or potatoes, till wanted.

* No British linen sent from Ireland.

† The declared value of the linens exported in 1831 was 2,461,704*l*.

LIQUORICE JUICE, LISBON.

Account of the Quantity and Value of Linen manufactured Goods and Linen Yarn exported from the United Kingdom in 1836 and 1837, specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Quantity and Value sent to each.

Countries to which exported.	1836.						1837.					
	Linen Manufactures.			Linen Yarn.			Linen Manufactures.			Linen Yarn.		
	Entered by the Yard.	Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.	Linen Yarn.	Entered by the Yard.	Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.	Linen Yarn.	Entered by the Yard.	Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.	Linen Yarn.	Entered by the Yard.	Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.	Linen Yarn.
	<i>Fards.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>Fards.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>
Russia	4,477	378	59	1,840	145	0	9,070	1,013	64	3,032	234	281
Sweden	1,733	37	11	7,031	60	0	2,780	104	0	3,065	134	0
Norway	30,639	1,237	370	198	6	0	11,438	608	968	820	0	0
Denmark	18,410	710	0	0	0	0	15,989	778	0	0	0	0
Prussia	181,729	17,408	7,027	318,784	28,210	0	905,028	18,332	6,979	320,036	35,616	35,616
Germany	75,172	4,017	1,158	124,478	7,338	0	36,018	4,103	1,975	23,746	10,406	10,406
Holland	124,475	11,403	239	5,084	2,670	0	85,927	8,200	479	58,506	32,574	32,574
Belgium	1,996,158	118,099	732	4,012,141	276,942	0	3,368,398	142,812	1,765	7,010,963	401,677	401,677
France	519,941	52,375	14	0	0	0	1,154,264	31,137	13	0	0	0
Portugal, Anvers, & Madeira	6,284,618	309,581	155	151	60	0	4,475,089	197,139	1,227	854	0	0
Spain and the Canaries	858,148	37,374	40	330	20	0	1,021,490	30,586	389	0	0	0
Gibraltar	811,255	45,814	761	55,438	3,612	0	448,018	33,774	34	82,218	5,200	5,200
Italy	30,136	1,567	923	0	0	0	1,529	182	0	0	0	0
Malta	23,636	1,307	193	0	0	0	24,224	1,445	308	0	0	0
Ionian Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Turkey and Continental Greece	64,856	4,821	0	0	0	0	106,354	5,623	10	0	0	0
Moran and Greek Islands	737	30	0	0	0	0	4,877	197	13	0	0	0
Case of Good Hope	862,874	24,814	1,483	0	0	0	930,510	18,198	652	0	0	0
Other Parts of Africa	302,198	14,875	370	0	0	0	376,418	14,948	13	0	0	0
East Indies and China	804,633	44,185	874	0	0	0	774,843	34,884	631	0	0	0
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	634,161	34,863	1,536	0	0	0	1,023,208	45,086	696	0	0	0
British North American Colonies	2,897,011	107,504	13,264	0	0	0	3,397,498	83,017	4,459	5,029	323	323
British West Indies	11,236,000	401,463	3,378	2,011	205	0	13,391,416	370,144	8,492	5,166	374	374
Foreign West Indies	3,880,021	140,491	5,394	0	0	0	4,581,470	123,813	9,815	0	0	0
United States of America	36,837,820	1,829,243	45,584	3,429	130	0	18,496,438	668,779	31,212	18,983	1,346	1,346
Mexico	891,653	17,158	84	0	0	0	1,683,739	60,772	1,257	0	0	0
Guatemala	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Colombia	1,437,498	35,306	73	0	0	0	1,295,599	36,318	365	0	0	0
Brazil	5,638,397	193,997	1,364	0	0	0	4,655,711	131,163	1,557	0	0	0
States of the Rio de la Plata	734,773	37,514	490	0	0	0	1,477,292	43,581	654	0	0	0
Chili	839,399	39,217	30	0	0	0	1,237,167	46,751	330	0	0	0
Peru	719,715	38,308	0	0	0	0	1,464,553	59,629	443	0	0	0
Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	380,506	17,073	215	56	10	0	313,078	15,293	153	2,240	0	0
Total	82,068,780	3,238,091	88,294	4,874,504	318,772	58,488,319	2,065,425	64,622	8,373,100	476,307		

LIQUORICE JUICE (*Succus Liquoritiæ*), popularly *black sugar*, the inspissated juice of the roots just mentioned. Very little of this extract is prepared in Britain, by far the larger part of our supply being imported from Spain and Sicily. The juice obtained by crushing the roots in a mill, and subjecting them to the press, is slowly boiled till it becomes of a proper consistency, when it is formed into rolls of a considerable thickness, which are usually covered with bay leaves. This is the state in which we import it. Most part of it is afterwards redissolved, purified, and cast into small cylindrical rolls of about the thickness of a goose quill, when it is called *refined liquorice*. It is then of a glossy black colour, brittle, having a sweet mucilaginous taste. It is used in the *materia medica*, particularly in coughs, colds, &c.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Thomson's Dispensary.*)

The imports in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average to 7,321 cwt. a year. It is loaded with the oppressive duty of 3*l.* 15*s.* a cwt., producing rather more than 22,000*l.* a year of revenue.

LISBON, the capital of Portugal, situated on the north bank of the river Tagus, the observatory of the fort being in lat. 38° 42' 24" N., lon. 9° 5' 50" W. Population about 200,000, but formerly greater.

Trade, &c.—Lisbon is one of the best situated commercial cities of Europe. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the excellence of the port, and the command of the navigation of the Tagus, her commerce is comparatively trifling. The despotism, intolerance, and imbecility of the government have weighed down all the energies of the nation. The law and the police being alike bad, there is no adequate security. Assassination is very frequent. Industry of all sorts is, in consequence, paralysed; and since the emancipation of Brazil, commerce has rapidly declined. Formerly Lisbon had about 400 ships, of from 300 to 600 tons burden, employed in the trade with South America. But at present there are not above 50 ships belonging to the port engaged in foreign trade; and, of these, the average burden does not exceed 150 tons! The produce of Portugal sent to foreign countries, is almost entirely conveyed to its destination in foreign ships. The trade between Lisbon and Cork is, we believe, the only exception to this; it being principally carried on in Portuguese vessels, which take salt from St. Ubes, and bring back butter in return. About 200 small craft belong to the city, which are exclusively employed in the coasting trade.

There are neither price in Lisbon. The principal to those of Spain; wine, caps, vinegar, salt, cork, ton, woolen, and linen ber and deans, hemp, &c. Britain to Portugal in 18 nearly a half; but of the

Port.—The harbour or rance convenient and beautiful on a steep projecting rance. At the mouth of the T are two channels for entrance is the so-called plan. On the Bugio fort and light-house, channel on the bar is 4 fathoms the strength of the tide; the when there is a great deal of water. When, at such peo the bar; vessels moor parts they may come within nearly 30 fathoms in mid-



References to Plan.—A, F rere look-out house. D, E one, mark the north channel

Money.—Accounts are kept in milrees are separated from colons; thus, R*o.* 2:700 ⊕ 5

The cruzado of exchange is 100 rees; and the vintem o The gold piece of 8,400 r is gold, = 87*d.* sterling.

modern silver cruzados, th sterling.

Weights and Measures.—arroal; 23 pounds = 1 arroa avoirdupois = 45-895 killog

The principal measure quiron, 480 almeite, &c. The principal liquid me almedos = 1 brull; 26 alm paltos; and the tonelada

A pipe of Lisbon is estim posed in be 31 almedos. A Of measure of length, unca. The pe or foot = = 43 English inches.

For freight a last is reck lb. of shinnis.

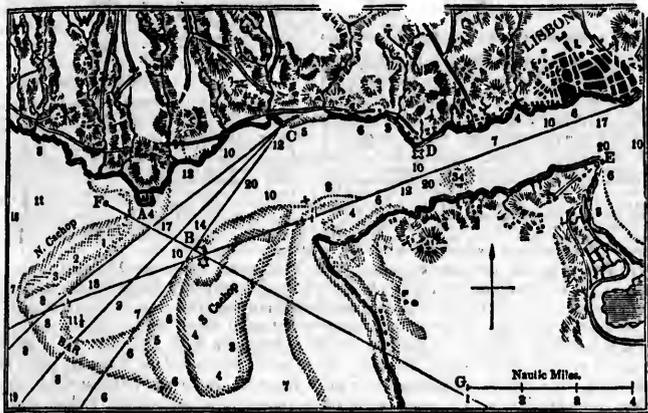
But from one place in Y almedos of dry goods.

Coffee is sold per arroba per alquileira; salt, per m Grain, seed, fish, wool,

Weights and long mensu re measures of capacity. as follows.

There are neither price currents, shipping lists, nor official returns of any kind, published in Lisbon. The principal exports are lemons and oranges—which, however, are very inferior to those of Spain; wine, particularly Lisbon and Calcavella; wool, oil, tanned hides, woollen caps, vinegar, salt, cork, &c. Besides colonial produce, the principal imports consist of cotton, woollen, and linen goods; hardware, earthenware, dried fish, butter, corn, cheese, timber and deals, hemp, &c. The declared or real value of all articles exported from Great Britain to Portugal in 1831 amounted to 975,991*l.*, of which cotton stuffs and yarn made nearly a half; but of these exports a large proportion went to Oporto.

Port.—The harbour or rather road of Lisbon is one of the finest in the world, and the quays are at once convenient and beautiful. Fort St. Julian marks the northern entrance of the Tagus. It is built on a steep projecting rock. There is a light-house in the centre, 120 feet above the level of the sea. At the mouth of the Tagus are two large banks, called the North and South *Cachops*. There are two channels for entering the river; the north or little, and the south or great channel, exhibited in the adjoining plan. On the middle of the South Cachop, about $\frac{1}{4}$ mile from Fort St. Julian, is the Bugio fort and light-house, the latter being 66 feet in height. The least depth of water in the north channel on the bar is 4 fathoms, and in the south 6. The only danger in entering the port arises from the strength of the tide; the ebb running down at the rate of 7 miles an hour; and after heavy rains, when there is a great deal of fresh water in the river, the difficulty of entering is considerably augmented. When, at such periods, there is a strong wind from the sea, there is a complete break all over the bar; vessels moor up and down the river with open hawses to the southward. In some parts they may come within 200 yards of the shore, being guided by the depth of water, which, from nearly 20 fathoms in mid-channel, shoals gradually to 6 fathoms at the quays.



References to Plan.—A, Fort St. Julian and light-house. B, Bugio fort and light-house. C, Hercules look-out house. D, Belém Castle. E, Point Casilheas. F, Bugio fort and Sugar Loaf Hill in situ, mark the north channel.

Money.—Accounts are kept in rees, 1,000 of which = 1 milree. In the notation of accounts the milrees are separated from the rees by a crossed cypher (⊕), and the milrees from the millions by a colon: thus, Rs. 2:700 ⊕ 500 = 2,700 milrees and 500 rees.

The crusado of exchange, or old crusado, = 400 rees; the new crusado = 480 rees; the testoon = 100 rees; and the vinten or vintem = 20 rees.

The gold piece of 6,400 rees = 35*s.* 11*d.* sterling; the gold crusado = 2*s.* 3*d.*; and the milree, valued in gold, = 87*d.* sterling. It appears, however, from assays made at the London mint, in 1812, in modern silver crusados, that the average value of the milree in silver may be estimated at 80*d.* or 5*s.* sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are, 8 ounces = 1 marc; 2 marcs = 1 pound or arratel; 24 pounds = 1 arroba; 4 arrobas = 1 quintal; 100 lbs. or arratels of Portugal = 101.19 lbs. avoirdupois = 45.895 klog, = 94.701 lbs. of Hamburg = 92.918 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The principal measure for corn, salt, &c. is the moyo, divided into 15 fanegas, 60 alquílres, 240 quartos, 480 selemls, &c. The moyo = 23.03 Winchester bushels.

The principal liquid measure is the almude, divided into 3 potes, 12 canadas, or 48 quartellos; 18 almudes = 1 barril; 20 almudes = 1 pipe; 22 almudes = 1 tonelada. The almude = 4.37 English wine gallons; and the tonelada = 227*l.* ditto.

A pipe of Lisbon is estimated by the Custom-house (British) at 140 gallons; and this pipe is supposed to be 21 almudes. A pipe of port is 168 gallons, divided into 21 almudes of Oporto.

Of measures of length, 3 pes = 3 palmes = 1 covado, or cubit; 14 covados = 1 vara; 2 varas = 1 braça. The pe or foot = 12.944 English inches; 100 feet of Portugal = 107.8 English feet; the vara = 43.3 English inches.

For freight a last is reckoned at 4 pipes of oil or wine, 4 chests of sugar, 4,000 lbs. of tobacco, 3,600 lbs. of annac.

But from one place in Portugal to another, a tonelada is reckoned at 52 almudes of liquids, or 54 almudes of dry goods.

Coffee is sold per arroba; cotton, indigo, and pepper per lb.; oil, per almude; wine, per pipe; corn, per alquílre; salt, per moyo.

Grain, seed, fish, wool, and timber, are sold on board.

Weights and long measures are the same throughout Portugal; but there is a great discrepancy in the measures of capacity. The almude and alquílre, at the principal places, are in English measures as follows:

Lisbon - Alimude = 5-37 gall. Eng. wine meas.	Faro - Alquêre = 34 gull. Winch. meas.
— Alquêre = 3-07 — 1/2 inch. meas.	Figuera - Alimude = 34 — wine meas.
Oporto - Alimude = 64 — wine meas.	— Alquêre = 34 — Winch. meas.
— Alquêre = 34 — Winch. meas.	Vianna - Alimude = 64 — wine meas.
Faro - Alimude = 44 — wine meas.	— Alquêre = 34 — Winch. meas.

(Kelly's Comber, vol. 1, art. Lisboa.)
Bank of Lisbon.—This establishment was founded in 1823. Its capital consisted, in 1832, of about 601,160*l.*, divided into 6,911 shares of about 100*l.* each. The shareholders are not liable beyond the amount of their shares. The bank discounts bills not having more than 3 months to run, at 5 per cent. Its dividends, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, were about 6 per cent. It enjoys the singular but valuable privilege of having its claims on all estates paid off in full, provided the estate amounts to so much; other creditors being obliged to content themselves with a division of the residue, if there be any.

Duties.—These are moderate. British goods pay a duty of 15 per cent. on a valuation fixed in 1782; but this on some articles is a good deal more, and on others less. The importation of tobacco, snuff, and soap is prohibited, except for the use of the contractors to whom the manufacture and sale of these articles is assigned. All imported articles pay a duty (consolidated) of 4 per cent. ad valorem. The duties collected at the different Custom-houses in Lisbon,—for of these there are no fewer than seven,—amounted, in 1831, to about 2,600,000*l.*

authorities at Belem, who deliver the signal the vessel is to land where going to sea.
 There is no regular warehousing and bonding system in Lisbon. All imported dry goods are allowed to remain in the Custom-house stores 3 years, and liquids 6 months, without being changed warehouse rent, provided they are intended for consumption, and pay the duties accordingly. But if, after that period, they are taken out to be re-ported, they are charged 3 per cent. duty.
Post Charges.—On a foreign ship of 200 tons entering the port of Lisbon, with a general or mixed cargo, and clearing out with the same:—

Arrivals.	1828.		1830.		1831.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British	322	34,308	304	30,334	280	34,749
Portuguese	340	—	343	—	131	—
Foreign	460	—	422	—	338	—

Royal passport	7,800
Fetty expenses on entering at the Custom house, about	700
Anchorage	400
Ballast clearance	400
Tonnage, 100 rees per ton	30,000
Lights, 50 rees per ton	16,000
Contribution to Board of Trade	1,600
Ferry charges	720
Bill of health	840
Total	54,960 = 11<i>l.</i> 6<i>s.</i> 6<i>d.</i> ster.

There is no return of the tonnage of the Portuguese and foreign ships.

Port Regulations.—All vessels entering the Tagus are obliged to come to anchor off Belem Castle, where there is an office at which they must be entered, their cargoes declared, from whence they come, and whether the cargo be intended to be landed in Lisbon or not; if not, the master supplies for "franchise," that is, for leave to remain 8 days in the port for the purpose of disposing of the cargo or of departing with it. Two Custom-house officers are then sent on board, and if the cargo is to be discharged at Lisbon, the vessel proceeds to the Custom house, when the master speaks entry, delivering the manifest and bills of lading attached to the certificate of the Portuguese consul, at the port of lading, in order to identify the cargo. The officers put on board at Belem are then relieved by two others, who remain until the vessel be discharged and visited by the Custom-house officers. The port dues have to be paid in different offices; but the vessel is not subject to any other charges.

Vessels coming with a cargo, or in ballast, and departing in ballast, pay 200 rees per ton lights, or 4 lines as much as if they sailed with cargo. Vessels coming with a cargo, and sailing with the same cargo, pay no tonnage dues.

Commission.—The ordinary rates of commission are, on the sale of goods, 1/4 per cent.; *del credere*, 1/2 per cent.; on the value of goods landed from a vessel putting in to effect repairs, 1 per cent.; on ships' disbursements, 5 per cent.

Insurances are effected to a trifling amount. There is a national company for effecting insurances; but it is sojourning little credit. Rates are not regulated by any certain rule. These amounts are generally those invoiced or marked on the packages.—(See *Annuaire des Commerce Maritimes*, p. 253; *Kelly's Comber*; *Compendium de Circulars Quercus*, &c.)

(In return for the privilege conceded to the Portuguese under the Methuen treaty (see **TREATIES**), of admitting their wines to entry for consumption in Great Britain, at 2-3*d.* the duty charged on French wines, British woollens were admitted into Portugal at a duty of 15 per cent. This rate of duty was afterwards extended to all British articles; and, since 1782, it has been charged according to a tariff or valuation fixed that year. But, with the exception of goods from Brazil, all other foreign goods consumed in Portugal paid a duty of 30 per cent. These distinctions are now, however, at an end; the subjoined decrees having fixed the duty on all goods admitted to consumption in Portugal, without regard to their origin, at 15 per cent. This regulation was a good deal complained of here, but without reason. Having judiciously equalised the duties on French and Portuguese wines, we had no right or title to expect that the Portuguese should continue to render us the stipulated equivalent of what we had ourselves withdrawn. In so far, too, as we are concerned, the change is not really of any material importance, and will not sensibly affect our trade with Portugal. We subjoin the decree referred to:—

1. All goods and merchandise, of whatever nature and origin, and under whatever flag they may be imported, are admitted into the Custom-house of Lisbon and Oporto, to be despatched for consumption.
2. Live pica, gunpowder, and foreign oils and turpentine, are excepted from the foregoing article.
3. The importation of grain will be regulated by a special law; and in the mean time the existing dispositions thereunto relating, will continue in force.
4. Wine, vinegar, brandy, and other spirits, of whatever quality they may be, are only admitted in bottles or jars of half a

- canada, Lisbon measure, and in boxes containing 3 dozens of bottles each. Rum, however, is admitted in casks of any size.
5. Goods admitted to consumption by the present decree, if imported in Portuguese vessels from the country to which they are so-ported, or in ships of that country coming direct, will pay 10 per cent., levied upon the tariff valuation, and where there is no tariff, ad valorem. In the contrary case, will pay the duty hereby established increased by 1/2 of the same duty.
6. Vinegar, wine, brandy, and all other spirits, will pay 200 reis per bottle or jar. The decree of the 7th of December, 1828, in relation to full force as regards rum, whatever place it comes from. The goods comprehended in this paragraph remain subject to the clauses of the preceding article, in so far as they are applicable.

[The following decree of the Portuguese government is important to American ship-owners.

Article 1. All foreign ships entering the ports of this kingdom in ballast, and loading a full cargo of salt, shall be free from the tonnage duty. **Sec.**—Foreign ships entering any of the ports of this kingdom in ballast, and sailing out again to take a full cargo of salt at another of our ports, are equally free from the tonnage duty.

Article 2. All foreign vessels entering the ports of this kingdom under Frangul, in order to complete their cargoes with salt, shall pay the duty of 100 reis per ton.

Article 3. All foreign vessels entering the ports of this kingdom to discharge cargoes of merchandise, and here load a full cargo of salt, shall pay the duty of 100 reis per ton.

Article 4. All foreign vessels which (having paid the duty in one of the ports of this kingdom) sailed in ballast to another port of the kingdom, in order there to take full cargo of salt, are entitled to receive back the duty paid in the first port, with the deduction merely of 100 reis per ton, on presenting to the competent authority of a legal certificate of said payment.—*Am. Ed.*

LITERARY PROPE
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LITERARY PROPERTY. See Books.

LITHARGE (Ger. *Glätte, Glätte*; Du. *Gelit*; Fr. *Litharge*; It. *Lithargio*; Sp. *Almortaga, Lithargio*; Rus. *Glet*; Lat. *Lithargyrium*), an oxide of lead in an imperfect state of vitrification. Most of the lead met with in commerce contains silver, from a few grains to 20 ounces or more in the fodder: when the quantity is sufficient to pay the expense of separation, it is *refined*; that is, the metal is exposed to a high heat, passing at the same time a current of air over the surface: the lead is thus oxidised and converted into litharge, while the silver, remaining unchanged, is collected at the end of the process.—(*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*) Litharge is used for various purposes in the arts, by potters, glass makers, painters, &c.

[LIVERPOOL. See Supplement.—Am. Ed.]

LOADSTONE (Ger. *Magnet*; Du. *Magneet*; Fr. *Aimant*; It. *Calamita*; Sp. *Iman*; Rus. *Magnit*; Lat. *Magnes*). M. Haly observes, that the ores in which the iron contains the least oxygen were being engaged in other combinations, form natural magnets; and he calls the *loadstones* of commerce, which are found in considerable masses in Germany, Sweden, Norway, Spain, Italy, China, Siam, the Philippine Isles, Corlica, and Ethiopia, *acidulated iron*. The loadstone is characterised by the following properties:—A very strong action on the magnetic needle. Specific gravity 4.2457. Not ductile. Of a dark grey colour, with a metallic lustre.—Primitive form, the regular octahedron. Insoluble in nitric acid. This singular substance was known to the ancients; and they had remarked its peculiar property of attracting iron; but it does not appear that they were acquainted with the wonderful property which it also has, of turning to the pole when suspended, and left at liberty to move freely. Upon this remarkable circumstance the mariner's compass depends,—an instrument which gives us such infinite advantages over the ancients. It is this which enables the mariner to conduct his vessel through vast oceans out of the sight of land, in any given direction; and this directive property also guides the miner in subterranean excavations, and the traveller through deserts otherwise impassable. The natural loadstone has also the quality of communicating its properties to iron and steel; and when pieces of steel properly prepared are touched, as it is called, by the loadstone, they are denominated artificial magnets.—(See COMPASS.)

LOBSTER (Fr. *Erevisse*; Lat. *Cancer*), a fish of the crab species, of which vast quantities are consumed in London.

The minimum size of lobsters offered for sale is fixed by 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 24, at eight inches from the tip of the nose to the end of the middle fin of the tail. No lobsters are to be taken on the coast of Scotland between the 1st of June and the 1st of September, under a penalty of 5*l*. The Scilly Islands and the Land's End abound in lobsters, as well as several places on the Scotch shores, particularly about Montrose. But the principal lobster fishery is on the coast of Norway; whence it is believed upwards of 1,200,000 lobsters are annually imported into London. Those of Helligland are, however, esteemed the best; they are of a deeper black colour, and their flesh is firmer than those brought from Norway. Foreign caught turbot and lobsters may be imported either in British or foreign vessels free of duty.

LOCK, LOCKS (Ger. *Schlösser*; Du. *Sloten*; Fr. *Serrures*; It. *Serrature*; Sp. *Cerraduras, Cerrajos*; Rus. *Samki*), a well known instrument, of which there are infinite varieties. A great deal of art and delicacy is sometimes displayed in contriving and varying the wards, springs, bolts, &c., and adjusting them to the places where they are to be used, and to the occasions of using them. From the various structure of locks, accommodated to their different intentions, they acquire various names, as stock locks, spring locks, padlocks, &c. Wolverhampton was, at a very early period, famous for the superior skill and ingenuity of its locksmiths; but the best locks are now made in London and Birmingham. The grand difficulty to be overcome in making a lock is to construct it so that it may not be opened by any key except its own, nor admit of being picked; it should also be possessed of sufficient strength and durability, and not be too complex. Many ingenious contrivances have been proposed for the attainment of the desired security,—several of which are possessed of considerable merit. We believe, however, that there is none that combines all the principal requisites of a lock in so eminent a degree as "Chubb's Detector Lock," so called from the inventor, Mr. Chubb, of Portsea. Common door-locks are now usually inserted in the wood, instead of being, as formerly, screwed to it; and when so placed are called *mortise locks*.

LOGWOOD (Fr. *Bois de Campêche*; Ger. *Kampescholz*; Du. *Campecheout*; Sp. *Palo de Campeche*), the wood of a tree (*Hæmatoxylon Campechianum* Lin.), a native of America, and which attains the greatest perfection at Campeachy, and in the West Indies. It thrives best in a wet soil, with a large proportion of clay. The logwood tree is like the white-thorn, but of a deep red larger. The wood is hard, compact, heavy, and of a deep red colour internally, which it gives out both to water and alcohol. It is an article of great commercial importance, being extensively used as a dye wood. It is imported in logs, that are afterwards chipped.—(The logwood tree, and the adventures of those that were formerly engaged in cutting it, are described by Dampier; see his *Voyages*, vol. ii. part 2. p. 66. ed. 1729.)

The entries for home consumption, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, amounted to 10,373 tons a year. The duty of 4*s*. 6*d*. a ton on foreign logwood, and of 3*s*. on that from a British

stant land their arms, for a trifling consideration, to such foreigners as wish to be associated with them for the purpose of trading from the port. Independently, however, of this, vessels of other nations usually experience no difficulty in obtaining the connivance of the Chinese officers to the landing or receiving of goods in the roads, by means of Portuguese boats. At intervals, indeed, the prohibitory regulation is strictly enforced; but we believe that there has been no instance of this for the last 3 years.

Vessels of other nations, if in distress, and not engaged in the contraband trade, are admitted into the harbour for repairs, on application to the senate.

Port Charges.—The measurement duty paid by Spanish and Portuguese vessels is moderate. When a vessel has once paid the full amount, and is admitted on the list of registered ships belonging to the port (limited by the Chinese to 30), she is liable only to a third of the original charge, on every subsequent occasion of her entering, as long as she continues on the register. Portuguese vessels from Europe do not possess this privilege, unless they be registered as belonging to a member of the senate.

The rates of measurement duty, which vary, as at Canton, (which has three classes of vessels, are the following—

Tons.
 1st. On vessels of 154 coveids and upwards, 6-225 per covid.
 2d. — from 120 to 154 coveids 4-72 —
 3d. — from 50 to 120 coveids 4 —

These rates are nearly the same as those levied on Canton junks, trading with foreign countries, and ought, in fact, to be entirely so. The dimensions are taken and calculated in the same manner as at Canton (see p. 107); but the Chinese, at both places, speak out of the coveid, but of the change of 10 coveids. However, as this is only a nominal increase, it makes no difference in the method of calculation.

The following additional charge, to be calculated on the amount of measurement duty, are the same on every class of vessels, viz.
 1. 3 per cent. for inspection.
 2. 10 — for difference in weight by the treasury scales.
 3. 10 — for loss in melting.

For making opium:
 10 — for loss in melting.
 11 — for loss in melting.
 12 — for loss in melting.

Also the sum of 70 taels for the "public park," or hoppo's treasury. In addition to these, the following are the charges levied by the hoppo (collector of customs), or his assistants—

1. On 4th class vessel from Europe, 500 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 30 taels.
 2. On 3d class vessel from Europe, 340 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 30 taels.

On 2d class vessel from Europe, 170 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 30 taels.

On 1st class vessel from Europe, 100 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 30 taels.

These imposing rates are exempt from the measurement duty, and pay only 50 dollars, as has the procurator of Macao and the officers of his departments.

Portuguese vessels from Europe, in addition to the measurement duty, have to pay to the Canton local merchants a charge, termed by the Portuguese, *Manistagem*, or *Commo charge*, which is usually a matter of specific bargain, varying from about 500 dollars on a vessel of 200 tons, to 3,500 dollars and upwards on those of 600 tons and of larger size.

The charges on goods carried by the inner passage, between Canton and Macao, being generally less than those paid on goods to and from Whampoa; and the duties levied by the Portuguese, on articles of merchandise imported by vessels belonging to Macao, being very moderate, the Chinese are often led to engage in speculations on board the Macao vessels, the risk being so much less than in native junks.

If the ship owners could manage their business so as to be satisfied with only the same freight as is charged by English vessels, it would probably induce many more Chinese to make remittances in this way.

Opium.—The trade in opium is prohibited at Macao by the Chinese government, as well as throughout the rest of the empire. It was, nevertheless, formerly carried on to a great extent by the Portuguese merchants, or slaves, to the exclusion of all others, even Portuguese who were not slaves. But this restriction having occurred the decline of the trade, it was abolished in 1823, when the senate passed a resolution throwing open the trade to all, without distinction, whether Portuguese or foreigners; securing to the latter a hospital, and the utmost freedom in their speculations. At present, however, very little opium is imported, in consequence, it is said, of the heavy bribes demanded by the Chinese officers to insure

their connivance. The trade, as already observed (vol. I. p. 258), is now principally carried on at Lintia, about 30 miles from Macao.

Imports.—Goods imported pay at the Portuguese Customs-house a duty of 8 per cent. on a fixed valuation, besides some fees and excise duties. The following are a few articles extracted from the tariff—

	per picul	per covid	per picul	per covid
Cotton	1-800	0-006	1-800	0-006
Broad cloth, middling	—	—	—	—
— better than ordinary	—	—	—	—
— ordinary or coarse	—	—	—	—
Camlets	1-280	0-016	1-280	0-016
Best wet	—	—	—	—
— dry	—	—	—	—
Camlets	1-280	0-016	1-280	0-016
Best wet	—	—	—	—
— dry	—	—	—	—
Birds' nests, lat sort	22-400	1-344	22-400	1-344
Baltan	1-200	0-072	1-200	0-072
Salt-petre, Bengal	—	—	—	—
— coast of Goa	—	—	—	—
Pepper	4-000	0-240	4-000	0-240

Opium imported in Portuguese ships, pays per chest, drs. 10 1-4
 Do. foreign do. 10 1-4

Gold and silver, whether in coin, in bullion, or manufacturer, pay on importation, 2 per cent.; except in Spanish vessels from Manilla, which pay the charge at 1 1/2 per cent.

Exports.—No duty is levied by the Portuguese on goods exported from Macao; nor does the Customs house take any cognizance of them.

Duties and Charges on Goods landed at Macao.—Macao is a place without any manufacture or commerce of its own. Prices are, in consequence, generally dependent on those of Canton. Money is usually paid at 73 taels per 100 dollars.

It is a point of some interest to ascertain the internal duties and expenses to which goods landed at Macao are liable, before coming into the Chinese purchaser's hands at Canton. But the subject is so involved in mystery and uncertainty, the charges varying according to the quantity of goods laden in one boat, &c., that it is scarcely possible to arrive at any accurate information respecting it. We believe, however, that the following may be considered as a pretty close approximation to the real amount of charges incurred on cotton landed at Macao—

Portuguese duty, fees, &c.	maco, 2-6	per picul
Duties and charges on conveyance to Canton	6-3	—
Canton charges, difference of weight, brokerage on sale, &c.	8-0	—
Total, about taels,	2-6-9	—

The duties and charges on conveyance from Macao to Canton are, for pepper, per picul maco, 3-0
 — — — — — do. — — — — — 4-6
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The hoppo's exorbitant charges 80 taels per boat of 1,000 piculs, the largest quantity allowed to be conveyed by a single boat; but the same charge of 80 taels is levied, although the boat should only contain 100 piculs.

The duty on exporting goods from Canton to Macao is in some cases less, in other cases greater, than the Whampoa duty. Thus, nankeens to Macao pay 3 dollars per 100 lbs. less than to Whampoa. Most descriptions of silk piece goods also pay less duty. On the other hand, tea, paper, China ware, &c., pay a higher duty to Macao than to Whampoa.

For details as to the *Weights, Measures, &c.* use to Macao, see Canton.

For further particulars, see *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, art. *Macao*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; and the *Anglo-Chinese Calendar and Companion to the Almanac*, Macao, 1832.

MACE (Ger. *Macis*, *Muskatelnblüthe*; Du. *Poelie*, *Foely*, *Muscantbloom*; Fr. *Macis*, *Fleur de muscade*; It. *Mace*; Sp. *Macio*; Port. *Maccis*, *Flor de noz muscada*; Lat. *Macia*), a thin, flat, membranous substance, enveloping the nutmeg; of a lively, reddish yellow colour, a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. Mace should be chosen fresh, tough, oleaginous, of an extremely fragrant smell, and a bright colour—the brighter the better. The smaller pieces are esteemed the best. The preferable mode of packing is in bales, pressed down close and firm, which preserves its fragrance and consistence.

Account of the Quantity of Mace retained for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty on it, and the total Revenue derived therefrom, since 1810.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.			Rate of Duty charged thereon.	Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.			Rate of Duty charged thereon.
	Lbs.	l.	s. d.			Lbs.	l.	s. d.	
1810	5,136	2,707	4 0	Of the East Indies. 7s. 8d. per lb. and 2l. 13s. 4d. per centum ad valorem. ditto. ditto. (From 15 April) 8s. 11d. per lb. and 2l. 5s. 4d. per centum ad valorem. (From 10 April) 7s. 8d. per lb. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. (From 5 July) 8s. 6d. per lb.	1820	14,153	5,174	7 0	Of the East Indies. (From 5 July) 9s. 8d. per lb. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto. ditto.
1811	7,940	4,057	1 0		1821	11,674	4,261	6 0	
1812	11,907	5,433	8 8		1822	14,318	5,484	10 4	
1813	Records destroyed				1823	16,373	5,297	5 4	
1814	5,490	3,319	14 11		1824	14,913	5,601	15 1	
1815	7,524	3,592	14 7		1825	16,600	5,718	17 6	
1816	4,499	2,364	8 6		1826	16,761	5,963	15 8	
1817	4,612	2,362	10 3		1827	16,094	5,259	10 4	
1818	10,486	4,498	10 3		1828	14,254	5,543	15 4	
1819	15,312	6,226	14 6		1829	15,800	5,295	6 0	
				1830	15,364	5,126	6 0		
				1831	16,938	5,768	9 7 1/2		

A production is met with on the coast of Malabar, so like mace, that at first it is not easy to be distinguished; but it has not the least flavour of apiciness, and when chewed has a kind of resinous taste. Eight cwt. of mace are allowed to a ton.—(Milburn's *Oriental Com.*)

MADDER (Ger. *Färberöthe*, Du. *Mee*; Fr. *Aizari*, *Garance*; It. *Robbia*; Sp. *Grana*, *Rubia*; Rus. *Mariona*, *Krap*; Hind. *Munjith*), the roots of a plant (*Rubia tinctorum*), of which there are several varieties. They are long and slender, varying from the thickness of a goose-quill to that of the little finger. They are semi-transparent, of a reddish colour, have a strong smell, and a smooth bark. Madder is very extensively used in dyeing red; and though the colour which it imparts be less bright and beautiful than that of cochineal, it has the advantage of being cheaper and more durable. It is a native of the south of Europe, Asia Minor, and India; but has been long since introduced into and successfully cultivated in Holland, Alsace, Provence, &c. Its cultivation has been attempted in England, but without any beneficial result. Our supplies of madder were, for a lengthened period, almost entirely derived from Holland (Zealand); but large quantities are now imported from France and Turkey.

Dutch or Zealand madder is never exported except in a prepared or manufactured state. It is divided by commercial men into four qualities, distinguished by the terms *mull*, *gamene*, *ombro*, and *crops*. The roots being dried in stoves, the first species, or mull, consists of a powder formed by pounding the very small roots, and the husk or bark of the larger ones. It is comparatively low priced, and is employed for dyeing cheap dark colours. A second pounding separates about a third part of the larger roots; and this being sifted and packed separately, is sold here under the name of gamene, or gemeens. The third and last pounding comprehends the interior, pure, and bright part of the roots, and is sold in Holland under the name of *kor krops*, but is here simply denominated *crops*. Sometimes, however, after the mull has been separated, the entire residue is ground, sifted, and packed together under the name of *onberooft*, or ombro. It consists of about one third of gamene, and two thirds of *crops*. Prepared madder should be kept dry. It attracts the moisture of the atmosphere, and is injured by it.

The Smyrna or Levant madder (*Rubia peregrina*), the alizari or lizary of the modern Greeks, is cultivated in Bœotia, along the border of lake Copais, and in the plain of Thebes. It also grows in large quantities at Kurdar near Smyrna, and in Cyprus. The madder of Provence has been raised from seeds carried from the latter in 1761. Turkey madder affords, when properly prepared, a brighter colour than that of Zealand. It is, however, imported in its natural state, or as roots: the natives, by whom it is chiefly produced, not having industry or skill sufficient to prepare it like the Zealanders, by pounding and separating the skins and inferior roots; so that the finer colouring matter of the larger roots being degraded by the presence of that derived from the former, a peculiar process is required to evolve that beautiful Turkey red which is so highly and deservedly esteemed.—(Thomson's *Chemistry*; Bancroft on *Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 231—278.: see also Beckmann, *Hist. of Invent.* vol. iii. art. *Madder*.)

In France, madder is prepared nearly in the same manner as in Zealand. The following instructive details as to its cultivation, price, &c. in Provence, were obligingly furnished to us by an English gentleman intimately acquainted with such subjects; who visited Avignon in the autumn of 1829:—

"This town (Avignon) is the centre of the madder country, the cultivation of which was introduced here about the middle of the 18th century, and, with the exception of Alsace, is still confined (in France) to this department (Vaucluse). The soil appears to be better adapted for its cultivation here than any where else, and it has long been the source of great wealth to the cultivators. Of late years, however, the prices have fluctuated so much, that many proprietors have abandoned, or only occasionally cultivated this root, so that the crop, which was formerly estimated to average 800,000 quintals, is now supposed not to exceed from 300,000 to 400,000.

"The root is called *aizari*, and the powder (made from 10 gerena. The plant is raised from seed, and requires 3 years to come to maturity. It is, however, often sown in 12 months, without injury to the quality; the quantity only is smaller. A rich soil is necessary for its successful cultivation) and when the soil is impregnated with alkaline matter, the root acquires a red colour—in other cases it is yellow. The latter is preferred in England, from the long habit of using Dutch madder, which is of this colour; but in France the red sets at 3 fr. per quintal higher, being used for the Turkey red dye.

"It is calculated that when wheat sells at 20 fr. per hectolitre, *aizari* should bring 35 fr. per quintal (pois de table), to give the same remuneration to the cultivator. That is, wheat 63s. per Eng. quarter, and *aizari* 51s. per Eng. cwt. The price has, however, been frequently as low as 22 fr. per quintal.

"Prices undergo a revolution every 1 or 2 years, reaching the minimum of 22, and rising as high as 100 fr. As in every similar case, the high price induces extensive cultivation, and this generally produces its full effect 4 or 5 years after. The produce of Alsace, which is inferior both in quantity and quality to that of Vaucluse, is generally sold in Strasbourg market.

"England employs both the root and the powder, according to the purposes for which they are intended. The Dutch madder is more employed by the woollen dyers, and the French by the cotton dyers and printers.

"In making purchases of gamene it is essential to employ a house of confidence, because the quality depends entirely upon the care and honesty of the agent. The *gamene* is produced from the roots after being cleaned and stripped of their bark. The second by grinding

the roots without cleaning. A third by mixing the bark of the first with grinding; and so on to any degree of adulteration.

"The price of *aizari* in the country, which was only 25 fr. in July, is now, (November, 1829) at 58 fr., and is expected to be at 60 fr. very shortly. The crop being deficient both here and in Holland, and the certainty of its being also deficient next year, added to the small quantity existing in England, give reason to believe that the price will reach 80 fr. before many months, and will continue to advance for a year or two more.

"The quintals here mentioned are of 100 lbs. poids de table—the weight in general use over the south of France, and even in *Neuchâtel*.—This weight is different in the different provinces, varying from 80 to 95 per cent. lighter than the *pois de commerce*. At Avignon 184 lbs. poids de table = 50 livres, consequently 186 lbs. are equal to 1 cwt. Eng. At the exchange of 25-50, the cwt. cost (including its freight, duty, and all charges till delivered in London or Liverpool) 61s. or 65s.

"It is considered that only one sixth or one seventh of the present crop remains for sale.

"Madder does not deteriorate by keeping, provided it is kept dry.

Complete *aizari*. 58
Cost of 1 quintal of roots in the country 5
Expenses in do. 37

The root gives 85 per cent. powder, consequently 1 quintal powder 49-5
Grinding and cart 5
Transport 5-50

The English cwt. costs therefore 60-5
All expenses till on board at Marseilles 8
Beside commission 7-50

For an account of East India madder or munjeet, see *Munjeet*.

Account of the Quantity of each Year since 1820; with Papers published by Board

Year	Quantity entered for Consumption.
1820	67,375
1821	48,480
1822	54,282
1823	78,458
1824	63,054
1825	75,346
1826	48,487
1827	56,750
1828	55,658
1829	60,658
1830	48,255
1831	48,758
1832	60,548

Of the imports of prepared madder, 12,637 were brought from France, 12,637 were imported from the south of the Indian coast (Madras), and 2,377 from the West Indies. The quantity of madder in use reduced to 1820, and its price, duty included, December, 1829, was as follows:—

Madder, Dutch mull
gamene

MADRAAS. See **W.B. BAY OF BENGAL**, the principality of Bengal, in lat. 22° 30' N. It is a second presidency of the British Empire, and covers an area of 100,000 square miles, with a population of 10,000,000. Its annual revenue of above 20 millions of rupees is derived from a variety of sources—land, salt, and opium. Besides these duties, the sphere of the hurricane, indeed, it is a very greatly inferior to that of English 192 years, being ascertained to be 28,788 about 160,000. Fort St. George, the Black Town, and other Portuguese merchant houses, Madras, like the Court of Judicature, the president of the local government.

In Madras roads, large a W.N.W., 3 miles from shore of the year, in consequence of the 15th of October the flag which period, a ship coming Coromandel (reckoned from the dilations of the policies of all above the level of the sea, or from the main-head at a Madras boats, are large ar instead of caulking, which the surf, the coromandel stam rowers work their oars b boat along with faithful v the wave from taking the l is thrown high and dry upo to the back of the surf, s dangerous to have commu near the landing-place, a The fishermen and lowe very simple construction, long length, lashed together, piece. When ready for th through the surf, to carry venture out. They wear no damage. The men are interrupted by a shark. M persons in danger.

Account of the Quantity of Madder and Madder Roots respectively entered for Home Consumption each Year since 1823, with the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duty on each.—(From Papers published by Board of Trade.)

Year	Madder.			Madder Roots.		
	Quantity entered for Consumption.	Rate of Duty, Malt manufactured.	Net Revenue.	Quantity entered for Consumption.	Rate of Duty, all sorts.	Net Revenue.
1823	46,498	12s.	57,309	44,300	1s. 6d.	10,980
1824	44,282	12s.	53,139	45,984	1s. 6d.	12,119
1825	46,498	12s.	57,309	44,300	1s. 6d.	10,980
1826	44,282	12s.	53,139	45,984	1s. 6d.	12,119
1827	46,498	12s.	57,309	44,300	1s. 6d.	10,980
1828	44,282	12s.	53,139	45,984	1s. 6d.	12,119
1829	46,498	12s.	57,309	44,300	1s. 6d.	10,980
1830	44,282	12s.	53,139	45,984	1s. 6d.	12,119
1831	46,498	12s.	57,309	44,300	1s. 6d.	10,980
1832	44,282	12s.	53,139	45,984	1s. 6d.	12,119

Of the imports of prepared madder in 1831, amounting to 43,905 cwt., 21,877 were brought from France, and 19,790 from Holland. Of the madder not imported the same year, amounting to 62,440 cwt., 34,877 were from France, 23,953 from Turkey, 4,970 from the East Indies (most part), and 2,577 from Italy.

	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Madder, Dutch ombro crop	2 10 0	3 15 0
French SFFP	0 0 0	0 0 0
Spanish	2 8 0	2 10 0
Turkey	1 14 0	1 10 0
East India, or monjeet	1 14 0	1 10 0

The duty on madder is now reduced to 12s. a cwt., and on roots to 6s. a cwt., and their price, duty included, in the London market, in December, 1832, was as follows:—

	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Madder, Dutch small	0 10 0	1 5 0
gannese	1 10 0	2 5 0

Madder, the produce of Europe, is not to be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under forfeiture of the same, and 100*l.* by the master of the vessel.—(8 & 4 7th. c. 4. s. 58. sect. 55.)

MADEIRA: See WINE.

MADRAS, the principal emporium on the coast of Coromandel, or western shore of the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 13° 5' N., lon. 80° 21' E. It is the seat of government of the second presidency of the British possessions in India, having under it a territory of 154,000 square miles, with a population, according to a recent census, of 15,000,000, paying a gross annual revenue of above 5,000,000*l.* sterling. The town is situated in the Carnatic province—a low, sandy, and rather sterile country. It is without port or harbour, lying close upon the margin of an open roadstead, the shores of which are constantly beat by a heavy surf. Besides these disadvantages, a rapid current runs along the coast; and it is within the sphere of the hurricanes or typhoons, by which it is occasionally visited. In every respect, indeed, it is a very inconvenient place for trade, and its commerce is consequently greatly inferior to that of either Calcutta or Bombay. It has been in possession of the English 192 years, being founded by them in 1639. In 1823, the number of houses was ascertained to be 26,786; which allowing 6 inhabitants to each, makes the total population about 160,000. Fort Saint George is a strong and handsome fortification, lying close to the shore. The Black Town of Madras, as it is called, stands to the north and eastward of the fort, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade. Here reside the native, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, with many Europeans unconnected with the government. Like most other Indian towns, it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses. Madras, like Calcutta and Bombay, is subject to English law; having a Supreme Court of Judicature, the judges of which are named by the Crown, and are altogether independent of the local government, and the East India Company.

In Madras roads, large ships moor in from 7 to 9 fathoms, with the flagstaff of the fort bearing W.N.W., 3 miles from shore. From October to January is generally considered the most unsafe season of the year, in consequence of the prevalence, during that interval, of storms and typhoons. On the 15th of October the flagstaff is struck, and not erected again until the 15th of December; during which period, a ship coming into the roads, or, indeed, any where within soundings on the coast of Coromandel (reckoned from Point Palmyras to Ceylon), vitates her insurance, according to the conditions of the policies of all the insurance offices in India. In the fort there is a light-house, 50 feet above the level of the sea, and which may be seen from the deck of a large ship, at 17 miles' distance, or from the mast-head at a distance of 26 miles. The cargo boats used for crossing the surf, called *Masala* boats, are large and light; made of very thin planks sewed together, with straw in the seams, instead of caulking, which it is supposed might render them too stiff. When within the influence of the surf, the coxswain stands up, and beats time in great agitation with his voice and feet, while the rowers work their oars backwards, until overtake by a strong surf curling up, which sweeps the boat along with frightful violence. Every oar is then plied forward with the utmost vigour to prevent the wave from taking the boat back as it recedes; until at length, by a few successive surfs, the boat is thrown high and dry upon the beach. The boats belonging to ships in the roads sometimes proceed to the back of the surf, and wait for the country boats from the beach to come to them. When it is dangerous to have communication with the shore, a flag is displayed at the beach-house, which stands near the landing-place, as a caution.

The fishermen and lower classes employed on the water, use a species of floating machine of a very simple construction, named a *catamaran*. It is formed of 2 or 3 logs of light wood, 8 or 10 feet in length, lashed together, with a small piece of wood inserted between them to serve as a stem-plate. When ready for the water, they hold generally 2 men, who with their paddles impel themselves through the surf, to carry waters, or refreshments in small quantities, to ships, when no boat can venture out. They wear a pointed cap made of matting, where they secure the letters, which take no damage. The men are often washed off the catamaran, which they regain by swimming, unless interrupted by a shark. Medals are given to such catamaran men as distinguish themselves by saving persons in danger.

The following are the established rates of port charges at Madras :-

Light-house Dues.			Calcuttans Hire.		
	Rs.	As. p.		Rs.	As. p.
All British and foreign ships	25	0 0
Country ships	14	0 0
Snow, brig, sloop, and schooner	6	0 0
Sloop and cutter	6	0 0
Large dhows	8	0 0
Small dhows	8	0 0

Anchorage Dues.			Calcuttans Hire.		
	Rs.	As. p.		Rs.	As. p.
British ships, and ships under foreign, European or American colours	38	0 0
Country ships, from 50 to 200 tons	35	0 0
.. .. 200 - 300	32	0 0
.. .. 300 - 500	31	0 0
.. .. 500 - 1000	37	0 0
.. .. 1000 - 2000	14	0 0
.. .. 2000 - 3000	10	0 0
.. .. 3000 - 4000	0	0 0
.. .. 4000 - 5000	0	0 0
.. .. 5000 - 10000	0	0 0
.. .. 10000 - 20000	0	0 0
.. .. 20000 - 30000	0	0 0
.. .. 30000 - 40000	0	0 0
.. .. 40000 - 50000	0	0 0
.. .. 50000 - 100000	0	0 0
.. .. 100000 - 200000	0	0 0
.. .. 200000 - 300000	0	0 0
.. .. 300000 - 400000	0	0 0
.. .. 400000 - 500000	0	0 0
.. .. 500000 - 1000000	0	0 0
.. .. 1000000 - 2000000	0	0 0
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town of Madras; it receives deposits and grants discounts. The accumulated profits of the bank, from its first institution in 1806, amounted to 820,926, being at the rate of about 31,000 a year; but the Indian money is here reckoned at the rate of 8s. the pagoda, which is much above both the mint price and the value in exchange, the real profits are considerably smaller.

Mercantile Establishments.—At Madras there are but 3 principal European mercantile establishments, or houses of agency, with 7 of an inferior class. There are 2 American houses, and 1 considerable native house of business. The daubashes, or native brokers of Madras, are expert, intelligent, and sometimes knavish. Among the native merchants there are few men of wealth; and the contrast, in this respect, with Calcutta and Bombay, is striking. The degree of liberality exercised by the respective governments, and the prosperity of the different portions of the British territory in India, may safely be implied by the proportion of British settlers to be found in them. Tried by this test, the Madras provinces will be found amply wanting, as will be seen by the following brief Table:—

1813	Bengal	1,225	Madras	187	Bombay	489
1830		1,707		134		308

Insurance.—There is but one insurance company, called the India Insurance Society; but there are agents of the Calcutta companies, who effect insurance on shipping.

Agency and Commission.—The general rates of agency, commission, and warehouse rent, are as follow:—

- On the total sum of a debit or credit side of an account, at the option of the agent, excepting items on which a commission of 4 per cent. is chargeable, 1 per cent.
 - On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.
 - On subscriptions in government loans, purchasing, selling, transferring, or exchanging public securities, 1-2 per cent.
 - On delivering up public securities, or lodging them in any of the public offices, 1-2 per cent.
 - On receiving and delivering private commissions of wines, cattle, and merchandises, 2-3 per cent.
 - On collecting rents, 2-3 per cent.
 - On the purchase of lottery tickets and amount of prizes, 1 per cent.
 - On the sale of lottery tickets from the other settlements, 1-2 per cent.
 - On letters of credit granted, 2-3 per cent.
 - On the management of estates, as executors, administrators, or attorneys, 5 per cent.
 - On doing, when a process at law or arbitration is necessary, 2-3 per cent.
 - And if recovered by such means, 5 per cent.
 - On bills of exchange, notes, &c. dishonoured, 1 per cent.
 - On overdue debts collected by absence, 3-4 per cent.
 - On becoming security for individuals to government, 1 per cent.
 - On all sales or purchases of goods, 5 per cent.
- With the following exceptions:—**
- On houses, lands, and ships, 1-2 per cent.
 - On diamonds, pearls, and jewellery, 2-3 per cent.
 - On treasure and bullion, 1 per cent.
 - On all goods and merchandises withdrawn, shipped, or delivered to order, 1-2 commissions.
 - On all other descriptions of property for sale, if withdrawn or otherwise disposed of by the owners, 1-2 commission.
 - On goods transferred to auction or commission salesmen, 1-2 commission.
 - On retail sales, 10 per cent.
 - On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, contracts for goods, or other engagements, 2-3 per cent.
 - On ships' disbursements, 2-3 per cent.
 - On advertising as the agents of owners or commanders of ships for freight or passengers; on the amount of freight and passage money, whether the same shall pass through the agent's hands or not, 5 per cent.
 - On effecting insurance, or writing orders for insurance, 1-2 per cent.
 - On settling losses, partial or general, and returns of premiums, 1 per cent.
 - On procuring money on respondentia, wherever payable, 2 per cent.
 - On making up goods to order, and taking risk of advances, 10 per cent.
 - On giving orders for the provision of goods, where a commission is not chargeable on sale or shipment, 2-3 per cent.
 - On attending the delivery of contract goods, 2 per cent.

Exports and Imports.—Madras trades with Great Britain and other European countries, the United States, the South American States, China, the Eastern islands, the Burman empire, Calcutta, and Ceylon. In speaking of the trade of Madras, it is to be observed that it comprehends, for the most part, the trade of the whole coast of Coromandel. The principal articles of import are rice and other grain, chiefly from Bengal; cotton piece goods, iron, copper, spelter, and other British manufactures; raw silk from Bengal and China, with betel or areca nut, gold dust, tin, and pepper, from the Malay countries; and rice and pepper from the coast of Malabar, with teak timber from Pegu. The exports consist of plain and printed cottons, cotton wool, indigo, salt, pearls of Ceylon, chank shells, tobacco, soap, nutron, some dyeing drugs, and a little coffee produced on the table land of Mysore, and of which the quantity is increasing. The great staples of sugar, rice, opium, saltpetre, and lac dye, of such importance in Bengal, are unknown as exports at Madras.

The following is a statement of the value of the trade of Madras, and its subordinate ports, with Europe and America, in the years 1813-14 and 1828-29.

Countries.	1813-1814.						1828-1829.					
	Imports.		Exports.		Imports.		Exports.		Imports.		Exports.	
	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.
Great Britain	Rs. 7,177,489	..	Rs. 7,177,489	Rs. 4,308,948	186,187	Rs. 4,495,135	Rs. 3,954,823	2,168	Rs. 3,956,991	Rs. 3,607,741	4,310,404	Rs. 7,918,145
United States of America
Portugal	71,102	8,683	79,785	98,468	..	98,468	3,919	7,656	10,874	80,938	..	90,938
France	1,282	..	1,282	888,580	1,000	889,580	123,006	..	123,006
South American States	62,906	..	62,906
Total	Rs. 7,249,848	8,683	7,258,531	4,907,408	186,187	5,093,815	3,747,137	32,211	3,779,348	1,233,654	4,013,002	9,792,357

Taking the Madras rupee at its British mint value of 1s. 11d. nearly, the joint exports and imports of 1813-14 were 685,373l.; and those of 1828-29, 788,950l.; showing an increase, in 15 years, of no more than 93,586l., or about 13 per cent.—a striking contrast with the great augmentation which has taken place in the same period in the trade of Calcutta and Bombay. The exports, it will be seen by the Table, have even fallen off. The causes which have led to this state of things deserve some explanation. The raw silks, nankeens, camphor, and cassia of China, which, on account of the monopoly, could not be directly sent from Canton to Europe, were formerly brought by the country ships to Madras, and there reshipped. They are now more conveniently, and in much larger quantity, brought for the same purpose to Singapore. But the chief causes which contribute to retard the external commerce of Madras, are the vexatious restraints on industry, and the taxation so much heavier in that presidency than in Bengal or Bombay. The land tax, instead of being fixed in perpetuity, as in the former, is temporary and fluctuating; and hence, neither British nor native industry is applied with any vigour in the improvement of the productions of the soil. Inland duties prevail every where, and fresh ones are not only exacted when goods pass from one province to another, but often when passing from town to town, or even from village to village. These imposts are, at the same time, farmed to a very corrupt class of persons. Of the value of the trade between Madras and China we have no statement; but the tonnage employed in the export trade, at an average of the 5 years ending with 1817-18, was 3,677 tons; and at an average of the 5 years ending with 1826-27, 3,078 tons. The import tonnage in the same periods amounted respectively to 683 tons and 2,989 tons; the disparity in this case being accounted for, from its having lately become usual for country ships returning in ball

last from China, to touch at Madras for cargoes of salt to be conveyed to Bengal on behalf of the monopoly. For many ages, a commercial intercourse of considerable extent appears to have prevailed thence within the straits of Malacca, with the west coast of Sumatra, and the island of Java. This is still carried on in native vessels, to the extent of 50 or 60 annually, mostly brig or ketches, clumsily constructed, but equipped and navigated on the European model. A few British-owned vessels also occasionally engage in it. In this trade, the exports from Madras and its subordinate ports consist chiefly of piece goods and salt. British fabrics have of late years interfered with the former, and the salt of Siam with the latter, so that the trade is on the decline. The principal foreign trade of Pegu at one time, was carried on with Madras; but within the last 30 years it has been, in a great measure, transferred to Calcutta. There is still, however, a trade of some amount carried on in vessels owned both by Europeans and natives. The exports from Madras to Pegu consist chiefly of piece goods, tobacco, and cocoa nuts; the returns being made in teak timber, horses, opium, stick lac, ballion, sappires, and rubies. The largest branch of the trade of Madras is with Calcutta. In 1813-14, the imports from Madras, and other parts of the Coromandel coast, into Calcutta, amounted to sicca rupees 18,74,941, and the exports to sicca rupees 22,77,934 or jointly to about 425,3971, sterling in 1821-22, the imports amounted to sicca rupees 8,87,221, and the exports to sicca rupees 12,35,015, or jointly to about 212,2231; showing a falling off to the extent of half the whole amount.—The disproportion, in this case, between the imports and exports, is to be accounted for by the omission, in the public accounts, of all salt imported on account of the monopoly, and which has amounted yearly to about 10,000 tons. The great impediment to the intercourse between the Bengal and Madras provinces is the salt monopoly, the quantity of salt taken annually being restricted by the government of Bengal. This limits the consumption of salt in Bengal, where it is naturally dear, and, by compelling the inhabitants of Madras to grow corn on poor lands, precludes the export of the cheap rice of Bengal. The Indian governments, instead of having improved of late years in liberality, have really drawn tighter the cords of monopoly. The effect of this upon the export of corn from Bengal to Madras has been remarkable. In 1806-7, when the salt of Madras was admitted into Calcutta with some liberality, the export of grain to the Coromandel coast amounted to 2,635,658 maunds, or about 470,000 quarters; whereas, in 1823-24, a year of scarcity in the Madras provinces, it amounted to only 1,491,326 maunds, or about 254,900 quarters. The trade between Calcutta and the Coromandel coast is carried on, both in European and native vessels. The latter are of the same description, but not so well equipped as those that trade between the Coromandel coast and the Malay islands. In 1810, the number which cleared out from Calcutta for Madras and its subordinate ports was no less than 397, their burden being estimated at 46,073 tons. Since then, their numbers have declined; being, in 1821, only 103 vessels, of the burden of 11,991 tons. The European tonnage employed in this trade is extremely fluctuating. In 1807, a year of extraordinary scarcity in the Madras provinces, the registered tonnage which cleared out from Calcutta for the Coromandel coast amounted to 91,236 tons which conveyed 6,000,000 quarters of rice. Next year the tonnage amounted to only 6,861 tons. In 1812, another year of scarcity, it was 15,068 tons; and in 1821, a year of plenty, it was but 2,642 tons. These striking facts show the vast importance of a free trade in corn to the countries in question.—(In compiling this article, we have made use of *Hamilton's Description of Hindostan*; *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, 2d ed. 1838; *Phipp's Guide to the Commerce of Bengal*; *Papers relative to the Trade with India and China*, printed by order of the House of Commons, and *Evidence taken before the Parliamentary Committee*, in 1820, 1821, and 1831; *Madras Almanack*, for 1831; *Kelly's Cambist*, 2d ed.; and *Horsburg's Directory*,—an accurate and useful work.)

MAGNESIA (Fr. *Magnésie*; Ger. *Gebrauchte Magnesia*; It. *Magnesia*), one of the primitive earths, having a metallic basis. It is not found native in a state of purity, but is easily prepared. It is inodorous and insipid, in the form of a very light, white, soft powder having a specific gravity of 2.3. It turns to green the more delicate vegetable blues, in is fusible, and requires for its solution 2,000 parts of water at 60°.

MAHOGANY, the wood of a tree (*Swietenia Mahogani*) growing in the West Indies and Central America. There are two other species of *Swietenia* found in the East Indies, but they are not much known in this country.

Mahogany is one of the most majestic and beautiful of trees: its trunk is often 40 feet in length, and 6 feet in diameter; and it divides into so many mossy arms, and throws the shade of its shining green leaves over so vast an extent of surface, that few more magnificent objects are to be met with in the vegetable world. It is abundant in Cuba and Hayti, and it used to be plentiful in Jamaica; but in the latter island, most of the larger trees, at least in accessible situations, have been cut down. The principal importations into Great Britain are made from Honduras and Campechy. That which is imported from the islands is called Spanish mahogany; it is not so large as that from Honduras, being generally in logs from 20 to 25 inches square and 10 feet long, while the latter is usually from 1 to 4 feet square and 12 or 14 feet long, but some logs are much larger. Mahogany is a very beautiful and valuable species of wood: its colour is a red brown, of different shades, and various degrees of brightness; sometimes yellowish brown; often very much veined and mottled, with darker shades of the same colour. The texture is uniform, and the annual rings not very distinct. It has no large septa; but the smaller septa are often very visible, with pores between them, which in the Honduras wood are generally empty, but in the Spanish wood are mostly filled with a whitish substance. When either taste or smell, shrinks very little, and warps or swells less than any other species of timber. It is very durable when kept dry, but does not last long when exposed to the weather. It is not attacked by worms. Like the pine tribe, the timber is best on dry rocky soils, or in exposed situations. That which is most accessible at Honduras grows upon moist low land, and is, generally speaking, decidedly inferior to that brought from Cuba and Hayti; being soft, coarse, and spongy; while the other is close grained and hard, of a darker colour, and sometimes strongly figured. Honduras mahogany has, however, the advantage of holding glue admirably well; and is, for this reason, frequently used as a ground on which to lay veneers of the finer sorts. The best qualities of mahogany bring a very high price. Not long since, Broadwood, the distinguished pianoforte manufacturer, gave the enormous sum of 3,000l. for three logs of mahogany! These logs, the produce of a single tree were each about 15 feet long and 28 inches square; they were cut into veneers of 8 to 10 inch. The wood was particularly beautiful, capable of receiving the highest polish; and when polished, reflecting the light in the most varied manner, like the surface of a crystal; and, from the wavy form of the pores, offering a different figure in whatever direction it was viewed. Dealers in mahogany generally introduce an auger before buying a log; but, notwithstanding, they are seldom able to decide with much precision as to the quality of the wood, so that there is a good deal of loss in the trade. The logs for which Messrs. Broadwood gave so high a price were brought to this country with a full knowledge of their superior worth. Mahogany was used in repairing some of Sir Walter Raleigh's ships at Trinidad, in 1597; but it was not introduced into use in England till 1724.

The cutting of mahogany towards midsummer. The trees are cut about 11,542 tons of mahogany, and 2,623 from Honduras, and 2,623 from mahogany pays only 1 l. to force the consumption to 45,000.—(See *Travels* volume on *Timber Trees* West India or America, as if it had been imported mahogany had been so w Mahogany not to be employed importing the same are the produce of such p

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The cutting of mahogany at Honduras takes place at two different seasons; after Christmas, and towards midsummer. The negroes employed in felling the trees are divided into groups of from 10 to 50. The trees are cut about 12 feet from the ground, and are floated down the rivers.

Of 11,543 tons of mahogany imported in 1831, 8314 came from the British West Indies (including Honduras, and 3,228 from Hayti). The duty on foreign mahogany is 7l. 10s. a ton, whereas Honduras mahogany pays only 1l. 10s., and Jamaica mahogany 4l. The effect of such a duty must obviously be to force the consumption of the inferior in preference to the superior article. In 1832, the duty produced 45,465l.—(See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, p. 204; *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, volume on *Timber Trees and Fruits*, and *Edward's West Indies*, vol. iv. p. 258. ed. 1819, &c.)

Mahogany from Honduras, imported into any free warehousing port in the British possessions to the West Indies or America, in a ship cleared out from Balize, and then warehoused as having been so imported and cleared, may be exported from the warehouse and imported into the United Kingdom, as if it had been imported direct in a British ship, provided it be stated in the ship's clearance that the mahogany had been so warehoused and exported.—(9 Geo. 4. c. 76. § 13.)

Mahogany not to be entered as being the produce of any British possession, unless the master of the ship importing the same deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate, and declare that the goods are the produce of such place.—(See *ante*, p. 8.)

(The duty on foreign mahogany has been reduced to 5l. per ton.—(6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 60.)—*Sup.*)

MAIZE, or INDIAN CORN (Fr. *Bled de Turquie*; Ger. *Türkisch korn*, *Mays*; It. *Grano Turco* or *Siciliano*; Sp. *Trigo de Indias*, *Trigo de Turquía*), one of the cereal grasses (*Zea Mays*), supposed to be indigenous to South America, being the only species of corn cultivated in the New World previously to its discovery. It was introduced into the Continent about the beginning, and into England a little while after the middle, of the 16th century.

Its culture has spread with astonishing rapidity; being now extensively grown in most Asiatic countries, and in all the southern parts of Europe. It has the widest geographical range of all the cerealia, growing luxuriantly at the equator, and as far as the 50th degree of north, and the 40th of south latitude. It has been raised in England, in nursery gardens near the metropolis, for more than a century; and recently it has been attempted to raise it in the fields, but with indifferent success. Like other plants that have been long in cultivation, it has an immense number of varieties. The ear consists of about 600 grains, set close together in rows, to the number of 8, 10, or 12. The grains are usually yellow; but they are sometimes red, bluish, greenish, or olive-coloured, and sometimes striped and variegated. The maize of Virginia is tall and robust, growing 7 or 8 feet high; that of New England is shorter and lower; and the Indians further up the country have a still smaller sort in common use. The stalk is jointed like the sugar cane. The straw makes excellent fodder; and the grain, as a bread corn, is liked by some; but though it abounds in mucilage, it contains little or no gluten, and is not likely to be much used by those who can procure wheaten or even rye bread.—(*Loudon's Encyclopædia of Agriculture*, &c.) For the imports of maize, duties, &c., see CORN LAWS AND TRADE.

MALAGA, a city and sea-port of Spain, in the kingdom of Granada, in lat. 36° 43½' N., lon. 4° 25' 7" W. Population, perhaps, 55,000.*

Harbour.—Malaga has an excellent harbour. It is protected on its eastern side by a fine mole, full 700 yards in length. At its extremity a light-house has been constructed, furnished with a powerful light, revolving once every minute. At a distance it appears obscured for 45 seconds, when a brilliant flash succeeds for the other 15 seconds. A shoal has grown up round the mole head, and the depth of water throughout the harbour is said to be diminishing. Latterly, however, a dredging machine has been employed to deepen it, by clearing out the mud and accumulating sand. The depth of water, at the entrance to the harbour and within the mole, is from 28 to 30 feet; and close to the city, from 8 to 10 feet. The harbour could easily accommodate more than 450 merchant ships: it may be entered with all winds, and affords perfect shelter.

Trade, &c.—Owing to the want of official returns, and to the prevalence of smuggling, which may be said to have annihilated all fair trade, it is not possible to obtain any accurate accounts of the trade of Malaga, or, indeed, of any Spanish port. The great articles of export are wine and fruits, particularly raisins and almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; there is also a considerable exportation of olive oil, with quantities of brandy, anchovies, cummin seed, aniseed, barilla, soap, &c. The lead exported from Malaga is brought from Adra.—(See LEAD.) The imports are salt fish, iron hoops, bar iron, and nails; cotton stuffs, hides, earthenware, &c., with dye stuffs, all sorts of colonial produce, butter and cheese from Holland and Ireland, linens from Germany, &c. The trade with England seems to be diminishing, and that with the United States to be increasing. This is a consequence, no doubt, of Malaga wine being very little in demand in the former, while it is pretty largely consumed in the latter. The Americans are also the largest consumers of Malaga fruit.

The following details, abstracted from Mr. Inglis's valuable work, entitled "Spain in 1830," contain the fullest and by far the best account that we have met with of the trade of Malaga. Their authenticity may, we believe, be depended upon.

* Wine.—The wines of Malaga are of two sorts, sweet and dry; and of the former of these there are four kinds: first, the common "Malaga," known and exported under that name. In this there is a certain proportion of boiled wine, which is allowed to burn, and which communicates a slightly burnt taste to the "Malaga." The grape from which this wine is made is a white grape, and every pipe of

* The consul says 75,000; but we have little doubt that this is very much beyond the mark. In the *Witmer Almanack* the population is set down at 53,370.

'Malaga' contains no less than *six* gallons of brandy. Secondly, 'Mountain.' This wine is made from the same grape as the others, and like it contains colouring matter and brandy; the only difference is that, for 'Mountain,' the grape is allowed to become riper. Thirdly, 'Lagrimas,' the richest and finest of the sweet wines of Malaga; the name of which almost explains the manner in which it is made. It is the droppings of the ripe grape hung up, and is obtained without the application of pressure.

"The dry wine of Malaga is produced from the same grape as the sweet wine, but pressed *whiter*; in this wine there is an eighth part more of brandy than in the sweet wine; no less than 1-12th part of the dry Malaga being brandy.

"The whole produce of the Malaga vineyards is estimated at from 35,000 to 40,000 pipes, but owing to the increasing stock of old wine in the cellars, it is impossible to be precise in this calculation. The export of all sorts of Malaga wine may be stated at about 27,000 pipes. The principal market is the United States and South America; and to these the export is upon the increase. The average price of the wines shipped from Malaga does not exceed 35 dollars per pipe; but wines are occasionally exported: 1st at the price of 170 dollars. Many attempts have been made at Malaga to produce sherry, but not with perfect success. The sherry grape has been reared at Malaga upon a soil very similar to that of Xeres; but the merchants of Malaga have not ventured to enter the wine for export. One reason of the very low price of the wines of Malaga is to be found in the cheapness of labour; field labour is only 24 reals a day (14d.). In the fruit and vintage time it is about double.

"Fruit.—Next to its wines, the chief export of Malaga is fruit, consisting of raisins, almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; but of these, raisins are principally exported. I have before me a note of the exports of Malaga for the months of September and October, 1830—the chief, though not the whole, exporting months—and I find that during that time the export of raisins amounted to 268,845 boxes, and 31,916 smaller packages. Of this quantity, 126,334 boxes were entered for the United States, 45,513 for England; the remaining quantity being for France, the West Indies, the Spanish ports, South America, and Holland.

"The raisins exported from Malaga are of three kinds, muscatel, bloom, or sun raisin, and lexias.—The muscatel is the finest raisin in the world. In its preparation no art is used; the grape is merely placed in the sun, and frequently turned. The bloom, or sun raisin, is a different grape from the muscatel; but its preparation is the same. The lexias acquires this name from the flower, or ley, in which they are dipped, and which is composed of water, ashes, and oil; these, after being dipped, are dried in the sun. All muscatel raisins are exported in boxes, and also a part of the bloom raisins. In 1829, the exports of muscatel and bloom raisins were 235,000 boxes of 25 lbs. each; in all, 8,125,000 lbs. This quantity is independent of the export of bloom raisins in casks, and of lexias; the latter amounting to about 30,000 arrobas. The export of raisins to England has fallen off, while that to America has considerably increased. In 1824, 75 ships cleared from Malaga, for England, with fruit; in 1830, down to the 1st of November, 34 vessels had cleared out.

"Of the other fruits raised near Malaga, grapes, almonds, and lemons are the most extensively exported. In the months of September and October, 1830, 11,013 jars of grapes were shipped for England, 6,429 for America; and 1,650 for Russia. During the same months, 6,335 arrobas of almonds (133,375 lbs.) were shipped for England, this being nearly the whole export; there were also exported during the same period, 3,749 boxes of lemons for England; 4,301 ditto for Germany; and 840 ditto for Russia.

"Oil.—There is also a large export of oil from Malaga; but the exportation during the latter part of 1830, would be no criterion of the average; because, the Greenland whaling fishery having failed, extensive orders had been received from England.

"Shipping.—The trade between England and Malaga is on the decline; that with both the Americas is increasing, especially in wines. The number of British vessels entered at the port of Malaga, in 1827, I find from an official note furnished by the British consul to have been 104; in 1828, 120; in 1829, 105; and in 1830, to the 1st of November, 83, exclusive of small Gibraltar vessels. The number of American vessels entering in 1829, was 55; but the average burden of the Americans being 13 tons, and that of the English vessels not exceeding 100, the whole American is nearly equal to the whole English trade."—(Vol. ii. pp. 190.—196.)

"Money.—Accounts are kept in reals of 34 maravedis vellon.—(For the coins, and their value, see *Spain*.)

"Weights and Measures.—The weights are the same as those of Cadix. The arroba, or cantara = 419 English wine gallons; the regular pipe of Malaga wine contains 35 arrobas, but is reckoned only at 34; a bota of Pedro Ximenes wine = 53; arrobas; a bota of oil is 43, and a pipe 35 arrobas; the latter weighs about 800 lbs. avoirdupois; a carga of raisins is 2 baskets, or 7 arrobas; a cask contains as much, though only called 4 arrobas; as a hat for freight are reckoned—4 botes or 5 pipes of wine or oil; 4 bales of orange peel; 5 pipes of Pedro Ximenes wine or oil; 10 casks of almonds (each about 380 lbs. English); 20 chests of lemons and oranges; 24 casks of almonds (of 8 arrobas each); 44 casks of raisins (of 4 arrobas each); 88 half casks of raisins; 50 baskets of 100 jars of raisins.

"Port Charges.—The port and harbour dues amount, on an English vessel of 300 tons, to about 21s. on a Spanish vessel, of the same burden, they would be about 14. 10s. *Warehousing*.—Goods may be warehoused for 12 months, paying 3 per cent. *ad valorem* in lieu of all charges; but, at the end of the year, they must be either entered for consumption or reshipped. The 3 per cent. is charged, whether they lie a day or the whole year.

There is an excellent account of Malaga in *Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. iii. pp. 10.—42. The *Answers* by the consul at Malaga to the *Circular Queries* contain little or no information.

MALMSEY. See WINE.

MALT (Ger. *Maly*; Du. *Mout*; Fr. *Mal*, *Bledgermé*; It. *Malto*; Sp. *Cebada retornada* & *entallecida*; Rus. *Solod*; Lat. *Maltum*). The term malt is applied to designate grain which, being steeped in water, is made to germinate to a certain extent, after which the process is checked by the application of heat. This evolves the saccharine principle of the grain, which is the essence of malt. The process followed in the manufacture is very simple. Few changes have been made in it; and it is carried on at this moment very much in the same manner that it was carried on by our ancestors centuries ago. Rice, and almost every species of grain has been used in malting; but in Europe, and especially in England, malt is prepared almost wholly from barley. It is the principal ingredient in the manufacture of beer, and is not used for any other purpose.

"Duties on, and Consumption of Malt. Influence of the reduction of the Duty and the Opening of the Trade.—Owing to malt liquor having early become the favourite beverage of the people of England, the manufacture of malt has carried on amongst us, for a long

ened period, on a very wealth and population. This apparent by the increased consumption there cannot be a question and the ale or beer market imposed on the manufacturing regulations was to impede barley; which, taking lent to an *ad valorem* duty was not, however, its rate being assessed directly brewed by public brewers; and as rich families brewed any beer; or, in malt he made use of, they have been made, or suffering. Originally, however, increased by slow to the gross inequality length forcibly attracted beer in increasing the *Edinburgh Review*, N. substantial justice and Duke of Wellington; the licensing system, as

The repeal of the duties of those who would be no great loss has been raised against drunkenness, is, we find as it certainly has diminished the consumption of beer; but it has not occasioned no common country, has been produced, the trade of shops have been shut out of alehouses that people; but that disposition is by giving less grovelling enjoyment to promote sobriety have lower classes more ena and to stimulate them

The following Table down to 1833, and in malt had been about been more than doubled. increased. In point of period—for more than very well-informed Mr. the quantity of malt ending with 1723, was next 10 years was 3,35 the malt duty as if they always be taken into account. Ample information will save the trouble of referring their repeal, into one p

ened period, on a very large scale. Instead, however, of increasing with the increasing wealth and population of the country, it has been nearly stationary for the last hundred years. This apparently anomalous result is probably in some measure to be accounted for by the increased consumption of tea and coffee, which are now in almost universal use; but there cannot be a question that it is mainly owing to the exorbitant duties with which malt, and the ale or beer manufactured from it, have been loaded, and to the oppressive regulations imposed on the manufacture of malt and the sale of beer. The effect of these duties and regulations was to impose a tax of about 7s. on the malt and beer made from a bushel of barley; which, taking the average price of barley at from 4s. to 5s. a bushel, was equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of from 140 to 175 per cent. The exorbitancy of the duty was not, however, its most objectionable feature. It was about equally divided—one half being assessed directly on malt, and the other on beer: but the beer duty affected only beer brewed by public brewers, or for sale, and did not affect that which was brewed for private use; and as rich families brewed all the beer they made use of, the consequence of this distinction was, that the beer duty fell wholly on the lower and middle classes, who did not brew any beer; or, in other words, the poor man was compelled to pay twice the duty on the malt he made use of that was paid by the rich man! That such a distinction should ever have been made, or submitted to for any considerable period, is certainly not a little astonishing. Originally, however, the distinction was not so great as it afterwards became; and being increased by slow degrees, the force of habit reconciled the parliament and the country to the gross inequality and oppressiveness of the tax. But the public attention being at length forcibly attracted to the subject, and the effect of the exorbitant duties on malt and beer in increasing the consumption of ardent spirits having been clearly pointed out—(see *Edinburgh Review*, No. 98. art. 4.), the beer duty was repealed in 1830. This measure of substantial justice and sound policy reflects the greatest credit on the administration of the Duke of Wellington; which is also entitled to the public gratitude for having put an end to the licensing system, and established, for the first time, a really free trade in beer.

The repeal of the duty has materially increased the consumption of malt; and the anticipations of those who contended that its abolition, if combined with a free trade in beer, would be no great loss to the revenue, are in a fair way of being realised. The clamour that has been raised against the measure, on account of its supposed influence in increasing drunkenness, is, we firmly believe, wholly without foundation. If the measure has increased, as it certainly has done, the consumption of beer, it has at the same time equally diminished the consumption of gin; and it is surely superfluous to add, that this is a most beneficial change. It is true that a number of new public houses have been opened for the sale of beer; but it has not hitherto been proved that this circumstance, though it seems to have occasioned no common alarm among the clergy and magistrates in different parts of the country, has been productive of any public inconvenience. Like all newly opened lines of business, the trade of beer selling has been overdone; and a considerable number of beer shops have been shut up. "It is not," as Dr. Smith sagaciously remarked, "the multiplication of alehouses that occasions a general disposition to drunkenness among the common people; but that disposition, arising from other causes, necessarily gives employment to a multitude of alehouses."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 146.) The way to eradicate this disposition is by giving a better education to the poor, and inspiring them with a taste for less grovelling enjoyments. All that the fiscal regulations and police enactments intended to promote sobriety have ever done, is to make bad worse, to irritate and disgust, to make the lower classes more enamoured of that which they conceive is unjustly withheld from them, and to stimulate them to elude and defeat the law.—(See vol. i. p. 15.)

The following Tables show the consumption of malt in England and Wales from 1787 down to 1833, and in the whole kingdom from 1821. They show that the consumption of malt had been about stationary for nearly half a century, notwithstanding the population had been more than doubled in that period, and that the wealth of all classes had been materially increased. In point of fact, however, the consumption had been stationary for a much longer period—for more than an entire century! For it appears from the accounts given by the very well-informed Mr. Charles Smith, in his tracts on the *Corn Trade* (2d ed. p. 199.), that the quantity of malt that paid duty in England and Wales, at an average of the 10 years ending with 1723, was 3,542,000 quarters a year; and that the annual average during the next 10 years was 3,358,071 quarters. The beer duties being, in effect, as much a part of the malt duty as if they had been laid directly on malt, it is indispensable that they should always be taken into account, before drawing any conclusions as to the influence of the duty. Ample information with respect to them will be found in the article ALE AND BEER; but, to save the trouble of references, the whole is brought, as far as respects the 10 years previous to their repeal, into one point of view in the subjoined Table, No. I.

I. An Account of the Number of Quarters of Malt charged with Duty, the Amount of the said Duty, the Rate per Quarter in each Year; also, the Number of Quarters of Malt used by Brewers and Victuallers; the Number of Barrels of Strong, Intermediate, and Table Beer, separately; the Amount of Duty on Beer, and the Rate of Duty per Barrel for each sort of Beer, in each Year, from the 5th of January, 1831, to the 5th of January, 1833; in Imperial Measures.

Year ended 5th of January.	England.				Beer.			
	Quarters charged with Duty.	Rate per Quarter.	Amount of Duty.	Quarters used by Brewers and Victuallers.	Strong, at 1s. 10d. per Barrel.	Table, at 1s. 11d. per Barrel.	Inter-mediate, at 6s. 11d. per Barrel.	Amount of Duty.
1831	3,695,330	9s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.	£ 4,311,446 3 0	No account has been kept of the quantities used during these years.	5,666,817	1,518,693	-	3,828,149 8 1
1832	3,387,304	-	4,718,360 10 0	-	5,008,991	1,295,573	-	3,987,366 8 6
1833	3,336,664	-	3,694,942 8 0	-	6,306,981	1,570,043	-	3,833,697 3 2
1831	3,103,014	From 25 Feb. 1832, 30s. 8d.	3,303,502 17 0	-	6,399,825	1,488,016	7,018	3,100,208 12 2
1832	3,451,993	-	3,560,692 0 0	-	2,704,514	6,660,968	1,544,048	3,328,377 12 2
1830	3,690,590	-	3,813,072 7 0	-	2,820,910	7,014,393	1,606,890	3,493,597 9 7
1837	3,410,990	-	3,586,084 19 8	-	3,690,626	6,697,133	1,663,653	3,968,653 9 0
1836	3,127,042	-	3,341,610 6 6	-	3,671,879	6,403,302	1,532,308	3,131,669 6 0
1839	3,814,737	-	3,911,984 19 1	-	3,646,681	6,370,310	1,530,419	3,922,807 2 11
1830	3,026,509	-	3,086,136 6 9	-	2,408,991	5,961,048	1,380,460	3,023,118 1 3
1831	3,378,612	-	3,474,690 18 10	-	2,364,939	3,570,353	1,006,368	41,834 1 1
1832	4,190,420	-	4,237,781 10 10	-	2,284,949	-	-	-
1833	3,058,731	-	4,000,678 9 11	-	3,225,519	-	-	-

Year.	Scotland.				No. ac. count as above.	Strong.	Table.	Inter-mediate.	Amount of Duty.
	From Barley.	From Beer or Bigg.	From 10s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.	From 9s. 8 ¹ / ₂ d.					
1821	147,770	From 10s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.	212,982 6 6	From 9s. 8 ¹ / ₂ d. 5 July, 1820.	123,114	307,963	-	60,972 6 0	
1822	163,907	-	231,803 9 3	From 10s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d. 24s. 9 ¹ / ₂ d. 5 July, 1821.	78,400	123,939	210,546	85,060 4 0	
1823	173,396	From 10s. 8d. 1s. 5 ¹ / ₂ d. 22 Feb. 1822.	163,071 10 7	From 9s. 8 ¹ / ₂ d. 6 July, 1822.	78,607	126,107	227,473	85,117 12 0	
1824	203,073	-	196,695 15 10	10s. 9 ¹ / ₂ d. 15s. 9 ¹ / ₂ d.	75,100	110,399	226,332	80,532 8 6	
1825	248,570	-	325,503 8 1	-	74,979	118,813	239,956	81,804 10 0	
1826	490,730	-	462,144 6 0	-	85,430	133,903	264,035	91,731 9 0	
1827	340,819	-	339,104 8 10	16s.	72,956	124,158	271,335	70,940 6 0	
1828	336,350	-	385,488 18 11	-	79,481	113,067	241,293	73,877 0 10	
1829	483,344	-	478,507 15 2	-	83,577	118,943	217,443	76,394 16 6	
1830	464,130	-	457,887 12 4	-	75,305	111,071	229,394	71,786 10 8	
1831	695,743	-	605,651 4 0	-	92,416	75,372	178,014	-	
1832	383,369	-	616,578 6 1	-	113,033	-	-	-	
1833	458,026	-	494,096 6 7	-	132,800	-	-	-	

Year.	Ireland.				No. ac. count as above.	Strong.	Table.	Inter-mediate.	Amount of Duty.
	From 10s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.	From 8s. 6 ¹ / ₂ d.	From 7s. 6 ¹ / ₂ d.	From 6s. 6 ¹ / ₂ d.					
1821	294,208	-	319,683 14 0	165,130	-	-	-	-	
1822	213,664	From 5 April, 1822, 30s. 8d.	317,334 0 0	150,640	-	-	-	-	
1823	219,548	-	275,612 14 0	174,466	-	-	-	-	
1824	215,364	-	216,735 2 0	187,209	-	-	-	-	
1825	271,219	-	266,330 0 0	170,605	-	-	-	-	
1826	340,656	-	344,660 10 0	167,134	-	-	-	-	
1827	300,821	-	315,039 15 9	176,340	-	-	-	-	
1828	295,840	-	292,699 19 10	180,076	-	-	-	-	
1829	301,192	-	311,191 19 0	175,331	-	-	-	-	
1830	251,579	-	250,809 17 3	167,173	-	-	-	-	
1831	344,951	-	351,646 11 11	141,401	-	-	-	-	
1832	362,730	-	363,307 8 7	186,674	-	-	-	-	
1833	250,794	-	250,277 9 8	192,867	-	-	-	-	

Note.—No return can be made of the quantity of beer brewed in Ireland, the same not being subject to excise duty.

II. Prices of Malt, per Winchester Quarter, at Greenwich Hospital, from 1730 to 1832.

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1730	20s. 6d.	1803	8s. 7d.	1825	7s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.
1740	27s. 3 ¹ / ₂ d.	1810	8s. 5d.	1826	6s. 1d.
1750	24s.	1815	6s. 7 ¹ / ₂ d.	1827	6s. 10d.
1760	24s. 6d.	1820	6s. 8 ¹ / ₂ d.	1828	6s. 7d.
1770	28s. 3d.	1821	6s. 11d.	1829	6s. 10 ¹ / ₂ d.
1780	31s. 1d.	1822	5s. 8 ¹ / ₂ d.	1830	5s. 13d.
1790	35s. 6d.	1823	5s. 11d.	1831	7s. 6 ¹ / ₂ d.
1800	34s.	1824	6s. 1d.	1832	6s. 8d.

* From the year 1827, the rate of duty per barrel for strong beer was—common brewers, 8s. 10¹/₂d.; brewers, 9s. 10d.; table beer, common brewers, 1s. 9¹/₂d.; victuallers, 1s. 11¹/₂d.; the same also for Scotland & Beer duty ceased the 10th of October, 1830.

III. An Account of the Total Quantity of Malt used in 1820, by

Year.	Malt.
1787	3,409,104 7
1788	3,354,580 1
1789	3,031,214 2
1790	2,833,697 3
1791	3,489,576 3
1792	3,582,071 6
1793	3,056,604 5
1794	3,194,798 7
1795	3,080,095 7
1796	3,517,258 4
1797	3,865,437 3
1798	3,379,431 6
1799	3,608,955 9
1800	1,910,959 3
1801	2,280,808 2
1802	3,792,307 6
1803	2,809,000 2

IV. A Return of the Number of Barrels of Malt in each Collection of Malt

Collection.	England.
Barnet	-
Bath	-
Bedford	-
Bristol	-
Cambridge	-
Canterbury	-
Cheshire	-
Corwall	-
Cowenry	-
Cumberland	-
Derby	-
Dorset	-
Durham	-
Essex	-
Essex	-
Gloucester	-
Grantham	-
Hallifax	-
Hants	-
Hereford	-
Hertford	-
Hull	-
Isle of Wight	-
Lancaster	-
Leeds	-
Lichfield	-
Lincoln	-
Liverpool	-
Lynn	-
Manchester	-
Newcastle	-
Northampton	-
Northwich	-
Norwich	-
Oxford	-
Plymouth	-
Reading	-
Recheater	-
Salum	-
Salop	-
Sheffield	-
Stafford	-
Stourbridge	-
Suffolk	-
Surrey	-
Sussex	-
Tisbury	-
Wales, East	-
Wales, Middle	-
Wales, North	-
Wales, West	-
Wellington	-
Whitby	-
Worcester	-
York	-
Country collections	-
London	-
Total	-

MALT.

III. An Account of the Total Quantity of Malt made in England and Wales in each Year, from 1787 to 1830, both inclusive, the Rates of Duty, and the Amount of the Duty.

Year ended 5th July.	Malt.		Rate of Duty.		Amount of Duty.		Year ended 5th July.	Malt.		Rate of Duty.		Amount of Duty.	
	Qrs.	Bls.	s.	d.	£	s. d.		Qrs.	Bls.	s.	d.	£	s. d.
1787	3,406,103	7	10	6	1,760,780	1 3	1801	3,062,721	7	24	8	5,774,419	9 0
1788	3,335,382	1	-	-	1,761,264	11 3	1802	3,792,923	1	-	-	4,841,065	15 0
1789	3,431,314	2	-	-	1,591,439	19 7	1803	3,455,000	0	-	-	5,955,716	0 0
1790	3,433,697	3	-	-	1,497,691	3 5	1804	3,114,020	3	-	-	5,307,635	6 4
1791	3,489,876	4	12	6	2,128,008	14 1	1805	2,800,787	3	-	-	4,854,698	2 4
1792	3,582,071	6	12	6	2,142,350	12 10	1806	2,851,588	7	-	-	4,919,771	7 8
1793	3,656,804	3	-	-	1,604,717	8 6	1807	3,035,401	4	-	-	5,261,363	12 0
1794	3,101,769	7	-	-	1,377,253	13 2	1808	3,240,760	5	-	-	5,806,251	15 0
1795	3,080,595	7	-	-	1,690,515	6 8	1809	3,322,230	5	-	-	4,013,719	16 4
1796	3,517,754	4	-	-	1,916,823	4 3	1810	3,707,741	7	-	-	4,810,419	5 0
1797	3,885,497	8	-	-	2,024,349	7 5	1811	3,263,785	5	-	-	5,675,228	8 4
1798	3,370,431	6	-	-	1,794,476	13 4	1812	3,384,004	0	-	-	5,865,606	18 8
1799	3,698,955	5	-	-	2,083,701	14 0	1813	3,291,929	2	-	-	5,689,677	11 8
1800	1,810,093	3	-	-	950,296	18 5	1814	2,142,002	4	18	8	1,909,202	6 8
1801	3,220,808	9	-	-	1,318,455	16 7	1815	3,207,866	5	-	-	3,087,342	3 8
1802	3,792,267	6	18	8	2,012,010	6 11	1816	2,793,282	3	-	-	3,607,063	11 0
1803	3,809,900	3	-	-	2,355,906	18 0	1817	3,066,894	2	28	0	4,675,500	8 10

IV. A Return of the Number of Bushels of Malt made, and the Amount of Duties collected thereon, in each Collection of Excise in the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836.

England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
Collections.	Number of Bushels Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Collections.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Collections.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.
		£ s. d.			£ s. d.			£ s. d.
Barnet	310,458	40,100 16 0	Aberdeen	206,572	21,544 13 5	Armagh	91,451	9,647 12 1
Bath	628,427	107,005 3 1	Ayr	273,127	34,180 18 6	Athlone	32,739	4,223 9 0
Belfast	1,581,737	201,307 13 11	Argyle, North	40,744	4,979 16 2	Clonmel	76,978	9,619 19 10
Bristol	538,616	69,575 2 2	Argyle, South	414,516	45,927 13 11	Coleraine	41,070	5,197 0 0
Cambridge	1,310,035	174,250 7 1	Caitness	65,893	6,920 10 10	Cork	324,923	41,909 4 5
Canterbury	415,992	53,720 12 8	Dumfries	79,282	10,155 10 9	Drogheda	68,473	6,544 8 7
Chester	619,269	85,876 2 8	Edin	177,850	21,632 5 9	Dundalk	203,908	24,011 12 9
Conwall	375,766	48,064 16 8	Fife	203,154	26,210 14 6	Foxford	52,225	4,039 15 7
County	921,609	120,331 18 6	Glasgow	581,259	73,408 6 0	Galway	50,676	31,087 6 4
Cumberland	403,984	52,181 9 4	Haddington	169,051	24,491 1 0	Limerick	83,568	10,791 4 0
Derby	891,358	113,843 1 6	Inverness	115,262	14,782 11 0	Lisburn	152,090	16,022 11 11
Dorset	345,423	44,017 7 11	Linlithgow	298,236	39,291 12 11	Londonerry	60,920	8,111 10 8
Durham	239,775	30,841 15 5	Montrose	139,107	17,022 15 7	Mallow	131,673	17,007 15 3
Essex	970,804	125,395 10 4	Perth	265,420	34,153 1 0	Murrough	75,077	9,097 8 11
Exeter	260,263	33,617 6 1	Strirling	593,360	76,336 7 0	Nana	63,010	7,860 13 2
Gloucester	634,803	82,017 6 1	Edinburgh	771,816	99,930 11 5	Sligo	40,219	4,618 4 9
Gloucestershire	1,186,897	152,365 18 1						
Hallifax	652,175	84,239 5 5						
Hants	487,008	66,446 17 4						
Hertford	269,259	34,779 5 9						
Hertford	1,445,411	186,698 18 5						
Hull	345,201	44,588 9 3						
Ile of Wight	463,555	69,875 17 1						
Lincoln	393,195	50,787 13 9						
Leeds	2,143,269	276,929 6 7						
Lichfield	1,060,411	136,969 15 1						
Lincoln	1,185,921	152,142 14 3						
Liverpool	100,877	13,020 18 11						
Lynn	630,077	81,384 18 11						
Manchester	nil.	nil.						
Newcastle	413,495	53,409 7 5						
Northampton	665,088	85,907 4 0						
Northwich	152,287	19,070 8 1						
Norwich	1,322,220	157,893 0 0						
Oxford	653,888	71,513 1 10						
Plymouth	560,618	73,188 3 8						
Reading	830,968	107,315 10 8						
Rochester	374,808	48,412 1 1						
Sarum	814,753	105,238 18 7						
Salop	675,442	87,314 11 10						
Sheffield	743,877	95,084 3 2						
Stafford	673,578	74,086 10 3						
Stourbridge	759,519	101,979 10 9						
Suffolk	1,528,707	197,587 3 1						
Surrey	1,271,743	164,266 16 1						
Sussex	539,124	69,636 17 0						
Tisbury	688,926	76,009 12 8						
Wales, East	406,518	64,137 9 0						
Wales, Middle	201,367	28,922 8 1						
Wales, North	206,807	28,337 11 5						
Wales, West	219,007	28,577 10 7						
Wellington	312,367	40,217 8 1						
Whitby	214,984	27,765 15 4						
Worcester	380,134	48,100 12 10						
York	570,125	73,641 9 11						
Country collections	36,019,230	4,632,491 12 6						
London	50,122	7,675 6 10						
Total	36,078,712	4,660,166 19 4						
			United Kingdom	42,991,090	5,400,782 12 5			

Tariff of Dues authorised to be levied for Account of Government, by the Superintendent of Quarantine, Malta.

Shipping in Quarantine.—1. Vessels entered upon a quarantine to pay, for each day of their continuance in port, as follows—
 Tonnage not exceeding 50 tons a. d. 3
 — from 51 — 100 1 0
 — from 101 — 150 2 0
 — from 151 — 300 3 0
 — from 301 — 500 4 0
 — from 501 and upwards 5 0
 2. Vessels of whatever size, sailing in quarantine, having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay at the above rates, but in no case more than 2s. a day for the remainder of the term of quarantine.
 3. Vessels liable to quarantine, not having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay 2s. for each day of their continuance in port.
 4. Vessels compelled by stress of weather to enter the great harbour, to be subject, while they remain there, to the additional charge

of 2s. a day, for every guard boat which the Superintendent of Quarantine may deem it necessary to place over them.

5. Any vessel in quarantine entering the great harbour, without a justifiable cause, incurs the penalty of 200 dollars imposed by the second article of the proclamation, dated 12th October, 1830. (No. 211.)

6. Vessels having contagious diseases on board to pay an extra rate in proportion to the expense that may be incurred, but in no case to exceed 30s. a day, in addition to the usual rate.
 Effects received into the lazaret for depuration to be chargeable with a due proportion of the actual expense thereof, which, at present, on ordinary occasions, is at the rate of 2s. 6d. a day for each guardian, and 1s. 6d. a day for each labourer, whom it may be necessary to employ.
 Cattle landed in the lazaret to be chargeable, for each—
 Horse, mule, or ass 2 0
 Bullock, or other animal of the kind 2 0
 Sheep, goat, pig, or other small animal 1 0
 Persons performing quarantine in the lazaret, to pay at the rate of 2s. 6d. a day, for each guardian employed, but no single individual to be chargeable with more than 1s. 3d. a day.
 Documents issued under the office seal, 2s. 6d. each.

Tables exhibiting the various Articles, and their Value, in Sterling Money imported into the Island of Malta during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.

Species of Imports.	1834.				1835.				1836.				1837.			
	£.	L.	S.	d.												
Manufactures of all sorts	180,928	181,454	152,988	118,098	180,928	181,454	152,988	118,098	180,928	181,454	152,988	118,098	180,928	181,454	152,988	118,098
Sugar, refined and crushed	23,253	18,628	18,182	16,532	23,253	18,628	18,182	16,532	23,253	18,628	18,182	16,532	23,253	18,628	18,182	16,532
Coffee and cocoa	18,389	15,748	18,858	18,741	18,389	15,748	18,858	18,741	18,389	15,748	18,858	18,741	18,389	15,748	18,858	18,741
Tea	5,843	1,482	1,180	791	5,843	1,482	1,180	791	5,843	1,482	1,180	791	5,843	1,482	1,180	791
Saltpetre	1,484	1,031	2,150	3,559	1,484	1,031	2,150	3,559	1,484	1,031	2,150	3,559	1,484	1,031	2,150	3,559
Spices	3,980	3,839	10,448	2,740	3,980	3,839	10,448	2,740	3,980	3,839	10,448	2,740	3,980	3,839	10,448	2,740
Wax and tallow	37,320	17,481	22,429	17,729	37,320	17,481	22,429	17,729	37,320	17,481	22,429	17,729	37,320	17,481	22,429	17,729
Wool	5,428	2,018	3,223	3,288	5,428	2,018	3,223	3,288	5,428	2,018	3,223	3,288	5,428	2,018	3,223	3,288
Iron	1,171	2,970	3,178	1,952	1,171	2,970	3,178	1,952	1,171	2,970	3,178	1,952	1,171	2,970	3,178	1,952
Drugs and articles used in dyeing	2,646	4,437	3,473	3,446	2,646	4,437	3,473	3,446	2,646	4,437	3,473	3,446	2,646	4,437	3,473	3,446
Fish, lamp and low	2,920	908	3,049	3,340	2,920	908	3,049	3,340	2,920	908	3,049	3,340	2,920	908	3,049	3,340
Wool, milled and dried	4,977	14,888	10,084	4,720	4,977	14,888	10,084	4,720	4,977	14,888	10,084	4,720	4,977	14,888	10,084	4,720
Wool and hair	647	1,539	1,978	2,007	647	1,539	1,978	2,007	647	1,539	1,978	2,007	647	1,539	1,978	2,007
Wool in general	4,187	4,083	4,229	4,534	4,187	4,083	4,229	4,534	4,187	4,083	4,229	4,534	4,187	4,083	4,229	4,534
Raw silk	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233	1,233
Woolen stuff	15,335	21,789	20,445	14,358	15,335	21,789	20,445	14,358	15,335	21,789	20,445	14,358	15,335	21,789	20,445	14,358
Wool	464	231	1,884	2,174	464	231	1,884	2,174	464	231	1,884	2,174	464	231	1,884	2,174
Wool (finer, deals, &c.)	3,779	10,437	8,158	8,450	3,779	10,437	8,158	8,450	3,779	10,437	8,158	8,450	3,779	10,437	8,158	8,450
Wool and cotton wool	327	1,484	1,836	2,368	327	1,484	1,836	2,368	327	1,484	1,836	2,368	327	1,484	1,836	2,368
Miscellaneous (raw materials)	2,103	2,978	2,684	1,283	2,103	2,978	2,684	1,283	2,103	2,978	2,684	1,283	2,103	2,978	2,684	1,283
Beans, peas, carraways, saggins, &c.	29,065	28,984	42,528	29,858	29,065	28,984	42,528	29,858	29,065	28,984	42,528	29,858	29,065	28,984	42,528	29,858
Wheat	100	277	1,516	1,516	100	277	1,516	1,516	100	277	1,516	1,516	100	277	1,516	1,516
Totals	601,668	570,388	686,581	547,484												

List of Vessels belonging to the Island of Malta on the 1st of January, 1838.

Tonnage	Number
under 10 tons each	345
from 10 to 25 tons	26
25 to 50	169
50 to 100	1,402
100 to 150	4,519
150 to 200	3,697
200 to 250	2,295
250 to 300	3,220
300 tons and upwards	3,046
Total	17,500

Movement of Shipping at Malta, during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.

The Year and/ or Sines.	Ships inwards.			Ships outwards.		
	No.	Tons.	Men.	No.	Tons.	Men.
1834.	835	140,630	10,052	1,025	158,118	10,992
Vessels above 40 tons—	788	142,298	7,586	715	15,688	7,852
under 40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	1,728	154,821	17,638	1,740	168,796	18,844
1835.	1,151	187,169	12,431	1,232	197,673	13,280
Vessels above 40 tons—	916	181,478	8,566	956	181,510	8,071
under 40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	2,067	205,638	21,267	2,167	216,688	21,301
1836.	1,298	186,616	12,891	1,261	202,737	13,863
Vessels above 40 tons—	703	172,884	8,745	723	13,580	7,058
under 40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	1,963	199,500	13,636	2,063	216,267	20,992
1837.	1,129	167,078	11,673	1,198	188,398	12,474
Vessels above 40 tons—	420	9,276	3,924	439	8,624	4,101
under 40	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	1,549	185,354	15,607	1,637	177,022	16,535

Average Prices of Wheat in Europe at Malta, during each of the Four Years ending with 1837, per Bushel, in Sterling Money.

Year.	Price.
1834	1 18 1 3-4
1835	1 18 10 1-4
1836	1 18 2 1-2
1837	1 12 9 1-2
1838	1 10 8 1-4
1839	1 10 8 1-4
1840	1 10 8 1-4
1841	1 10 8 1-4
1842	1 10 8 1-4
1843	1 10 8 1-4
1844	1 10 8 1-4
1845	1 10 8 1-4
1846	1 10 8 1-4
1847	1 10 8 1-4
1848	1 10 8 1-4
1849	1 10 8 1-4
1850	1 10 8 1-4
1851	1 10 8 1-4
1852	1 10 8 1-4
1853	1 10 8 1-4
1854	1 10 8 1-4
1855	1 10 8 1-4
1856	1 10 8 1-4
1857	1 10 8 1-4
1858	1 10 8 1-4
1859	1 10 8 1-4
1860	1 10 8 1-4
1861	1 10 8 1-4
1862	1 10 8 1-4
1863	1 10 8 1-4
1864	1 10 8 1-4
1865	1 10 8 1-4
1866	1 10 8 1-4
1867	1 10 8 1-4
1868	1 10 8 1-4
1869	1 10 8 1-4
1870	1 10 8 1-4
1871	1 10 8 1-4
1872	1 10 8 1-4
1873	1 10 8 1-4
1874	1 10 8 1-4
1875	1 10 8 1-4
1876	1 10 8 1-4
1877	1 10 8 1-4
1878	1 10 8 1-4
1879	1 10 8 1-4
1880	1 10 8 1-4
1881	1 10 8 1-4
1882	1 10 8 1-4
1883	1 10 8 1-4
1884	1 10 8 1-4
1885	1 10 8 1-4
1886	1 10 8 1-4
1887	1 10 8 1-4
1888	1 10 8 1-4
1889	1 10 8 1-4
1890	1 10 8 1-4
1891	1 10 8 1-4
1892	1 10 8 1-4
1893	1 10 8 1-4
1894	1 10 8 1-4
1895	1 10 8 1-4
1896	1 10 8 1-4
1897	1 10 8 1-4
1898	1 10 8 1-4
1899	1 10 8 1-4
1900	1 10 8 1-4

The central position, excellent port, and great strength of Malta, make it an admirable naval station for the repair and accommodation of the men-of-war and merchant ships frequenting the Mediterranean, and render the possession of this important to the British empire. Since Malta built vessels were admitted into the ports of the United Kingdom on the same terms as those of British built, the trade of ship-building has materially increased in the island. The Maltese seamen are diligent expert workmen; and, their wages being moderate, it is a favourable place for ordering. Owing to the want of a dry dock, all ships above the size of a sloop of war, that require to have their bottoms examined, have to come to England for that purpose. This, surely, should be obviated. Quarantine is strictly enforced at Malta; but there is every facility for its performance, and the charges are less than at any other port in the Mediterranean.

Money.—In 1825, British silver money was introduced into Malta; the Spanish dollar being made legal tender at the rate of 4s. 4d.; the Sicilian dollar at 4s. 3d.; and the scudo of Malta at 1s. 8d. **Weights and Measures.**—The pound or rotton, commercial weight = 30 ounce = 12,816 English grains. Hence 100 rotton (the cantaro) = 174 1/2 lbs. avoirdupois, or 79 1/4 kils. Merchants usually reckon the cantaro at 175 lbs. The stroma of corn, stricure measure = 9 2/21 Winchester bushels 1 heaped measure is reckoned 18 per cent. more. The canna, or measure for oil, contains 5 1/2 English gallons = 2,016 litres. The barrel is double the canna. The Maltese foot = 1 1/10 English inches = 26.33 metres. The canna = 8 palmi = 81 1/2 English inches = 9.072 metres. Merchants usually convert Malta measure into English in the proportion of 3 1/2 palmi to a yard, or 9 2/21 yards to 1 canna. Bills on London are usually drawn at 30 and 60 days sight. The depositary general is obliged to grant, at all times, bills on the treasury here for British silver tendered to him, at the rate of 100L. bill for every 101L. 10s. silver, receiving, at the same time, other silver at a fluctuating rate of exchange.

MAN (ISLE OF) is, as every one knows, situated in the Irish sea, at about an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is about 30 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. The interior is mountainous, and the soil no where very productive. Population Vol. II.—P 22

in 1831, 40,985. This island used to be one of the principal stations of the herring fishery; but for a considerable period it has been comparatively deserted by the herring shoals,—a circumstance which is not to be regretted; for the fishery, by withdrawing the attention of the inhabitants from agriculture and manufactures, and leading them to engage in what has usually been a gambling and unproductive business, has been, on the whole, injurious to the island. The steam packets from Glasgow to Liverpool touch at the Isle of Man; which has, in consequence, begun to be largely frequented by visitors from these cities, and other parts of the empire, whose influx has materially contributed to the improvement of Douglas and other towns.

The feudal sovereignty of Man was formerly vested in the Earls of Derby, and more recently in the Dukes of Athol,—a circumstance which accounts for the fact of the duties on most commodities consumed in the island having been, for a lengthened period, much lower than those on the same commodities when consumed in Great Britain. This distinction, which still subsists, has produced a great deal of smuggling, and been in no ordinary degree injurious to the revenue and trade of the empire. During the present century, indeed, the clandestine trade of Man has been confined within comparatively narrow limits; but to accomplish this, a considerable extra force of Custom-house officers and revenue cruisers is required, and the intercourse with the island has to be subjected to various restraints. Nothing, as it appears to us, can be more impolitic than the continuance of such a system. The public has, at a very heavy expense, purchased all the feudal rights of the Athol family; and having done so, it is certainly high time that an end were put to the anomalous absurdity of having a considerable island, lying, as it were, in the very centre of the empire, and in the direct line between some of the principal trading towns, with different duties on many important articles! It might be necessary, perhaps, to make some compensation to the inhabitants for such a change; and this might be done, with advantage to them and without expense to the public, by modifying and improving the internal regulations and policy of the island, which are very much in need of amendment. We do not, indeed, imagine that the island would lose any thing by the proposed alteration; for the temptation which the present system holds out to engage in smuggling enterprises diverts the population from the regular pursuits of industry, and, along with the herring lottery, is the principal cause of that idleness for which the Manx are so notorious. We subjoin an

ABSTRACT OF 3 & 4 WILL. IV., c. 60., FOR REGULATING THE TRADE OF THE ISLE OF MAN.

Commencement.—To commence the 1st of September, 1833.—§ 1.
 Duties payable on the Importation of Goods into the Isle of Man.—There shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his Majesty, his heirs and successors, the several duties of customs respectively set forth in the table herin-after contained, denominated "Table of Duties," upon importation into the Isle of Man of the several goods, wares, and merchandise, according to the quantity or value thereof specified in such table, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity or value of the same; (that is to say.)

Table of Duties.

A Table of the Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise imported into the Isle of Man.	L. s. d.	United Kingdom, and not herein-before charged with duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof	L. s. d.
Coal, from the United Kingdom	Free.	2 10 0	
Coffee, the duties of consumption in the United Kingdom not having been then paid thereon, the lb.	0 0 4		
Hemp, the cwt.	0 0 1		
Hops, from the United Kingdom, the lb.	0 0 1/2		
Iron, from foreign parts, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10 0 0		
Spirits viz.— Foreign spirits, the gallon	0 4 6		
None of the British plantations, not exceeding the strength of proof by silver's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength the gallon	0 8 0		
Sugar, muscovado, the cwt.	0 1 0		
Tea, viz.— Bohea, the lb.	0 0 6		
Green, the lb.	0 1 0		
Tobacco, the lb.	0 1 8		
Wine, viz.— French, the tun of 252 gallons	16 0 0		
any other sort, the tun of 252 gallons	12 0 0		
Woods, from foreign parts, viz.— Deal boards, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10 0 0		
Timber, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10 0 0		
(Goods, wares, and merchandise imported from the United Kingdom, and entitled to any bounty or drawback of rebate on exportation from thence, and not herein-before enumerated or charged with duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof	8 0 0		

British Goods from the United Kingdom to appear upon the Coekets.—No goods shall be entered in the Isle of Man as being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or as being imported from thence, except such goods as shall appear upon the cocket or coekets of the ship or vessel importing the same to have been duly cleared at some port in the United Kingdom, to be exported to the said Isle.—§ 3.

Goods enumerated in the following Schedule importable only under Licence.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the schedule herin-after contained, denominated "Schedule of Licensable Goods," shall not be imported into the Isle of Man, nor exported from any place to be carried to the Isle of Man, without the licence of the commissioners of customs first obtained, nor in greater quantity than in the wofol, in any one year, than the respective quantities of such goods specified in the said schedule; and such goods shall not be so exported nor so imported, except from the respective places set forth in the said schedule, and according to the rules subjoined thereto; (that is to say.)

Wine, 110 tons.
 Spirits, viz.—
 Foreign brandy, 10,000 gallons.
 Foreign spirits, 10,000 gallons.
 From the United Kingdom, or
 same might be imported for
 consumption therein.
 Rum of the British plantations,
 From Great Britain.
 Scotch whisky, 7,000 lbs.
 Gin, 4,000 lbs.
 Coffee (unless here paid thereon), 8,000
 lbs.
 Tobacco, 8,000 lbs.
 Muscovado sugar, of the British plantations,
 Paying one 4,000 pecks.
 From England.
 Refined sugar, 800 cwt.
 From the port of Liverpool.
 And such additional quantities of any
 of the above enumerated goods as may
 be imported under any special circumstances of
 trade, respectively subject to the rules laid
 down in his Majesty's statutes, and in British
 Acts of 20 Geo. 3. and onwards.
 2. Such tobacco to be shipped only
 in casks is allowed to be imported into
 the island.
 3. Such wine to be so imported only
 in casks, and not less than a hogshead each, or
 2 casks repeated quart bottles, or 8
 gallons.

Application for Licences to
 to import any of the goods
 between the 5th day of May
 port of Douglas in the said
 island, and occupation of
 which such licence is requi-
 red, shall be kept at the Cust
 during the hours of business
 within 14 days thereafter t
 entries, specifying the appl
 or transmit such copy to th
 Government to allow Quantit
 tenant governor of the said
 the applicants resident in th
 applied for by residents; th
 applicants, in such proportion
 report thereon to be drawn
 of his Majesty's Treasury o
 plicate of such report so al
 Commissioners shall grant lic
 of customs shall grant lic
 using for the importation i
 to be so imported, with th
 whole portion allotted to a
 and such licences shall be t
 to be by them delivered to th
 of this act.—§ 7.

Before Delivery of Licences
 persons to whom they are
 persons to his Majesty, his
 articles for which the said
 ing the delivery of such lic
 exceeding the whole amount
 such licences, as the comm
 to whom such licence shall
 next after the granting suc
 said title, if he shall see fit,
 take up the same, and with
 demerit on the licence, a
 Counterfeiting or falsifyi
 the licence or other docum
 would otherwise be prohib
 use of any such licence, or
 for every such offence, for
 Licence Goods not to be r
 goods which have been im
 abroad; and it shall not
 to another, except in vess
 goods were imported into
 of the said Isle to another,
 Foreign Goods not to be s
 of Man to any part of the
 ture of any foreign count
 Goods imported or export
 exported from the Isle of M
 the same, or shall be wate
 to be so exported or carri
 directions or provisions of
 together with all ships, ve
 every person offending the
 of all duties which would
 name, in the United King
 Goods prohibited to be im

Schedule of Licence Goods.

Wine, 115 tons.
 Spirit wine:
 Foreign brandy, 10,000 gallons.
 French ginners, 10,000 gallons.
 From the United Kingdom, or from any place from which the same might be imported into the United Kingdom, for consumption therein.
 From the British plantations, 60,000 gallons.
 From Great Britain.
 Hops, 10,000 lbs.
 From the United Kingdom, or from any place from which the same might be imported into the United Kingdom, for consumption therein.
 Tobacco, 60,000 lbs.
 Nicotian sugar, of the British possessions, 10,000 cwt.
 Paying duty, 4,000 packs.
 From England.
 Indian sugar, 800 cwt.
 From the port of Liverpool.

And such additional quantities of any such several sorts of goods as the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury shall from time to time, under any special circumstances of necessity, direct, from such ports respectively; subject to the rules following: (That is to say.)
 1. All such goods to be imported into the port of Douglas, and by his Majesty's subjects, and in British ships or vessels of the burden of 20 tons or upwards.
 2. Such tobacco to be shipped only in ports in England, where it has been allowed to be imported and warehoused without payment of duty.
 3. Such wine to be so imported only in casks or packages containing not less than a hogshead each, or in cases containing not less than 3 dozen repined quart bottles, or 8 dozen repined pint bottles each.

4. Such brandy and Geneva to be imported only in casks containing 100 gallons each, at least.
 5. Such brandy and Geneva not to be of greater or higher degree of strength than that of 1 to 9 over hydrometer proof.
 6. Such goods, when exported from Great Britain, may be so exported from the warehouse in which they have been secured without payment of duty.
 7. If the duties of importation have been paid in the United Kingdom on such goods, a full drawback of such duties shall be allowed on the exportation.
 8. Upon the exportation from Liverpool of such refined sugar, the same bounty shall be allowed as would be allowable on exportation to foreign parts.
 9. Upon exportation from the United Kingdom of any such goods from the warehouse, or for drawback, or for Lowndy, so much of the form of the bond, or of the declaration, or of any other document, required in the case of exportation of such goods generally to foreign parts, as is intended to prevent the landing of the same in the Isle of Man shall be omitted.
 10. No drawback or bounty to be allowed, nor export bond cancelled, until a certificate of the due landing of the goods at the port of Douglas be produced from the collector and comptroller of the customs at that port.
 11. If any goods be laden at any foreign port or place, the species and quantity of such goods, with the marks, numbers, and denominations of the casks or packages containing the same, shall be indorsed on the licence, and signed by the British consul at the port of lading, or, if there be no British consul, by two known British merchants.
 12. Upon importation into the port of Douglas of any such goods, the licence for the same shall be delivered up to the collector or comptroller of that port.—*Sec't. 4.*

Application for Licences to be delivered to Officers between May and July.—Every application for licence to import any of the goods aforesaid into the Isle of Man shall be made in writing, and delivered, and be taken the 5th day of May and the 5th day of July in each year, to the collector or comptroller of the port of Douglas in the said Isle; and such application shall specify the date thereof, and the name, residence, and occupation of the person applying, and the description and quantity of each article for which such licence is required; and all such applications, with such particulars, shall be entered in a book to be kept at the Custom-house at the port of Douglas, and to be there open for public inspection during the hours of business; and on the 5th day of July in each year such book shall be closed; and within 14 days thereafter the collector and comptroller shall make out and sign a true copy of such entries, specifying the applicants resident, and the applicants not resident in the said Isle, and deliver or transmit such copy to the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle for the time being.—*Sec't. 5.*

Governor to allot Quantities.—Within 14 days after the receipt of such copy, the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle shall allot the whole quantity of each article, in the first place, among the applicants resident in the said Island, in case the whole quantity of any article shall not have been applied for by residents; then shall allot the quantity not so applied for among the non-resident applicants, in such proportions in all cases as he shall judge most fair and equitable; and shall cause a report thereon to be drawn up in writing, and sign and transmit the same to the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and shall cause a duplicate of such report so signed, to be transmitted to the commissioners of customs.—*Sec't. 6.*

Commissioners of Customs to grant Licences.—Upon receipt of such duplicate report the commissioners of customs shall grant licences, to continue in force for any period until the 5th of July then next ensuing, for the importation into the Isle of Man of the quantities of such goods as are allowed by law to be so imported, with their licence, according to the allotments in such report, and dividing the whole portion allotted to any one applicant into several licences, as they shall be desired and so fit; and such licences shall be transmitted without delay to the collector and comptroller of Douglas, to be by them delivered to the different applicants, after taking bond for the same under the provisions of this act.—*Sec't. 7.*

Before Delivery of Licences, Bond to be given.—Previous to the delivery of any such licences to the person to whom they are granted, the collector and comptroller of Douglas shall take the bond of such persons to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, with sufficient security, for the importation of the articles for which the said licences are respectively granted, on or before the 5th day of July succeeding the delivery of such licences, with such conditions, and for the forfeiture of such sums, not exceeding the whole amount of duties payable in Great Britain on articles similar to those specified in such licences, as the commissioners of customs shall think fit: provided always, that if any person to whom such licence shall be granted shall not have given such bond prior to the 5th day of January next after the granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle, if he shall see fit, to transfer any such licence to any other person who shall be desirous to take up the same, and willing and able to give such bond; and such transfer shall be notified by indorsement on the licence, signed by such governor or lieutenant-governor.—*Sec't. 8.*

Counterfeiting or falsifying Licence, Penalty 500l.—If any person or persons shall counterfeit or falsify any licence or other document required for the importation into the Isle of Man of any goods which would otherwise be prohibited to be imported into the said Isle, or shall knowingly or wilfully make use of any such licence, or other document so counterfeited or falsified, such person or persons shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of 500l.—*Sec't. 9.*

Licence Goods not to be re-exported, &c.—It shall not be lawful to re-export from the Isle of Man any goods which have been imported into the said Isle with licence of the commissioners of customs as aforesaid; and it shall not be lawful to carry any such goods coastwise from one part of the said Isle to another, except in vessels of 50 tons burden at the least, and in the same packages in which such goods were imported into the said Isle; and it shall not be lawful to remove any wine from one part of the said Isle to another, by and except in such packages or in bottles.—*Sec't. 10.*

Foreign Goods not to be exported to United Kingdom.—It shall not be lawful to export from the Isle of Man to any part of the United Kingdom any goods which are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country.—*Sec't. 11.*

Goods imported or exported, &c. contrary to Law forfeited, &c.—If any goods shall be imported into or exported from the Isle of Man, or carried coastwise from one part of the said Isle to another part of the same, or shall be waterborne, or brought to any wharf or other place with intent to be waterborne, in the manner or in the direction, or shall be removed by land within the said Isle, contrary to any of the directions or provisions of this act, the same, and the packages containing the same, shall be forfeited, together with all ships, vessels, or boats, and all cattle and carriages used or employed therein; and every person offending therein shall forfeit, for every such offence, the sum of 100l., or the full amount of all duties which would be payable in respect of such or similar goods, for home consumption of the same, in the United Kingdom, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—*Sec't. 12.*

Goods prohibited to be imported into the Isle of Man.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or de-

described in the schedule herein-after contained, denominated "Schedule of Prohibitions," shall not be imported into the Isle of Man; (that is to say,)

Schedule of Prohibitions.
 Goods, the produce or manufacture of places within the limits of the United East India Company's charter, except from the United Kingdoms;
 Cotton yarn, cotton cloth, linen cloth, glass manufactures, woollen manufactures, unless *hous fabris* in and imported directly from the United Kingdoms;
 Spirits of greater strength than 1 to 9 over hydrometer proof except

spirits the produce of the British possessions in America, and the Cape of Good Hope;
 British distilled spirits;
 All goods prohibited to be imported into the said Kingdoms by used or consumed therein, on account of the nature or description of the same.—Sect. 13.

Limiting the Quantity of Spirits, Tea, and Tobacco for Uses of Seamen.—If any decked vessel, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board for the use of the seamen, any spirits exceeding the quantity of $\frac{1}{4}$ gallon for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding 1 lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 3 lbs. weight for the whole of the seaman on board such vessel, or if any open boat, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board, for the use of the seamen, any spirits exceeding 1 quart for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 1 lb. weight for the whole of the seamen on board such boat, all such foreign spirits, tobacco, and tea respectively, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and also every such vessel or boat, together with all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel thereof, shall be forfeited.— \rightarrow 14.

Certificates for Goods the Produce of the Isle of Man.—Before any goods shall be shipped in the Isle of Man for exportation to the United Kingdom, as being the produce or manufacture of that island, proof shall be made by the written declaration of some competent person, to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs at the port of shipment, that such goods, describing and identifying the same, are the produce or the manufacture, as the case may be, of the said island, and in such declaration shall be stated the name of the person by whom such goods are intended to be entered and shipped; and such person, at the time of entry (not being more than 1 month after the date of such declaration) shall make and subscribe a declaration before such collector or comptroller, that the goods to be shipped in virtue of the entry are the same as are mentioned in such declaration; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall, on demand, give to the master of the ship in which the goods are to be exported a certificate of such proof of produce, or of manufacture, having been made in respect of such goods, describing the same, and setting forth the name of the exporter, and of the exporting ship, and of the master thereof, and the destination of the goods; and such certificate shall be received at the port of importation in the United Kingdom, instead of the certificate of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the said island, heretofore required.— \rightarrow 15.

Management of Duties.—Section 16. relates to the appropriation of the duties, and is of no commercial importance.

MANGANESE (Ger. *Braunstein*, *Glasseise*; Du. *Bruinsteen*; Fr. *Manganèse*, *Mangese*, *Savon du verre*; It. *Manganesia*; Sp. *Manganesia*; Lat. *Magnesia nigra*, *Manganesium*), a metal which, when pure, is of a greyish white colour, like cast iron, and has a good deal of brilliancy. Its texture is granular; it has neither taste nor smell; it is softer than cast iron, and may be filed; its specific gravity is 8. It is very brittle, and can neither be hammered nor drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is unknown. When exposed to the air, it attracts oxygen with considerable rapidity. It soon loses its lustre, and becomes grey, violet, brown, and at last black. These changes take place still more rapidly if the metal be heated in an open vessel. Ores of manganese are common in Devonshire, Somersetshire, &c. The ore of manganese, known in Derbyshire by the name of *black wadd*, is remarkable for its spontaneous inflammation with oil. Oxide of manganese is of considerable use; it is employed in making oxymuriatic acid, for forming bleaching liquor. It is likewise used in glazing black earthenware, for giving colours to enamels, and in the manufacture of porcelain. It is the substance generally used by chemists for obtaining oxygen gas.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*, &c.)

MANGEL WURZEL, or **FIELD BEET** (Fr. *Betteraves*; Ger. *Mangold Wurzel*; It. *Bietola*), a mongrel between the red and white beet. It has been a good deal cultivated in France, Germany, and Switzerland, partly as food for cattle, and partly to be used in distillation, and in the extraction of sugar. Its culture in Great Britain is very recent; and Mr. Loudon questions whether it has any advantages over the turnip for general agricultural purposes. The preparation of the soil is exactly the same as for turnips, and immense crops are raised on strong clays. The produce per acre is about the same as that of the Swedish turnip: it is applied almost entirely to the fattening of stock, and the feeding of milch cows.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*.)

MANNA (Fr. *Manne*; Ger. *Mannaesche*; It. *Manna*), the concrete juice of the *Fraxinus ornus*, a species of ash growing in the south of Europe. The juice exudes spontaneously in warm dry weather, and concretes into whitish tears; but the greater part of the manna of commerce is obtained by making incisions in the tree, and gathering the juice in baskets, where it forms irregular masses of a reddish or brownish colour often full of impurities. Manna is imported in chests, principally from Sicily and Calabria. The best is in oblong pieces or flakes, moderately dry, friable, light, of a whitish or pale yellow colour, and in some degree transparent; the inferior kinds are moist, unctuous, and brown. It has a slight peculiar odour, and a sweet taste, with some degree of bitterness not very pleasant, and leaving a nauseous impression on the tongue.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

MANIFEST, in commercial navigation, is a document signed by the master, containing the name or names of the places where the goods on board have been laden, and the place or places for which they are respectively destined; the name and tonnage of the vessel, the name of the master, and the name of the place to which the vessel belongs; a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, the goods contained in such packages, the names of the respective shippers and consignees

as far as such particular tobacco. The manifest place: where the goods, (MAN EXPORTATION.)

MANILLA, the capital settlement of the Spanish nation about 40,000, of on the shore of a spacious small vessels a considerable Manila roads, in 5 fathoms river's mouth N. 18° E. leagues to the southwest S. W. winds. The American fortresses on the islands. tions are well furnished

Though situated with rate; the only consideration the principal part of the very different qualities; vegetable, and animal published at Manilla in to 2,249,852, of which only, to 2,837 European are said to be the most pelago. "These people those of Europe. The joiners, smiths, goldsmiths found them kind, hospitable treat them with contempt to be imputed to the governor Perouse, c. 15.)

The principal articles tripping or *biche de mer*, import are stuffs for cloth

Account of the

America	95 arrived,
China junk	5
Dutch	4
State	1

India, 1st	1
2d	1
3d	1
liquid	1
Spain	1
Port	1
Manila	1
Or, cocoa nut	1
Tobacco shell, 1st	1
2d	1
3d	1
Malta	1

Total value of imports of ex- Amount of duties

In 1829, 136 ships arrived imports during the same year 1,691,194 dollars. The exports, dollars.

It was believed that the At this moment, the imports 80,000, to 100,000, a year. rially increase our interco-

Considering the greatly liary favourable situation with its late increase, m wretched policy of the ing all foreign ships fr and Mexico and South were excluded. "Pro vidence here, and extreme excessively high price.

as far as such particulars are known to the master, &c. A separate manifest is required for tobacco. The manifest must be made out, dated, and signed by the captain, at the place or place: where the goods, or any part of the goods, are taken on board.—(See IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.)

MANILLA, the capital of Luconia, the largest of the Philippine Islands, and the principal settlement of the Spaniards in the East, in lat. 14° 36' 8" N., lon. 120° 53' E. Population about 40,000, of whom from 1,200, to 1,500 may be Europeans. Manilla is built on the shore of a spacious bay of the same name, at the mouth of a river navigable for small vessels a considerable way into the interior. The smaller class of ships anchor in Manilla roads, in 5 fathoms, the north bastion bearing N. 37° E., the fishery stakes at the river's mouth N. 18° E., distant about a mile; but large ships anchor at Cavita, about 3 leagues to the southward, where there is a good harbour, well sheltered from the W. and S. W. winds. The arsenal is at Cavita, which is defended by Fort St. Philip, the strongest fortress on the islands. The city is surrounded by a wall and towers, and some of the bastions are well furnished with artillery.

Though situated within the tropics, the climate of the Philippines is sufficiently temperate; the only considerable disadvantage under which they labour in this respect being that the principal part of the group comes within the range of the typhoons. The soil is of very different qualities; but for the most part singularly fertile. They are rich in mineral, vegetable, and animal productions. It is stated in a statistical account of the Philippines, published at Manilla in 1818 and 1819, that the entire population of the islands amounted to 2,249,852, of which 1,376,222 belonged to Luconia. There were, at the period referred to, only 2,837 Europeans in the islands, and little more than 6,000 Chinese. The natives are said to be the most active, bold, and energetic, of any belonging to the Eastern Archipelago. "These people," says a most intelligent navigator, "appear in no respect inferior to those of Europe. They cultivate the earth like men of understanding; are carpenters, joiners, smiths, goldsmiths, weavers, masons, &c. I have walked through their villages, and found them kind, hospitable, and communicative; and though the Spaniards speak of and treat them with contempt, I perceived that the vices they attributed to the Indians, ought rather to be imputed to the government they have themselves established."—(*Voyage de M. De la Perouse*, c. 15.)

The principal articles of export consist of indigo, sugar, rice, sapan wood, birds' nests, tripping or *biche de mer*, dried beef, hides, ebony, gold dust, &c. The principal articles of import are stuffs for clothing, iron, hardware, furniture, fire-arms, and ammunition, &c.

Account of the Trade of Manilla for the Year 1831, from the Official Report.

Shipping.—Arrivals and Departures in 1831.

American	25 arrived, 29 sailed.	English	19 arrived, 19 sailed.	Prussian	1 arrived, 1 sailed.
Chinese junk	5	French	1	Spanish	43
Dutch	7	Hamburg	3		
	4	Portuguese	5		
					116

Statement of the principal Articles of Export from Manilla in 1831.

	Arrobas.	Arrobas.	Arrobas.	Arrobas.	Arrobas.
Indigo, 1st	2,721		Coffee, clean		
2d	8,108		Wax raw	31	14,024
3d	310 1/2		manufactured	964	
Liquid	24,978 1/2		Hides		22,858
Rape		31,119	Horns		803
Rice		817,737 1/2	Mother-of-pearl shells		1,362
Hemp		1,074,730	Rum	gallons 6,716	
Oil, cocon nut		154,917	Sapan wood		50,671
Tobacco shell, 1st	38	6,964	Tobacco		4,979
2d	245		Exclusive of bird's nests, pepper, mats, sharks' fins, biche de mer, &c.		
3d	60				
filiso	18				

Total value of imports in 1831, including specie - - - - - 1,459,776 dollars.

of exports - - - - - 1,303,621 "

Amount of duties - - - - - 214,066 "

In 1832, 136 ships arrived at Manilla, of which 35 were American, 34 English, and 53 Spanish. The imports during the same year were, goods 1,204,694 dollars, and treasure 464,300 do., being together 1,669,194 dollars. The exports were, goods 1,531,540 dollars, treasure 317,990 do., together 1,849,530 dollars.

It was believed that the crop of sugar in Luconia in 1833, would amount to about 25,000,000 lbs. At this moment, the imports of British goods into the Philippines are estimated to amount to from 60,000, to 100,000, a year; but we have no doubt that the opening the trade to China will very materially increase our intercourse with Manilla.

Considering the great fertility and varied productions of the Philippines, and their peculiarly favourable situation for carrying on commerce, the limited extent of their trade, even with its late increase, may excite surprise. This, however, is entirely a consequence of the wretched policy of the Spanish government, which persevered until very recently in excluding all foreign ships from the ports of the Philippines—confining the trade between them and Mexico and South America to a single ship! Even ships and settlers from China were excluded. "Provisions," says La Perouse, "of all kinds are in the greatest abundance here, and extremely cheap; but clothing, European hardware, and furniture, bear an excessively high price. The want of competition, together with prohibitions and restraints

of every kind laid on commerce, *render the productions and merchandises of India and China at least as dear as in Europe.*" Happily, however, this miserable policy, the effects of which have been admirably depicted by M. de la Perouse, has been materially modified during the last few years. The events of the late war destroyed for ever the old colonial system of Spain; and the ships of all nations are now freely admitted into Manila and the other ports in the Philippines. An unprecedented stimulus has, in consequence, been given to all sorts of industry; and its progress will no doubt become more rapid, according as a wider experience and acquaintance with foreigners make the natives better aware of the advantages of commerce and industry, and disabuses them of the prejudices of which they have been so long the slaves.

The *Monies, Weights, and Measures*, used at Manila, are nearly the same as in Spain.—(See CADIZ.) They have, however, this difference,—that they estimate weight by piastres: 16 piastres are supposed to = 1 lb. Spanish weight, though they are not quite so much; 11 ounces or piastres = 1 tale of silk; 22 ounces = 1 catty; 8 ounces = 1 marc of silver; and 10 ounces = 1 tale of gold. 16 piastres or ounces = 15½ ounces avoirdupois; 100 catties = 1 picul = 133½ lbs. avoirdupois.

(Account of the Quantity and Value of the Produce exported from Manila in 1837.

Articles.	By Foreign Vessels.	By Spanish Vessels.	Total.	Price.		Gross Amount.
				Doll.	Pie.	
Sugar	195,852 pic.	26,331 pic.	222,183 pic.	4	3	944,277 6
Sapan wood	14,904	9,091	23,995	1	2	29,696
Hemp	57,363	2,104	59,467	4	2	232,734
Cotton	3,850	5,814	9,664	15	-	84,860
Coffee	6,206	632	6,838 1-2	13	-	88,894
Buffalo	7,531	2,124 1-2	9,655 1-2	3	7	37,415
Mother of pearl shells	1,004	-	1,016	14	-	14,210
Hide cuttings	1,417	1,521	2,938	3	-	8,814
Hemp, cordage	875	300 1-2	1,175 1-2	9	-	10,769
Strained slony	2,421	892	3,313	1	2	12,253
Roots of sapanwood	5,520	1,746	7,266	-	4	1,133
Pieces of molove (timber)	4,328	-	4,328	5	4	34,024
Indigo	1,823 1-2 — 99 cty.	148 — 99 cty.	1,971 1-2 — 99 cty.	68	-	119,263
Leaf tobacco	36	-	36	12	-	420
Tortoise shell	9,706 cty.	1,910 1-2 cty.	4,618 1-2 cty.	7	4	34,623
Rice	45,007	70,586 cty.	115,593 cty.	1	1	157,508
Paddy	16,564 pic.	19,048 pic.	35,612 pic.	-	4	37,890
Coffee in hulk	86	-	86	3	8	224
Hata	18,305 in no.	234 in no.	18,539 in no.	1	8	34,350
Cigar cases	6,831	70	6,901	-	4	2,800
Cigars	3,141 boxes	1,437 boxes	4,578 boxes	25	-	114,850
Manilla hemp cloth	19,000 pieces	10,000 pieces	29,000 pieces	-	3	10,983
Uluo	4,078 1-2	50	4,128 1-2	4	14	773 2
Cocoa-nut oil	878 1-2 casks	-	878 1-2 casks	2	6	2,410 3
Ditto	788 1-2	-	788 1-2	3	3	1,228
Rum	8,261 gallons	132 gallons	8,393 gallons	3	-	9,558 1
Canes	1,440	-	1,440	-	4	720
Liquid indigo	-	230 pic.	230 pic.	4	-	820
Ditto	-	696 casks	696 casks	3	4	2,121
Cotton canvas	-	620 pieces	620 pieces	12	-	4,720
Mata	-	762	762	-	3	180 4
Total				2,012,638	61 21	

MARBLE (Ger. Rus. and Lat. *Marmor*; Du. *Marmer*; Fr. *Marbre*; It. *Marmo*; Sp. *Marmol*), a genus of fossils, composed chiefly of lime; being a bright and beautiful stone, moderately hard, not giving fire with steel, fermenting with and soluble in acid menstrua, and calcining in a slight fire.

The colours by which marbles are distinguished are almost innumerable. Some are quite black; others, again, are of a snowy white; some are greenish, others greyish, reddish, bluish, yellowish, &c.; while some are variegated and spotted with many different colours and shades of colour. The finest solid modern marbles are those of Italy, Blankenburg, France, and Flanders. Great quantities of very beautiful marble have been lately discovered at Portauy in Banffshire, and at Three and other places in the Western Isles. Kilkenny, in Ireland, has abundance of beautiful black marble intermixed with white spots, called *Kilkenny marble*. Derbyshire abounds in this mineral. Near Kyn-bay, in Anglesa there is a quarry of beautiful marble, called *verde di Corsica*, from its site being found in Corsica. Its colours are green, black, white, and dull purple, irregularly disposed. It produces the most valuable marble, and its exportation makes a considerable branch of her foreign commerce. The black and the milk-white marble of Carara, in the duchy of Massa, are particularly esteemed.

The marbles of Germany, Norway, and Sweden are very inferior, being mixed with a sort of rusty limestone.

Marble is of so hard, compact, and fine a texture, as readily to take a beautiful polish. That most esteemed by statuaries is brought from the island of Paros, in the Archipelago; it was employed by Praxiteles and Phidias, both of whom were natives of that island; whence also the famous Attic marbles were brought. The marble of Carara is likewise in high repute among sculptors.

The specific gravity of marble is from 2.700 to 2.800. Black marble owes its colour to a slight mixture of iron.

MARITIME LAW. By maritime law is meant the law relating to harbours, ships, and seamen. It forms an important branch of the commercial law of all maritime nations. It is divided into a variety of different departments; such as those with respect to harbours, to the property of ships, the duties and rights of masters and seamen, contracts of affreightment, average, salvage, &c. The reader will find those subjects treated of under their respective heads.

Sketch of the Progress of Maritime Law.—The earliest system of maritime law was compiled by the Rhodians, several centuries before the Christian era. The most celebrated

authors of antiquity have...ly, however, we are not...commendatory statement...riv.) The laws of Rhod...such was the estimation...ited to decide a conteste...it ought to be decided b...cases, unless they happen...law.—("Ego quidem m...dicia prescripta est, jud...Dives quoque Augustus...contributions in the even...cargo, is expressly laid d...tion seems to be, that mo...lations of Justinian have...adopted by all modern na...or rather, as we have seen...those by whom they had...Rhodian laws are those...published at Bale in 1561...The first modern code...—a city at present in rui...will be for ever famous fo...mariner's compass. The...ophitana. But if such a...been published, nor even...who have referred to the...ment of Freccia, in his b... (145.) And as Freccia...Naples at the time when...tremely disappeared; and it...that it consisted principall...known, preserved their as...else.

But, besides Amalphi, towns of the Mediterranean...commerce and navigation...seems reasonable to suppose...those of Rome, but with...accommodate them to the...other way, it is certain th...much confusion and uncer...doubtless contributed to...time law. Nothing certa...*Code de l'Europe*, tome i...work a large proportion of...tion, that the Pisans are en...greater part, of the *Consol...the learned and excellen...Barcelona*, tome i. pp. 176...called at Barcelona; and...Barcelonaese had establish...It is certain that the *Cons...the early Italian and Fren...sufficiently proved, that th...that several of the regulati...But it does not appear th...that the resemblance betw...may not fairly be ascribed...formed persons legislating...derived from the civil law.*

M. Pardessus, in the se...have been sufficiently disp...favour of Marseilles to th...admits that such a preten...opinion.—"Quoique Fran...quo, qu'aucun événement

authors of antiquity have spoken in high terms of the wisdom of the Rhodian laws: luckily, however, we are not wholly left, in forming our opinion upon them, to the vague though commendatory statements of Cicero and Strabo.—(Cicero pro Lege Manilia; Strab. lib. xiv.) The laws of Rhodes were adopted by Augustus into the legislation of Rome; and such was the estimation in which they were held, that the Emperor Antoninus, being solicited to decide a contested point with respect to shipping, is reported to have answered, that it ought to be decided by the Rhodian laws, which were of paramount authority in such cases, unless they happened to be directly at variance with some regulation of the Roman law.—(“Ego quidem mundi dominus, lex autem maris legis id Rhodia, qua de rebus nauticis præscripta est, judicetur, quatenus nulla nostrarum legum adversatur. Hoc idem Divus quoque Augustus judicavit.”) The rule of the Rhodian law with respect to average contributions in the event of a sacrifice being made at sea for the safety of the ship and cargo, is expressly laid down in the Digest (lib. xiv. tit. 2.); and the most probable conclusion seems to be, that most of the regulations as to maritime affairs embodied in the compilations of Justinian have been derived from the same source. The regulations as to average adopted by all modern nations, are borrowed, with hardly any alteration, from the Roman, or rather, as we have seen, from the Rhodian law!—a conclusive proof of the sagacity of those by whom they had been originally framed. The only authentic fragments of the Rhodian laws are those in the Digest. The collection entitled *Jus Navale Rhodiorum*, published at Bâle in 1561, is now admitted by all critics to be apurians.

The first modern code of maritime law is said to have been compiled at Amalphi, in Italy,—a city at present in ruins; but which, besides being early distinguished for its commerce, will be for ever famous for the discovery of the Pandects, and the supposed invention of the mariner's compass. The Amalphan code is said to have been denominated *Tabula Amalphanita*. But if such a body of law really existed, it is singular that it should never have been published, nor even any extracts from it. M. Pardessus has shown that all the authors who have referred to the Amalphan code and asserted its existence, have copied the statement of Freccia, in his book *De Subfeudis*.—(Collection des Loix Maritimes, tome i. p. 145.) And as Freccia assures us that the Amalphan code continued to be followed in Naples at the time when he wrote (1570), it is difficult to suppose that it could have entirely disappeared; and it seems most probable, as nothing peculiar to it has ever transpired, that it consisted principally of the regulations laid down in the Roman law, which, it is known, preserved their ascendancy for a longer period in the south of Italy than any where else.

But, besides Amalphi, Venice, Marseilles, Pisa, Genoa, Barcelona, Valencia, and other towns of the Mediterranean, were early distinguished for the extent to which they carried commerce and navigation. In the absence of any positive information on the subject, it seems reasonable to suppose that their maritime laws would be principally borrowed from those of Rome, but with such alterations and modifications as might be deemed requisite to accommodate them to the particular views of each state. But whether in this or in some other way, it is certain that various conflicting regulations were established, which led to much confusion and uncertainty; and the experience of the inconveniences thence arising, doubtless contributed to the universal adoption of the *Consolato del Mare* as a code of maritime law. Nothing certain is known as to the origin of this code. Azuni (*Droit Maritime de l'Europe*, tome i. pp. 414—439, or rather Jorio, *Codice Ferdinando*, from whose work a large proportion of Azuni's is literally translated) contends, in a very able dissertation, that the Pisans are entitled to the glory of having compiled the whole, or at least the greater part, of the *Consolato del Mare*. On the other hand, Don Antonio de Capmany, in his learned and excellent work on the commerce of Barcelona—(*Antiguo Comercio de Barcelona*, tomo i. pp. 170—183.), has endeavoured to show that the *Consolato* was compiled at Barcelona; and that it contains the rules according to which the consuls, which the Barcelonense had established in foreign places so early as 1268, were to render their decisions. It is certain that the *Consolato* was printed for the first time at Barcelona, in 1502; and that the early Italian and French editions are translations from the Catalan. Azuni has, indeed, sufficiently proved, that the Pisans had a code of maritime laws at a very early period, and that several of the regulations in it are substantially the same as those in the *Consolato*. But it does not appear that the Barcelonense were aware of the regulations of the Pisans, or that the resemblance between them and those in the *Consolato* is more than accidental; or may not fairly be ascribed to the concurrence that can hardly fail to obtain among well-informed persons legislating upon the same topics, and influenced by principles and practices derived from the civil law.

M. Pardessus, in the second volume of his excellent work already referred to, appears to have been sufficiently disposed, had there been any grounds to go upon, to set up a claim in favour of Marseilles to the honour of being the birthplace of the *Consolato*; but he candidly admits that such a pretension could not be supported, and unwillingly adheres to Capmany's opinion.—“Quoique François,” says he, “quoique portée par des sentimens de reconnaissance, qu'aucun événement ne sauroit affaiblir, à faire valoir tout ce qui est en faveur de

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Marseilles, je dois reconnoître franchement que les probabilités l'emportent en faveur de Barcelone."—(Tome ii. p. 24.)

But to whichever city the honour of compiling the *Consolato* may be due, there can be no doubt that its antiquity has been greatly exaggerated. It is affirmed, in a preface to the different editions, that it was solemnly accepted, subscribed and promulgated, as a body of maritime law, by the Holy See in 1075, and by the Kings of France and other potentates at different periods between 1075 and 1270. But Capmany, Azuni, and Pardessus, have shown in the clearest and most satisfactory manner that the circumstances alluded to in this preface could not possibly have taken place, and that it is wholly unworthy of the least attention. The most probable opinion seems to be, that it was compiled, and began to be introduced, about the end of the 13th or the beginning of the 14th century. And notwithstanding its prolixity, and the want of precision and clearness, the correspondence of the greater number of its rules with the ascertained principles of justice and public utility, gradually led, without the intervention of any agreement, to its adoption as a system of maritime jurisprudence by all the nations contiguous to the Mediterranean. It is still of high authority. Casaregis says of it, though, perhaps, too strongly "*Consulatus maris, in materiâ maritimâ, tanquam universalis consuetudo habens vim legis inviolabiliter attenda est apud omnes provincias et nationes.*"—(Disc. 213. n. 12.)

The collection of sea laws next in celebrity, but anterior, perhaps, in point of time, is that denominated the *Roole des Jugemens d'Oleron*. There is as much diversity of opinion as to the origin of these laws, as there is with respect to the origin of the *Consolato*. The prevailing opinion in Great Britain has been, that they were compiled by direction of Queen Eleanor, the wife of Henry II., in her quality of Duchess of Guienne; and that they were afterwards enlarged and improved by her son Richard I., at his return from the Holy Land; but this statement is now admitted to rest on no good foundation. The most probable theory seems to be, that they are a collection of the rules or practices followed at the principal French ports on the Atlantic, as Bordeaux, Rochelle, St. Malo, &c. They contain, indeed, rules that are essential to all maritime transactions, wherever they may be carried on; but the references in the code sufficiently prove that it is of French origin. The circumstances of our monarch's having large possessions in France at the period when the Rules of Oleron were collected, naturally facilitated their introduction into England; and they have long enjoyed a very high degree of authority in this country. "I call them the Laws of Oleron," said a great civilian—(*Sir Leoline Jenking, Charge to the Cinque Ports*), "not but that they are peculiarly enough English, being long since incorporated into the customs and statutes of our admiralties; but the equity of them is so great, and the use and reason of them so general, that they are known and received all the world over by that rather than by any other name." Molloy, however, has more correctly, perhaps, said of the laws of Oleron, that "they never obtained any other or greater force than those of Rhodes formerly did; that is, they were esteemed for the reason and equity found in them, and applied to the case emergent."—(*De Jure Maritimo et Navali*, Introd.)

A code of maritime law issued at Wisby, in the island of Gothland, in the Baltic, has long enjoyed a high reputation in the North. The date of its compilation is uncertain; but it is comparatively modern. It is true that some of the northern jurists contend that the Laws of Wisby are older than the Rules of Oleron, and that the latter are chiefly copied from the former! But it has been repeatedly shown that there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for this statement.—(See *Pardessus, Collection*, &c. tome i. pp. 425—463. *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 13. art *Hanseatic League*.) The Laws of Wisby are not certainly older than the latter part of the 14th or beginning of the 15th century; and have obviously been compiled from the *Consolato del Mare*, the Rules of Oleron, and other codes that were then in use. Grotius has spoken of these laws in the most laudatory manner—"Quæ de maritimus negotiis," says he, "*in insula Gothlandiæ habitatoribus placuerunt, tantum in se habent, tum equitatis, tum prudentiæ, ut omnes oceani aecola eo, non tantum proprio, sed velut gentium jure, utantur.*"—(*Prolegomena ad Procopium*, p. 64.)

Besides the codes now mentioned, the ordinances of the Hanse towns, issued in 1587 and 1614, contain a system of laws relating to navigation that is of great authority. The judgments of Danme, the customs of Amsterdam, &c. are also often quoted."

But by far the most complete and well digested system of maritime jurisprudence that has ever appeared, is that comprised in the famous *Ordonnance de la Marine* issued by Louis XIV. in 1681. This excellent code was compiled under the direction of M. Colbert, by individuals of great talent and learning, after a careful revision of all the ancient sea laws of France and other countries, and upon consultation with the different parliaments, the courts of admiralty, and the chambers of commerce, of the different towns. It combines whatever experience and the wisdom of ages had shown to be best in the Roman laws, and in the institutions of the modern maritime states of Europe. In the preface to his treatise on the

* A translation of the Law of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, is given in the 3d edition of Maty's *Lex Mercatoria*; but the edition of them in the work of M. Pardessus, referred to in the text is infinitely superior to every other.

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Law of Shipping, Lord Tenterden says,—“If the reader should be offended at the frequent references to this ordinance, I must request him to recollect that those references are made to the maritime code of a great commercial nation, which has attributed much of its national prosperity to that code: a code composed in the reign of a politic prince; under the auspices of a wise and enlightened minister; by laborious and learned persons, who selected the most valuable principles of all the maritime laws then existing; and which, in matter, method, and style, is one of the most finished acts of legislation that ever was promulgated.”

The ordinance of 1681 was published in 1760, with a detailed and most elaborate commentary by M. Valin, in 2 volumes, 4to. It is impossible which to admire most in this commentary, the learning or the sound good sense of the writer. Lord Mansfield was indebted for no inconsiderable portion of his superior knowledge of the principles of maritime jurisprudence to a careful study of M. Valin's work.

That part of the *Code de Commerce* which treats of maritime affairs, insurance, &c. is copied, with very little alteration, from the ordinance of 1681. The few changes that have been made are not always improvements.

No system or code of maritime law has ever been issued by authority in Great Britain. The laws and practices that now obtain amongst us in reference to maritime affairs have been founded principally on the practices of merchants, the principles laid down in the civil law, the Laws of Oleron and Wisby, the works of distinguished jurists, the judicial decisions of our own and foreign countries, &c. A law so constructed has necessarily been in a progressive state of improvement; and, though still susceptible of material amendment, it corresponds, at this moment, more nearly, perhaps, than any other system of maritime law, with those universally recognised principles of justice and general convenience, by which the transactions of merchants and navigators ought to be regulated.

The decisions of Lord Mansfield did much to fix the principles, and to improve and perfect the maritime law of England. It is also under great obligations to Lord Stowell. The decisions of the latter chiefly, indeed, respect questions of neutrality, growing out of the conflicting pretensions of belligerents and neutrals during the late war; but the principles and doctrines which he unfolds in treating those questions, throw a strong and steady light on almost all branches of maritime law. It has occasionally, indeed, been alleged,—and the allegation is probably, in some degree, well founded,—that his Lordship has conceded too much to the claims of belligerents. Still, however, his judgments must be regarded, allowing for this excusable bias, as among the noblest monuments of judicial wisdom of which any country can boast. “They will be contemplated,” says Mr. Serjeant Marshall, “with applause and veneration, as long as depth of learning, soundness of argument, enlightened wisdom, and the chaste beauties of eloquence, hold any place in the estimation of mankind.”

(On *Insurance*, Prelim. Disc.)

The “Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen,” by the late Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, does credit to the talents, erudition, and liberality of this noble and learned author. It gives, within a brief compass, a clear and admirable exposition of the most important branches of our maritime law; and may be consulted with equal facility and advantage by the merchant or general scholar, as by the lawyer. Mr. Serjeant Marshall has entered very fully into some, and has touched upon most points of maritime law, in his work on *Insurance*; and has discussed them with great learning and sagacity. The works of Mr. Justice Park, Mr. Holt, and a few others, are also valuable. Of the earlier treatises, the *Lex Mercatoria* of Malynes is by far the best; and, considering the period of its publication (1622), is a very extraordinary performance.

Statutes with respect to Importation and Exportation, Navigation, &c.—The preceding remarks refer merely to the principles, or leading doctrines, of our maritime law. These, however, have often been very much modified by statutory enactments; and the excessive multiplication of acts of Parliament suspending, repealing, or altering parts of other acts, has often involved our commercial and maritime law in almost inextricable confusion, and been most injurious to the public interests. No one, indeed, who is not pretty conversant with the subject, would readily imagine to what an extent this abuse has sometimes been carried. From the Revolution down to 1786, some hundreds of acts were passed, each enacting some addition, diminution, or change, in the duties, drawbacks, bounties, and regulations previously existing in the customs. In consequence the customs laws became so intricate and unintelligible, that hardly one merchant in fifty could tell the exact amount of duty affecting any article, or the course to be followed either in entering or clearing out vessels; being obliged to leave it entirely to the clerks of the Custom-house to calculate the amount of duties, and to direct him how to proceed so as to avoid forfeiting the goods and the ship! and yet, so powerful is the influence of habit in procuring toleration for the most pernicious absurdities, that this monstrous abuse was allowed to go on increasing for 50 years after it had been denounced as intolerable. Mr. Pitt has the merit of having introduced something like order into this chaos. Under his auspices, all the separate customs duties existing in 1787 were repealed, and new ones substituted in their stead; consisting, in most instances, of the equivalents, so far at least as they could be ascertained, of the old duties. In carrying this mea-

tion—(see IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION); and the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 59., for regulating the trade with the British possessions abroad—(see COLONIES AND COLONY TRADE). Mr. Hume, formerly of the customs, now of the Board of Trade, had the principal share in the compilation of these acts, which do honour to his sagacity, industry, and talents for arrangement.

It may be worth while observing, that hardly a session passes without giving birth to more or fewer acts, making certain changes or modifications in those referred to above. Where these changes apply only to some particular emergency, without affecting the general principles or rules laid down in the statutes, there can be no doubt that they should be embodied in separate acts; but where any modification or alteration is to be made in the principles of the law, the better way, as it appears to us, would be to introduce it directly into the leading act on the subject—re-enacting it in an amended or altered form. In no other way is it possible to preserve that unity and clearness which are so very desirable. The multiplication of statutes is a very great evil, not only from the difficulty of ascertaining the exact degree in which one modifies another, but from its invariably leading to the enactment of contradictory clauses. The property and transactions of merchants ought not to depend upon the subtleties and niceties of forced constructions, but upon plain and obvious rules, about which there can be no mistake. It would, however, be idle to expect that such rules can ever be deduced from the conflicting provisions of a number of statutes: those in the same statute are not always in harmony with each other.

MARK, or MARC, a weight used in several parts of Europe, for various commodities, especially gold and silver. In France, the mark was divided into 8 oz. = 64 drachms = 292 deniers or pennyweights = 4,608 grains. In Holland, the mark weight was also called Troy weight, and was equal to that of France. When gold and silver are sold by the mark, it is divided into 24 carats.

The pound, or *livre, poids de marc*, the weight most commonly used in retail dealings throughout France previously to the Revolution, was equal to 2 marcs, and consequently contained 16 oz. = 128 drachms = 864 den. = 9,216 grs. One kilogramme is nearly equal to 2 livres.—Subjoined is a Table of livres, *poids de marc*, from 0 to 10, converted into kilogrammes. Any greater number may be learned by a simple multiplication and addition.

Livres.	Kilog.	Livres.	Kilog.	Livres.	Kilog.	Livres.	Kilog.
1	= 0.4535	4	= 1.8140	7	= 3.1755	9	= 4.0815
2	= 0.9070	5	= 2.2675	8	= 3.6280	10	= 4.5345
3	= 1.3605	6	= 2.7210				

MARK, a term sometimes used among us for a money of account, and in some other countries for a coin. The English mark is $\frac{3}{4}$ ds of a pound sterling, or 13s. 4d.; and the Scotch mark is $\frac{3}{4}$ ds of a pound Scotch. The mark Lubs, or Lubeck mark, used at Hamburg, is a money of account, equal to 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling.

MARKET, a public place in a city or town, where provisions are sold. No market is to be kept within 7 miles of the city of London; but all butchers, victuallers, &c. may hire stalls and standings in the flesh-markets there, and sell meat and other provisions. Every person who has a market is entitled to receive toll for the things sold in it; and, by ancient custom, for things standing in the market, though not sold; but those who keep a market in any other manner than it is granted, or extort tolls or fees where none are due, forfeit the same.—(See FAIRS.)

MARSEILLES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Mediterranean, lat. 43° 17' 49" N., lon. 5° 22' E. Population 125,000.

Harbour.—The harbour, the access to which is defended by several strong fortifications, is in the centre of the city, forming a basin 525 fathoms in length, by about 150 do. in breadth. The tide is hardly variable; but the depth of water at the entrance to the harbour varies from 16 to 18 feet, being lowest when the wind is N.W., and highest when it is S.W. Within the basin the depth of water varies from 12 to 24 feet, being shallowest on the north, and deepest on the south side. Dredging machines are constantly at work to clear out the mud, and to prevent the harbour from filling up. Though not accessible to the largest class of ships, Marseilles is one of the best and safest ports in the world for moderate-sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate above 1,000. Ships in the basin lie close alongside the quays; and there is every facility for getting them speedily loaded and unloaded. The *Ile de Ratonneau*, Pomegues, and the strongly fortified islet or rock of If, lie W.S.W. from the port; the latter, which is the nearest to it, being only $\frac{1}{3}$ mile distant, and not more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile from the best point of land to the south of the city. There is good anchorage ground for men-of-war and other large ships between the *Iles de Ratonneau* and Pomegues, to the west of the *Ile d'If*, when coming from the south, it is usual to make the *Ile de Planier*, lat. 43° 11' 54" N., lon. 5° 13' E. A light-house erected on this island is 131 feet high; the flashes of the light, which is a revolving one, succeed each other every $\frac{1}{2}$ minute, and in clear weather it may be seen 7 leagues off. Ships that have made the *Ile de Planier*, or that of *Le Maire*, lying east from it about 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles, steer directly for the *Ile d'If*, distant about 7 miles from each, and having got within $\frac{1}{2}$ or a mile of it, are to go for a pilot, who carries them into harbour; it is not, however, obligatory on ships to take a pilot on board; but being obliged to pay for one whether they avail themselves of his services or not, they seldom dispense with them. The charge is 4 sous per ton in, and 3 sous per do. out, for French vessels, and the vessels of countries having reciprocity treaties with France. There is a light-house for *St. Jean*, on the north side of the entrance to the port. The *lazaretto*, which is one of the best in Europe, lies a little to the north of the city; and there is an hospital on *Ratonneau Island*, for *Malades* whose health is dubious. With the exception of the above charge for pilotage, and the charge for such vessels as perform quarantine, there are no port charges on ships entering at, or leaving out from, Marseilles.

Trade, &c.—Marseilles is a city of great antiquity, and has long enjoyed a very extensive commerce. Havre, partly, no doubt, from its being, as it were, the port of Paris, used to

contrary, the law has always considered the captain as contracting personally with the owner; and the case of the captain has, in that respect, been distinguished from that of all other persons belonging to the ship. This rule of law may have its foundation in policy, for the benefit of navigation; for, as ships may be making profit and earning every day, it might be attended with great inconvenience, if, on the change of a captain for misbehaviour, or any other reason, he should be entitled to keep the ship till he is paid. Work done for a ship in England is supposed to be done on the personal credit of the employer: in foreign parts the captain may hypothecate the ship. The defendant might have told the tradesman, that he only acted as an agent, and that they must look to the owner for payment."

The master is bound to employ his whole time and attention in the service of his employers, and is not at liberty to enter into any engagement for his own benefit that may occupy any portion of his time in other concerns; and therefore, if he do so, and the price of such engagement happen to be paid into the hands of his owners, they may retain the money, and he cannot recover from them.—(Abbott, part ii. c. 4.)

During war, a master should be particularly attentive to the regulations as to sailing under convoy; for, besides his responsibility to his owners or freighters, he may be prosecuted by the Court of Admiralty, and fined in any sum not exceeding 500*l.*, and imprisoned for any term not exceeding 1 year, if he wilfully disobey the signals, instructions, or lawful commands of the commander of the convoy; or desert it without leave.—(43 Geo. 3. c. 160.)

Wilfully destroying or casting away the ship, or procuring the same to be done by the master or mariners, to the prejudice of the owners, freighters, or insurers; running away with the cargo; and turning pirates; are capital offences punishable by death.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29., and antecedent statutes.)

After the voyage has been commenced, the master must proceed direct to the place of his destination, without unnecessarily stopping at any intermediate port, or deviating from the shortest course. No such deviation will be sanctioned, unless it has been occasioned by stress of weather, the want of necessary repair, avoiding enemies or pirates, succouring of ships in distress, sickness of the master or mariners, or the mutiny of the crew.—(Marshall on Insurance, book i. c. 6. § 3.) To justify a deviation, the necessity must be real, inevitable, and imperious; and it must not be prolonged one moment after the necessity has ceased. A deviation without such necessity vitiates all insurances upon the ship and cargo, and exposes the owners to an action on the part of the freighters. If a ship be captured in consequence of deviation, the merchant is entitled to recover from the owners the prime cost of the goods, with shipping charges; but he is not entitled to more, unless he can show that the goods were enhanced in value beyond the sum above mentioned.

If a merchant ship has the misfortune to be attacked by pirates or enemies, the master is bound to do his duty as a man of courage and capacity, and to make the best resistance that the comparative strength of his ship and crew will allow.

By the common law, the master has authority over all the mariners on board the ship,—it being their duty to obey his commands in all lawful matters relating to the navigation of the ship, and the preservation of good order. But the master should, in all cases, use his authority with moderation, so as to be the father, not the tyrant, of his crew. On his return home he may be called upon, by action at law, to answer to a mariner he has either beat or imprisoned during the course of the voyage; and unless he show sufficient cause for chastising the mariner, and also that the chastisement was reasonable and moderate, he will be found liable in damages. Should the master strike a mariner without cause, or use a deadly weapon as an instrument of correction, and death ensue, he will be found guilty, according to the circumstances of the case, either of manslaughter or murder.—(Abbott, part ii. c. 4.)

The master may by force restrain the commission of great crimes; but he has no jurisdiction over the criminal. His business is to secure his person, and to deliver him over to the proper tribunals on his coming to his own country.—(See art. SEAMEN.)

If by shipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, seamen, subjects of Great Britain, be found in foreign parts, his Majesty's governors, ministers, consuls, or two or more British merchants, residing in such parts, may send such seamen home in ships of war, or in merchant ships homeward bound in want of men; and if such ships cannot be found, they may send them home in merchant ships that are fully manned, but no such merchant ship shall be obliged to take on board more than *four* such persons for every 100 tons burthen: and the master, upon arrival, and producing to the Navy Board a certificate from the governor, minister, consul, &c. where he shipped the men, and his own affidavit of the time he maintained them, shall receive *1*s.* 6*d.* per diem* for all such seamen above his own complement of men.—(53 Geo. 3. c. 55.) A subsequent statute (58 Geo. 3. c. 38.) inflicts a penalty of 100*l.* on any master of a merchant vessel who shall refuse to take on board or bring home any seafaring man, a subject of Great Britain, left behind in any foreign country, upon being required to do so by the competent authorities.

The master of a ship forcing any man on shore when abroad, or refusing to bring back

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such of the men he carried out with him as are in a condition to return, shall, upon conviction of such offence, be imprisoned for such term as the court shall award.—(9 Geo. 4. c. 31.)

A penalty of 20*l.* is imposed on every master of a vessel, who, having, on account of sickness, left any seafaring man at any foreign port or place, shall neglect or refuse to deliver an account of the wages due, and to pay the same.—(56 Geo. 3. c. 58.)

The law makes no distinction between carriers by land and carriers by water. The master of a merchant ship is, in the eye of the law, a carrier; and is, as such, bound to take reasonable and proper care of the goods committed to his charge, and to convey them to the place of their destination, *barring only the acts of God and the king's enemies*. Every act which may be provided against by ordinary care renders the master responsible. He would not, for example, be liable for damage done to goods on board in consequence of a leak in the ship occasioned by the violence of the tempest, or other accident; but if the leak were occasioned by rats, he would be liable, for these might have been exterminated by ordinary care, as by putting cats on board, &c. On the same principle, if the master run the ship in fair weather against a rock or shallow known to expert mariners, he is responsible. If any injury be done to the cargo by improper or careless stowage, the master will be liable.

The master must not take on board any contraband goods, by which the ship and other parts of the cargo may be rendered liable to forfeiture or seizure. Neither must he take on board any false or colourable papers, as these might subject the ship to the risk of capture or detention. But it is his duty to procure and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the manifestation of the ship and cargo, by the law of the countries from and to which the ship is bound, as well as by the law of nations in general, or by treaties between particular states. These papers and documents cannot be dispensed with at any time, and are quite essential to the safe navigation of neutral ships during war.—(See *SHIP'S PAPERS*.)

It is customary in bills of lading to insert a clause limiting the responsibility of the master and owners, as follows:—“*The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, save risk of boats, as far as ships are liable thereto, excepted.*” When no bill of lading is signed, the master and owners are bound according to the common law.

The most difficult part of the master's duty is, when, through the perils of the sea, the attacks of enemies or pirates, or other unforeseen accidents, he is prevented from completing his voyage. If his own ship have suffered from storms, and cannot be repaired within a reasonable time, and if the cargo be of a *perishable nature*, he is at liberty to employ another ship to convey it to the place of destination. He may do the same if the ship have been wrecked and the cargo saved, or if his own ship be in danger of sinking, and he can get the cargo transferred to another,* and in *extreme cases* he is at liberty to dispose of the cargo for the benefit of its owners. But, to use the words of Lord Chief Justice Tenterden, “the disposal of the cargo by the master is a matter that requires the utmost caution on his part. He should always bear in mind that it is his *duty to convey it to the place of destination*. This is the purpose for which he has been intrusted with it, and this purpose he is bound to accomplish by every reasonable and practical method. What, then, is the master to do, if, by any disaster happening in the course of his voyage, he is unable to carry the goods to the place of destination, or to deliver them there? To this, as a general question, I apprehend no answer can be given. Every case must depend upon its own peculiar circumstances. The conduct proper to be adopted with respect to perishable goods, will be improper with respect to a cargo not perishable: one thing may be fit to be done with fish or fruit, and another with timber or iron: one method may be proper in distant regions, another in the vicinity of the merchant; one in a frequented navigation, another on unfrequented shores. The wreck of the ship is not necessarily followed by an impossibility of sending forward the goods, and does not of itself make their sale a measure of necessity or expedience: much less (in the loss of the season, or of the proper course of the voyage, have this effect. An unexpected interdiction of commerce, or a sudden war, may defeat the

* The most celebrated maritime codes, and the opinions of the ablest writers, have differed considerably as to these points. According to the Rhodian law (Pand. l. 10. § 1.) the captain is released from all his engagements, if the ship, by the perils of the sea, and without any fault on his part, become incapable of proceeding on her voyage. The laws of Oleron (art. 4.) and those of Wisby (art. 18. 37. 55.), say that the captain may hire another ship; harmonising in this respect with the present law of England. The famous French ordinance of 1681 (tit. *Du Fret*, art. 11.), and the *Code de Commerce* (art. 206.), order the captain to hire another ship; and if he cannot procure one, freight is to be due only for that part of the voyage which has been performed (*pro ratâ itineris peracti*). Valla has objected to this article, and states that practically it meant only that the captain must hire another ship if he would earn the whole freight. Emerigon (tom. i. p. 428.) holds that the captain, being the agent not only of the owners of the ship, but also of the shippers of the goods on board, is bound, in the absence of both, to use his best endeavours to preserve the goods, and to do whatever, in the circumstances, he thinks will most conduce to the interest of all concerned; or what it may be presumed the shippers would do, were they present. This, which seems to be the best and wisest rule, has been laid down by Lords Mansfield and Tenterden, as stated above, and may be regarded as the law of England on this point.

adventure and oblige himself alone make it no the ship to resort. In obligation to deliver the that he is authorized to may be said, he is to do the benefit of all concern will not have reason to teach. Some regard m interest of the cargo m tion, if it be practicable pose: if that be im:ra taneous sale (and almos he should think of, beo human laws.”—(Law

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MASTICH, or Masticus, *Almaciga cna lenticus*, a native obtained by making t mastic slowly exude. is brought to this cou ish, transparent tear able odour; chewed, are trifling.—(*Ainslie*

MATE, in a mercl There are sometimes to her size; denomina scriptions of persons in the latter, and the

In men-of-war, the But the master, or of ship, has certain mat carpenter, &c. have

The officers subst pany, were called 1st manders performing

adventure and oblige the ship to stop in her course; but neither of these events doth of itself alone make it necessary to sell the cargo at the place to which it may be proper for the ship to resort. In these and many other cases, the master may be discharged of his obligation to deliver the cargo at the place of destination; but it does not therefore follow that he is authorized to sell it, or ought to do so. What, then, is he to do? In general, it may be said, *he is to do that which a wise and prudent man will think most conducive to the benefit of all concerned.* In so doing, he may expect to be safe, because the merchant will not have reason to be dissatisfied; but what this thing will be, no general rules can teach. Some regard may be allowed to the interest of the ship, and of its owners; but the interest of the cargo must not be sacrificed to it. Trans-shipment for the place of destination, if it be practicable, is the first object, because that is in furtherance of the original purpose: if that be impracticable, return, or a safe deposit, may be expedient. A disadvantageous sale (and almost every sale by the master will be disadvantageous) is the last thing he should think of, because it can only be justified by that necessity which supercedes all human laws.—(*Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.)

The master of a ship is liable for goods of which she is robbed in part; and the reason, as Lord Mansfield stated, is, lest room should be given for collusion, and the master should get himself robbed on purpose, in order that he might share in the spoil. The master is, however, entitled to indemnify himself out of the seamen's wages for losses occasioned by their neglect.

If any passenger die on board, the master is obliged to take an inventory of his effects; and if no claim be made for them within a year, the master becomes proprietor of the goods, but answerable for them to the deceased's legal representatives. Bedding and furniture become the property of the master and mate; but the clothing must be brought to the mast head, and there appraised and distributed among the crew.

If a master die, leaving money on board, and the mate, becoming master, improve the money, he shall, on allowance being made to him for his trouble, account both for interest and profits.

No master is to proceed on any voyage for parts beyond the seas without previously coming to an agreement, *in writing*, with his mariners, for their wages. If he do so, he shall forfeit, for every mariner so taken without a written agreement 5*l.*—(2 *Geo.* 2. c. 36. § 1.)

The master of every vessel is required by the 2 *Geo.* 2. c. 36. to keep a regular account of the penalties and forfeitures due to Greenwich Hospital in consequence of the mariners' disobedience, to deduct the same from their wages, and to pay the amount thereof to the collector of the Greenwich Hospital duty, within 3 months after such deduction, upon pain of forfeiting treble the value thereof to the use of the said hospital.

Masters of vessels laden with coals are directed by 6 *Geo.* 4. c. 107. § 120. to produce to any officer of customs demanding its production, a copy of the certificate originally delivered to them by the fitters or vendors, and to deliver the certificate to the collector or comptroller of the port to which the coals are carried.

For the duty of the master, as respects Custom-house regulation, see the articles *IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, QUARANTINE, SMUGGLING, &c.*; and for a further discussion of this important subject, see the excellent work of *Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3. &c.; *Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 8. &c.; and the articles *CHARTERPARTY, FREIGHT, &c.* in this Dictionary.

MASTICH, OR MASTIC (Ger. *Mastix*; Du. *Mastik*; Fr. *Mastic*; It. *Masticca*; Sp. *Almastic, Almaciga*; Arab. *Arâk*). This resinous substance is the produce of the *Pistacia lentiscus*, a native of the Levant, and particularly abundant in the island of Chios. It is obtained by making transverse incisions in the trunks and branches of the trees, whence the mastic slowly exudes. About 1,500 cwt. are annually exported from Chios, part of which is brought to this country, packed in chests. The best is in the form of dry, brittle, yellowish, transparent tears; it is nearly inodorous, except when heated, and then it has an agreeable odour; chewed, it is almost insipid, feeling at first gritty, and ultimately soft; its virtues are trifling.—(*Ainslie's Materia Indica*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

MATE, in a merchant ship, the deputy of the master, taking in his absence the command. There are sometimes only 1, and sometimes 2, 3, or 4 mates in a merchantman, according to her size; denominated 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. mates. The law, however, recognises only 2 descriptions of persons in a merchantman—the master and mariners; the mates being included in the latter, and the captain being responsible for their proceedings.

In men-of-war, the officers immediately subordinate to the captain are called lieutenants. But the *master*, or officer whose peculiar duty it is to take charge of the navigation of the ship, has certain mates under him, selected from the midshipmen. The boatswain, gunner, carpenter, &c. have each their mates or deputies, taken from the crew.

The officers subordinate to the commander in the ships belonging to the East India Company, were called 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. officers. East Indians had no sailing masters, the commanders performing that duty.—(*Falconer's Marine Dictionary, &c.*)

MATS (Du. *Matten*; Fr. *Nattes*; Ger. *Matten*; It. *Sturje, Stoje*; Port. *Esteiras*; Rus. *Progoshki*; Sp. *Esteras*), textures composed, for the most part, of flags, reeds, the bark of trees, rushes, grass, rattans, old ropes, &c. In this country mats are used for a great variety of purposes. The coarser sort are very largely employed in the packing of furniture and goods; in the stowage of corn and various other articles on board ship; in horticultural operations; in covering the floors of churches and other public buildings, &c.: the finer sorts are principally employed in covering the floors of private houses.

In Europe mats are principally manufactured for sale in Russia, where they are produced in immense quantities, forming an article of very considerable value and importance. They are partly formed of flags; but principally of the inner bark of the lime or linden tree, the latter being known in this country by the name of *bast* mats. The Russian peasants manufacture this sort of material into shoes; and in consequence of the vast quantity of matting made use of in this way, and in shipments abroad, the destruction of the linden tree is immense; though, as it grows rapidly, there is probably less risk of its exhaustion than Mr. Tooke seems to have supposed.—(*View of Russia*, vol. iii. p. 262.) In 1832 above 840,000 pieces of mat were exported from Archangel only; and in addition to this there is a very considerable exportation from Petersburg, Riga, and other ports. Russian mats fetch at present (January, 1834), in the London market, 4*l.* 10*s.* per 100, duty (1*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* the 100) included. Mats not otherwise enumerated or described are subject to a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Various descriptions of reed mats are extensively manufactured in Spain and Portugal; some of them being very beautifully varied. In Spain large quantities of matting are made of the *esparto* rush.—(See *ESPARTO*.)

Rush floor mats, and rattan table mats of a very superior description are brought from China. They should be chosen clean, of a bright clear colour, and should, when packed, be thoroughly dry.

The mats of the Japanese are soft and elastic, serving them both for carpets and beds; they are made of a peculiar species of rush cultivated for the purpose.

The bags in which sugar is imported from the Mauritius consist of matting formed of the leaves of a tree growing in the island, interwoven in broad stripes. They are very strong and durable, and may be washed and cleaned without sustaining any injury. Being imported in large quantities, they are sold very cheap.—(Besides *Tooke's Russia*, already referred to, see *Milburn's Oriental Commerce*, and the valuable little work entitled *Vegetable Substances, Materials of Manufactures*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, pp. 116—123.)

It is probable that mats formed the first sort of wove fabrics produced by man; and it is worthy of remark that but few savage tribes have been discovered that have not attained to considerable eminence in their manufacture. On the coast of Guinea and other places on the west of Africa, pieces of fine mat, about a yard long, and of a pretty uniform texture, were denominated *mankutee*, and formed a sort of money; the value of commodities being rated and estimated in them!—(*Morellet, Prospectus d'un Dictionnaire de Commerce*, p. 122.) They enjoyed this distinction, no doubt, from their utility, and the great care and labour bestowed on their preparation. There is hardly an island in the South Seas in which the natives have not acquired great skill and dexterity in the making of mats. The finer sorts consist, generally, of dyed reeds or grass; and have a very brilliant appearance.

MAURITIUS. See **PORT LOUIS**.

MEAD, or **METHEGLIN** (Ger. *Mehl, Meth*; Du. *Meede, Meedrank*; Fr. *Hydromel*; It. *Idromele*; Rus. *Lipez*), the ancient, and for a long time, the favourite drink of the northern nations. It is a preparation of honey and water. Manufacturers of mead for sale must take out an annual licence.

MEAL (Ger. *Mehl*; Du. *Meel*; Fr. and It. *Farine*; Sp. *Farina*; Rus. *Muka*; Lat. *Farina*), the edible part of wheat, oats, rye, barley, and pulse of different kinds, ground into a species of coarse flour.

MEDALS, are pieces of metal, generally in the form of a coin, and impressed with some peculiar stamp, intended to commemorate some individual or action. Medals are of very different prices—varying according to their rarity and preservation, the fineness of the metal, the beauty of the workmanship, &c.

MEDITERRANEAN PASS. The nature of this sort of instrument has been described by Mr. Reeves, in his *Treatise on the Law of Shipping*, as follows:—

“In the treaties that have been made with the Barbary states, it has been agreed, that the subjects of the King of Great Britain should pass the seas unmolested by the cruisers of those states; and for better ascertaining what ships and vessels belong to British subjects, it is provided that they shall produce a *pass*, under the hand and seal of the Lord High Admiral, or the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. In pursuance of these treaties, passes are made out at the Admiralty, containing a very few words, written on parchment, with ornaments at the top, through which a scalloped indenture is made: the *scalloped tops* are sent to Barbary; and being put in possession of their cruisers, the commanders are instructed

to suffer all persons to pass the seas unmolested, as the law of nations afforded by the treaties, ever failing, as the Levant, Spain, and other parts, in need of them in. For the accommodation of the Admiralty, are granted to those who piece of security is of power, the entire registry, who, with the which these passes granted for none but of the mariners British in the sum of 300*l.* delivering up the passport to another; and “It has been found to recel and cancel. This has been done either accidental or carried on in security had been purchased. That the Barbary indenture to the passport subjects.”

The act 66 Geo. 3. c. 143. in the Mediterranean pass, as being an inhabitant of the port called to be an owner of such pass shall have resided in the port of 15 years previously.

An Account of the Am granted, the aggregate applied.—(*Parl. Pap.*)

No. of Passes.	
210	One voyage
242	Attached as the
200	Issued in and for
210	One voyage
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200	Issued in and for

The foregoing fees applied, as all other of the Admiralty Office.

MEMEL, a corner. Population 8,000. It is situated on the Currische pal entrepôt of the commerce.

Harbour.—The harbour seldom more than 16 feet water, where the anchorage is generally 75, but now about. The light, with miles distance. The lights from it, S. 35. E. north, and red on the lead directly into the both in depth and pilot; but this is not

to suffer all persons to pass who have passes that will fit these scolloped tops. The protection afforded by these passes is such, that no ships, which traverse the seas frequented by these rovers, ever fail to furnish themselves with them, whether in the trade to the East Indies, the Levant, Spain, Italy, or any part of the Mediterranean; and from the more particular deed of them in the latter, they, no doubt, obtained the name of *Mediterranean passes*. For the accommodation of merchants in distant parts, blank passes, signed by the Lords of the Admiralty, are lodged with the governors abroad, and with the British consuls, to be granted to those who comply with the requisites necessary for obtaining them. As this piece of security is derived wholly from the stipulations made by the crown with a foreign power, the entire regulation and management of it has been under the direction of his Majesty, who, with the advice of his privy council, has prescribed the terms and conditions on which these passes shall be granted. Among others are the following:—They are to be granted for none but British-built ships, or ships made free, navigated with a master and three of the mariners British subjects, or foreign protestants made denizens. Bond is to be given in the sum of 300*l.* if the vessel is under 100 tons, and in 500*l.* if it is that or more, for delivering up the pass within 12 months, unless in the case of ships trading from one foreign port to another; and such passes need not be returned in less than 3 years.

It has been found expedient, at the conclusion of a war, and sometimes during a peace, to recall and cancel all passes that have been issued, and to issue others in a new form. This has been done for 2 reasons. 1st, That these useful instruments, by various means, either accidental or fraudulent, came into the hands of foreigners, who, under the name of them, carried on in security a trade which otherwise would belong to British subjects, and which had been purchased by the crown, at the expense of keeping up this sort of impost. 2dly, That the Barbary states complained, that, adhering to the rule of fitting the other part of the indenture to the passes, they were obliged to suffer ships to pass that did not belong to British subjects.

The act 52 Geo. 3. c. 143. makes the forging of a Mediterranean pass felony without benefit of clergy. The 5 Geo. 4. c. 78. enacts, that no Mediterranean pass shall be issued for the benefit of any person as being an inhabitant of Malta or of Gibraltar but not being a person entitled to be an owner of a British registered ship, unless such person shall have resided at Malta or Gibraltar, respectively, upwards of 15 years previously to the 10th of October, 1837.

Mediterranean passes are either granted for 1 voyage, or are attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and are in force so long as the said certificate. A stamp duty of 2*l.* is charged on each pass so issued. When issued in the colonies, they continue in force for 12 months to colonial ships, and for 3 voyages to British ships supplied with them. The duty on such passes is 5*s.*—We subjoin

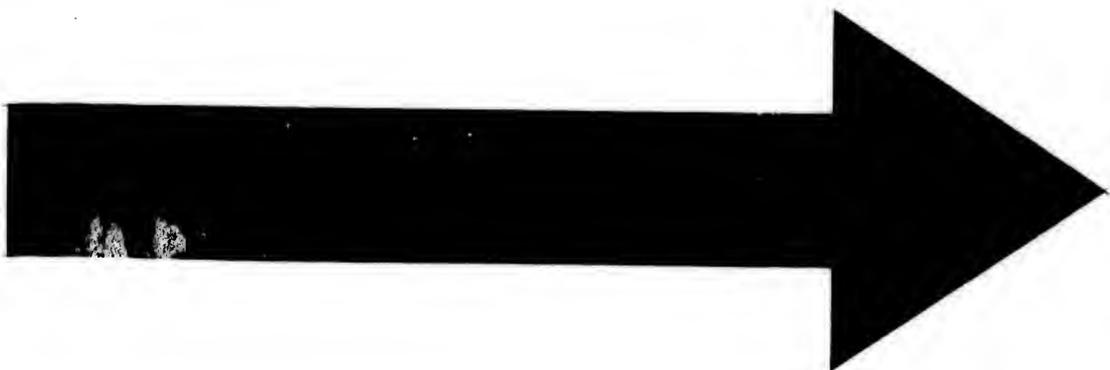
An Account of the Amount paid by Ships for the Mediterranean Pass; stating the Number of Passes granted, the aggregate Amount received in the Years 1823–9, and to what Purpose the same was applied.—(Parl. Paper, No. 132. Sess. 1830.)

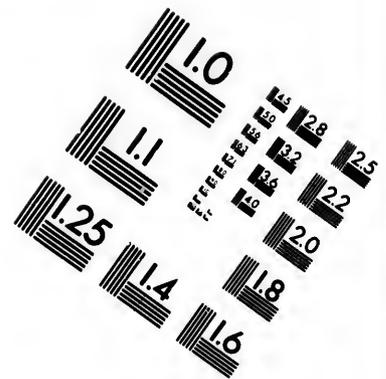
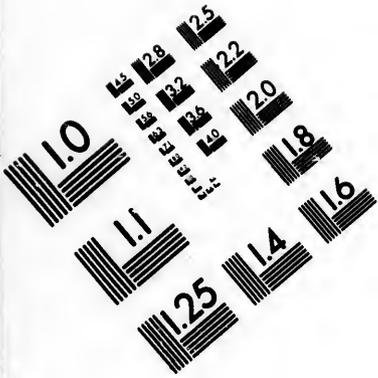
No. of Passes.	For what Time in Force.	Stamp Duty on each.		Aggregate Charge on each.	Total.
		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
1823.					
170	One voyage	2	0	0	340 0 0
242	Attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and in force so long as the said certificate	3	0	0	726 0 0
100	Issued in the colonies, and in force for 12 months in colonial ships, and for 1 voyage to British ships supplied with them	0	5	0	500 0 0
					2,745 10 0
					1,174 0 0
					1,571 10 0
1829.					
100	One voyage	2	0	0	200 0 0
330	Attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and in force so long as the said certificate	3	0	0	990 0 0
150	Issued in the colonies, and in force for 12 months to colonial ships, and for 1 voyage to British ships supplied with them	0	5	0	750 0 0
					2,745 10 0
					1,923 10 0
					1,880 0 0

The foregoing fees for Mediterranean passes, after deducting the sums paid for stamps, have been applied, as all other fees are, in aid of the sum voted on the navy estimate for the contingent expenses of the Admiralty Office.

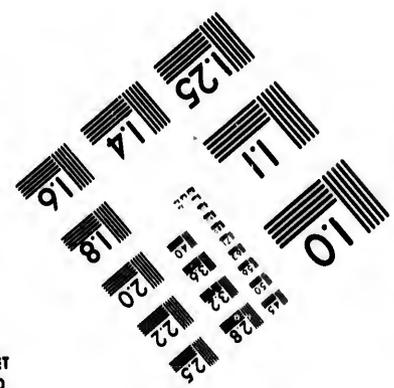
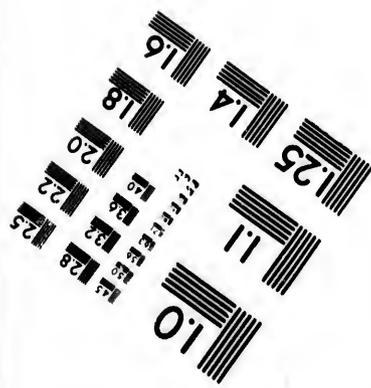
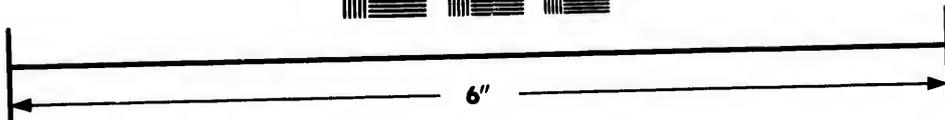
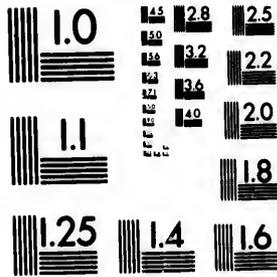
MEMEL, a commercial town of East Prussia, in lat. 55° 41' 42" N., lon. 21° 8' 14" E. Population 8,500. Memel is situated on the north-east side of the great bay, denominated the *Currische Haf*, near its junction with the Baltic. It is, consequently, the principal *entrepôt* of the country traversed by the Niemen, and as such enjoys a pretty extensive commerce.

Harbour.—The harbour of Memel is large and safe; but the bar at the mouth of the Currische Haf has seldom more than 17 feet water, and sometimes not more than 13 or 14 feet; so that ships drawing more than 16 feet water are frequently obliged to load and unload a part of their cargoes in the roads, where the anchorage is but indifferent, particularly when the wind is N. or N.W. A light-house, originally 75, but now 100 feet in height, has been erected on the N.E. side of the entrance to the harbour. The light, which is fixed and powerful, may be distinguished in clear weather at more than 20 miles distance. The outer buoy lies in 6 fathoms water, about a mile without the light-house, which bears from it, S.E. by E. 3 E. The channel thence to the harbour is marked by white buoys on the north, and red on the south side. Three beacons to the north of the town, when brought into a line, lead directly into the harbour. Inasmuch, however, as the channel is subject to frequent changes, both in depth and direction, it is always prudent, on arriving at the outer buoy, to heave to for a pilot; but this is not obligatory; and the Prussian authorities have issued directions for ships enter-





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There are 3 sulphurets of mercury; the black or *siklops mineral*, and the red or *cinnabar*. When mercury and sulphur are triturated together in a mortar, the former gradually disappears, and the whole assumes the form of a black powder, denominated *ehllops mineral*. If this powder be heated red-hot, it sublimes; and on a proper vessel being placed to receive it, a cake is obtained, of a fine red colour, which is called *cinnabar*. This cake, when reduced to powder, is well known in commerce by the name of *vermillion*. Cinnabar may be prepared in various other ways.

Calomel, or protochloride of mercury (*mercurius dulcis*), is the most useful of all the preparations obtained from it. It is in the form of a dull white, semi-transparent mass, having a specific gravity of 7.176. It is more generally employed, and with better effect, than almost any other remedy in the whole range of the materia medica.

Besides its uses in medicine, mercury is extensively employed in the amalgamation of the noble metals, in water-gilding, the making of vermilion, the silvering of looking-glasses, the making of barometers and thermometers, &c.

MILE, the usual measure of roads in England, being 8 furlongs, or 1,760 yards.

MILK (Fr. *Lait*; It. *Latte*; Lat. *Lac*), a fluid secreted by the female of all those animals denominated *mammalia*, and evidently intended for the nourishment of her offspring. The milk of every animal has certain peculiarities which distinguish it from all other milk. But the animal whose milk is most used by man, and with which, consequently, we are best acquainted, is the cow. The external character of all milk is that of a white opaque fluid, having a sweetish taste, and a specific gravity somewhat greater than that of water. When allowed to remain at rest, it separates into 2 parts; a thick whitish fluid called *cream*, collecting in a thin stratum over its surface, and a more dense watery body, remaining below. Milk which has stood for some time after the separation of the cream, becomes acidulent, and then coagulates. When the coagulum is pressed gently, a serous fluid is forced out, and there remains the caseous part of the milk, or pure cheese.

Butter, one of the most valuable animal products, is solidified cream, and is obtained artificially by churning.—(See BUTTER.)

Milk has always been a favourite food of most European nations, and especially of the British. *Lacte et carne vivunt*, says Cæsar of our ancestors; and the same articles still continue to form a large part of our subsistence. Mr. Middleton estimates (*Agricultural Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 419.), that, in 1806, no fewer than 8,500 milch cows were kept for the supply of London and its environs with milk and cream; and he estimates the average quantity of milk obtained from each cow at *nine quarts* a day, or 3,285 quarts a year, leaving, every deduction being taken into account, 3,200 quarts of marketable produce.

If Mr. Middleton be well founded in these estimates, we may reasonably calculate the number of cows that are at present kept in London and its environs at 9,000, and their annual produce at 28,800,000 quarts of milk. Now, as milk is sold by the retailers at 4d. a quart after the cream is separated from it, and as the cream is usually sold at 3s. a quart, and there is reason to suspect that a good deal of water is intermixed with the milk, we believe we should not be warranted in estimating that the milk, as obtained from the cow, is sold at less than 6d. a quart which gives 720,000*l.* as the total price of the milk consumed in the city and its immediate vicinity. If to this sum were added the further sums paid for cheese and butter, the magnitude of the entire sum paid in the metropolis for milk, and the various products derived from it, would appear astonishing.

MILLET (Ger. *Hirse*; Fr. *Millet*, *Mil*; It. *Miglio*, *Panicastrello*; Sp. *Mijo*; Lat. *Milium*, *Panicum miliaceum*). There are 3 distinct species of millet; the Polish millet, the common or German millet, and the Indian millet. It is cultivated as a species of grain; and is sometimes employed to feed poultry, and as a substitute for rice. The Indian millet grows to a large size; but the autumns in England are seldom dry and warm enough to allow of its being cultivated here.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*.)

MILL-STONES (Ger. *Mühlsteine*; Fr. *Pierres meulieres*; It. *Mole macine*; Sp. *Muelas de molino*; Rus. *Schernovoi kamen*), the large circular stones, which, when put in motion by machinery, grind corn and other articles. The diameter of common mill-stones is from 5 to 7 feet, and their thickness varies from 12 to 18 inches. These stones have been principally imported from Rouen and other parts of France; the burr-stones of that country being supposed more durable than our own. Mill-stones are, however, found at Conway, North Wales, and in some parts of Scotland, which are said to equal any imported from foreign countries. Good mill-stones usually last 35 or 40 years.

"Milo," says Mr. Urquhart, "abounds in admirable mill-stones, which I believe answer better than the French burr for the hard wheat of the Black Sea, as much preferred in the Levant to the soft, though not so in England, for want of proper stones. These stones, of full dimensions, might be shipped at Milo for 5*l.* or 6*l.* the pair. But were they brought here, they would be met with a duty of 1*l.* 8*s.* the pair, whereas French burrs, a pair of which cost 3*l.*, pay but 10*s.* the 100."—(*Turkey and its Resources*, p. 146.) This extraordinary difference in the duty depends on the stones being under or over 4 feet in diameter. Surely, however, if a duty must be laid on such an article as mill-stones, common sense would suggest that it should be charged according to their weight or cubic contents. Were it not for the absurd way in which it is imposed, it is probable that stones from Milo might be brought home as ballast in some of the Turkey ships, all of which, except those loaded with currants and grain, are light.

MINING COMPANIES. By this designation is commonly meant the associations formed in London, a few years ago, for working mines in Mexico and South America.

The *manis* for mining concerns, which regod in London and the empire generally in 1824

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1	1,200
2	118
3	41
4	206
5	137
6	975
7	30,420
8	1,994
9	417
10	2,203
11	23,725
12	37
13	61,411

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and 1825, after the opening of Mexico and other parts of Spanish America to our intercourse, forms a remarkable, and, we are sorry to add, disgraceful era in our commercial history. Now that the madness is past, we have difficulty in conceiving how men in the habit of sober calculation could be led to entertain such romantic expectations, and to pay such high premiums for shares in distant and uncertain undertakings. We may, therefore, be excused for appropriating a page or two to the history of an infatuation hardly second to that which led to the South Sea and Mississippi schemes.

The mining companies formed at the outset had some sort of basis for favourable expectations, their directors having made contracts for a number of mines in Mexico, described by Humboldt as having enriched many hundred families. This particularly applies to the Real del Monte Company, whose mines are situated in the mountainous district of that name; to the Anglo-Mexican Company, whose mines are at Guanaxuato, the principal mining quarter in Mexico; and to the United Mexican Company, whose contracts, though far too widely spread, comprise several valuable mines at Zacatecas, Sombretete, Guanaxuato, and other parts.

These associations were formed in London early in 1804, and during the spring and summer of that year their stock or shares bore only a small premium; but towards the winter it began progressively to rise, to the surprise of several of the directors; seeing that it arose less from any favourable intelligence of the mines (for the accounts from Mexico merely reported the arrival of the English agents) than from a blind ardour and spirit of speculation in the public,—a spirit which, seeing nothing tempting in our own funds, or in those of continental Europe, directed itself to distant objects, and particularly to Spanish America. It appeared as if our countrymen were about to reap an immediate harvest; to lay their hands on a treasure hid for ages. America, it was said, had been discovered, in one sense, above 3 centuries; but this was the true discovery,—the effectual access to its resources. Every new contract for a Mexican mine produced a rise in the shares of the companies, as if this fresh undertaking must necessarily be a source of profit to the others! And the result was, that in January, 1825, the premium on the shares of each of the companies mentioned above exceeded cent. per cent., although no substantial reason could be given for any advance whatever. It must not, however, be imagined that this rise of price was occasioned solely by the competition of individuals who intended to continue to hold stock, and to trust to the dividends made by the companies for a return. That this was the case in the first instance, is, speaking generally, true. But others, actuated by very different views, speedily entered the field. A peculiar combination of circumstances, at the head of which must be placed an almost incredible degree of ignorance and folly on the part of a considerable portion of the public, spread a spirit of gambling among all classes. Many who were most eager in the pursuit of shares, intended only to hold them for a few days or weeks, to profit by the rise which they anticipated would take place, by selling them to others more credulous or bold than themselves. The confidence of one set of speculators confirmed that of others. Meanwhile the public gullibility, or rather its indiscriminating rapacity, was liberally administered to. Company after company was formed without any previous contract; in other words, without any foundation whatever! The plan was to fix on a district in America understood to contain mines; to form a company bearing the name of such district; to obtain a first payment from the shareholders, and to send out agents, or commissioners, as they were termed, to survey the district and engage mines. Such was the case of most of those having the names of districts in South America, subjoined to the present statement: it was the case also of the Hispaniola or St. Domingo Company, formed on the basis of accounts given by Dr. Robertson of mines wrought in that island some 3 centuries ago! And yet lawyers, clergymen, and even the nobles of the land, were candidates for shares in these miserable bubbles, in the hope of finding (in which, luckily, most of them were disappointed) some dupe to buy their shares at a premium.*

As the year 1825 proceeded, the mania gradually declined, not from any falling off in the prospects of the companies, but from the supply of money in London. Speculative merchants had made immense importations of cotton, silk, wool, timber, and other articles; money was, of course, wanted to pay for these; the banks were drained; discounts became difficult; mining shares and South American stock were brought to sale; and the holders found, to their cost, that the public had recovered its senses. The panic in December, 1825, took place; and the shares of the 3 principal companies, some of which had been at a premium of 500 per cent., fell to par: that is, 100*l.* in money, and no more, could be got for 100*l.* of the company's stock! This price they maintained a considerable time, because most of the parties interested continued to have a favourable impression of the issue of their undertakings.

* Those who may be desirous of seeing the extent to which the public credulity was practised upon in 1824 and 1825, may consult a pamphlet published by H. English, broker, in 1827, which contains an account of all the joint stock companies formed and projected in these memorable years. It presents a most extraordinary picture. There were in all 74 mining companies formed and projected! The number and quality of the other schemes were similar. It is due to Mr. Hartley to say that he denounced the evil when in progress; and warned the unthinking multitude of the ruin they were bringing upon themselves; but to no purpose.

Demands, however shareholders felt alluded by the change so that 100*l.* stock destroyed, and the

Even these would not the directors be whatever had been shareholder each person, such instalment by the directors, and had advanced 50*l.* incur the forfeiture less degree; but to They raised the money, or prevailing as far as can yet be the lesson of the nature of a company not been, in general number of shares (200 or 300, and drew their whole property

The managers of they trespassed not little communication Old Spain having part of the civil wars and of way to this country the published account formed the chief authority on this instance, to have merchants knew geography of Mexico, and they had no idea of the amount of expenditure aware how little use mines, like every opal natives of Old Spain can succeed in the native Mexicans,—without any due sense men to drain the mine the use of which was and creating a great to the last and most silver from the ore, Germany during their by them in a very ruin the whole, or any thing was merely to cause to their people for a they (the Mexicans) resources, or had been

Actuated by these agents of the companies All the companies conducting them, for a they proceeded, supported in quantity, seldom tracing the silver from distance of the undertakings of the agents of the companies afford any great disappointments, to waive fair character and reputation. Hence the a

Demands, however, were made for additional sums to meet the expenditure abroad: the shareholders felt all the pressure of these demands, after their incomes at home had been reduced by the change of times: and in 1826 and 1827 mining shares progressively declined, so that 100*l.* stock fetched only 20*l.* or 25*l.* in money. The bubble companies were entirely destroyed, and the few only remained who had some foundation to stand upon.

Even these would have been relinquished, or have shrunk into very small dimensions, had not the directors been able to enforce further payments, by forfeiting, in default of such, whatever had been previously paid by the subscribers. The usage was, that on becoming a shareholder each person subscribed the deed of the company, engaging to pay, when called on, such instalments or sums to account (generally 10*l.* on each share) as should be required by the directors, until he had completed payment of the 100*l.* Now, a shareholder who had advanced 50*l.* or 60*l.* naturally consented to pay 10*l.* from time to time, rather than incur the forfeiture of all that he had paid. Those who held only a few shares felt this in a less degree; but to the holders of a number of shares, the grievance was most serious. They raised the money with great difficulty; often selling at a heavy loss their family property, or prevailing on relations to make them advances, to their great inconvenience, and, as far as can yet be seen, with very little prospect of a return from the mines;—a memorable lesson of the caution that should be exercised before signing any engagement in the nature of a company deed. Resentment would be excited against the directors, had they not been, in general, the heaviest sufferers: their regulations required them to hold a certain number of shares (perhaps 20 or 30); but in their blind confidence they frequently held 200 or 300, and drew on themselves a proportionate sacrifice; in several cases, the loss of their whole property.

The managers of the companies formed in the outset are chargeable with ignorance only: they trespassed not knowingly, but from want of information. There had till then been little communication between this country and Spanish America; the monopoly enforced by Old Spain having prevented it. Of the Spaniards settled in Mexico, and driven from it by the civil wars and consequent emancipation of the country, none, or almost none, found their way to this country; they repaired to Cuba, to the south of France, or to Spain. Nor were the published accounts of the country entitled to much confidence: Humboldt's *Travels* formed the chief authority; but their illustrious author, though generally cautious, seems, in this instance, to have placed too much confidence in vague exaggerated statements. Our merchants knew generally that silver mines formed a main branch of the productive industry of Mexico, and had enriched very many families originally in humble circumstances; but they had no idea of the extent of injury sustained by the mines during the civil war, nor of the amount of expenditure required to bring them into a working state: nor were they aware how little useful information could be expected from the natives; the working of the mines, like every operation requiring skill and intelligence, having been superintended by natives of Old Spain, who had either fallen in the civil war, or been expelled after the Mexicans succeeded in the contest. Hence, the agents of our companies found on the spot only native Mexicans,—men without education or experience in business, and, it must be added, without any due sense of the importance of candour or probity. They urged our countrymen to drain the mines, not by machinery, of which they had no idea, but by animal power, the use of which was of advantage to the Mexican landholders, by employing their horses, and creating a great consumption of maize, the principal grain of the country. Then, as to the last and most important stage in the business of mining,—the mode of extracting the silver from the ore,—the Mexicans, wholly unacquainted with the improvements made in Germany during the last half century, recommended amalgamation,—a process conducted by them in a very rude manner, and which, in most qualities of silver ore, fails to extract the whole, or any thing like the whole, of the metal. The object of the Mexicans, in short, was merely to cause English capital to be circulated among them; thus giving employment to their people for a time, and bringing the mines into an improved state,—in which state they (the Mexicans) might hope to resume them after our countrymen had exhausted their resources, or had become weary of their contracts.

Actuated by these views, the Mexicans pressed one undertaking after another on the agents of the companies, who were but too eager to enter on them without such incitement. All the companies fell into errors of the same kind, viz. engaging too many mines, and conducting them, for a time, as if their funds were unlimited. They reckoned on finding, as they proceeded, supplies in the produce of the mines; but that produce, though considerable in quantity, seldom yielded the expected result, owing to the very imperfect method of extracting the silver from the ore, as well as to the various disadvantages attendant on the vast distance of the undertakings from this country. These disadvantages were ill supplied by the agents of the companies. Mining in England is not conducted on a scale sufficient to afford any great choice of superintendents for mines abroad: it was necessary, in such appointments, to waive the qualification of mining knowledge, and to be satisfied with men of fair character and reputed ability in their respective professions, however different from mining. Hence the appointments, as agents, of several officers, naval and military, on the

half pay list; whose habits, whatever might be their personal merits, were very different from those required for such concerns. Mercantile men might have been more suitable; but a merchant fully employed in business was not likely to relinquish or suspend it; and those who in middle age are not fully employed, frequently are indebted for their leisure to vacillation, want of exertion, or deficient judgment. This suffices to account for the disappointments of the companies in a very material point—the conduct of their commissioners or agents abroad; for, of the whole number, it would be difficult to point out more than 2 or 3 entitled to the praise of judicious management. The same applied to most of the inferior employes,—to the practical miners, clerks, and mechanics.

The expense of conveying the requisite machinery from the coast of Mexico to the mining districts, generally at a great distance in the interior, absorbed much capital. The country has few practicable roads, draught carriages are almost unknown, and burdens are carried on the backs of mules and horses: add to this, that Mexico being under-peopled, labour is nearly as high in it as in the United States of North America; and the mechanical arts being in a manner unknown, all skilled workmen, such as carpenters, blacksmiths, and working engineers, had to be sent from England at a heavy expense.

Such were the chief causes of the failures of the Mexican mining companies; and several of these may be referred to one radical disadvantage—the non-existence of silver-mines in England. We have, in Cornwall and in North Wales, considerable mines of tin and copper, while in the northern counties we have mines of lead; but of silver we have none that deserve the name. How much better had it been had our countrymen set out with a consciousness that Germany is the only country in Europe, or, indeed, in the world, in which the treatment of silver ore is conducted on scientific principles! The Saxons at Freyberg succeed in extracting a profit from ore of very inferior quality, often worth only a fourth or fifth part of the ore raised in abundance by the Mexicans on account of our companies, but which, wrought by their crude, inefficient, and expensive process, fails to afford any thing like a satisfactory return. There seems no reason to doubt that the German process may be applied to silver ore in Mexico as in Europe: the difficulties arise, not from difference in the quality of the ore, but from the want of experienced smelters, and the general backwardness of the Mexicans in mechanics. A German mining company established in Mexico has not as yet succeeded; but they have had to contend with the same difficulties as the English companies, with the additional disadvantage of insufficient capital; so that their methods have not had a fair trial.

But though the companies were in all other respects successful, they have a serious drawback to contend with in the unsettled state of the country. No government has as yet been established in Mexico, or in any other of the newly constituted American states, with power sufficient to put down disturbances, or to enforce the observance of contracts. So long as the companies were struggling to put their mines into order, they seem to have sustained little inconvenience from the circumstances now mentioned; but the moment they had succeeded in bringing them once more into a productive state, and were beginning to have a reasonable prospect of obtaining some return for their enormous outlays, they were annoyed by questions as to title, and by the setting up of claims on the mines, of which they had never heard before. Recently, we understand, the claimants have occasionally had recourse to violence, and, in some instances, the companies' servants have been forcibly ejected from their works! We hope, though we can hardly say we believe, that these outrages may be repressed and punished. If they be permitted to continue, it is difficult to see how the companies, how well soever they may be otherwise established, can escape ruin.

Without, however, pretending to anticipate the result of these remote speculations, we shall conclude with a brief notice of the considerations on both sides of the question. The circumstances adverse to the success of mining companies in America, conducted for account of parties in England or in any part of Europe, are—

1. The various disadvantages of distant management. These are so many and so serious, as to admit of only one corrective,—selling the ore as soon as raised, and transferring to individuals, for their own account, the extraction of the metal, as is done in Cornwall, and, in a somewhat different manner, in Saxony. The ore also ought to be raised by paying the workmen, not fixed wages, but tributes or portion of the proceeds.

2. The half-civilized state of the inhabitants, their unsettled political condition, and the want of power or disposition on the part of the parties in power to make contracts be observed; and to hinder the former proprietors of the mines, or those connected with them, from setting up fictitious claims, and enforcing them by violence.

3. The high price of labour; the ignorance of the natives as to mechanics, and still more as to science. Hence the necessity of having artisans and confidential superintendents from Europe at a heavy expense.

On the other hand, the circumstances in favour of such undertakings are—

1. The abundance of silver ore, which is far greater than in any part of Europe.

2. The former success of mining in Mexico, under a system extremely rude and expensive, compared to that which is now followed in Germany.

3. The probability of continued peace in Europe, and of an abundance of monied capital; so that the failure of the present companies would not involve a relinquishment of their enterprises, any more than the failure of the first New River Company, about two centuries ago, implied an abandonment of their project. Succeeding adventurers might come forward, and pursue the same object on a more judicious plan, and with more ample funds.

4. The probability of Old Spain recognizing the independence of Mexico and the other new States; and of the governments becoming more powerful and disposed to do justice.

English Mining Companies
Capital Mexicana.
Real de Monte.
Mexican Anglo-Mexican.
The amount of capital in
£100,000 sterling.

Mining Companies connected
with
Anglo-Chilian.
Anglo-Peruvian.
Chilian.
Bolivian.
Chilian and Peruvian.
Guatimala.
Central South American.

No. of Shares.	Min.
14,000	Anglo-Mexican
2,000	Bolivian
10,000	Bolivian
10,000	British (new)
2,500	Do.
4,000	Do. (National)
20,000	British Iron
10,000	Colombia (new)
20,000	Guerrero Mining
1,200	Wiberman
11,000	Real del Monte
20,000	United Mexican
	Do. Scrip
	United Mexican
20,000	Mining Comp.
2,000	Brazilian, &c.
2,500	English Mining
6,150	Mexican Comp.

MINIUM, OR
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used in the arts.

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Arabia called Yemen
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and the fort to the so
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Money.—The curre
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15 Vakias = 1
40 Vakias = 1

There is also a sim

British Mining Companies connected with America, which are still carried on.

United Mexican.	Mexican.
Real del Monte.	Brazilian (two companies.)
Mexican Anglo-Mexican.	Columbian.

The amount of capital invested by these companies is about £2,000,000 sterling.

Mining Companies connected with America, formed in 1825, but long since dissolved.

Anglo-Chilian.	Gold Coast (Africa).
Anglo-Peruvian.	Pisco Peruvian.
Bolivian.	Peruvian.
Chilian.	Potosi La Paz.
Colombian and Peruvian.	Rio de la Plata.
Catalan.	Talipuzaba.
General South American.	United Pacific.

The sums raised by these companies were not large; in general only 5 per cent. on their proposed capital.

There were also various companies formed in 1825, for mining in England; they were to the number of 30 and upwards; but they proved in general abortions, with the exception of the British Iron Company (with works chiefly in Staffordshire), which has drawn a large sum from its shareholders.

The following extract from the Share List for the 12th of October, 1833, published by Mr. Edmonds, broker, gives an account of the existing mining companies; the number of shares in each; the sums paid on account of such shares; and their selling price, &c. It is an instructive commentary on the prospectuses and prices of 1825.

No. of Shares.	Mining Companies.	Amount of Share.	Average Cost.			Price per Share.			Dividend per Annum.			Dividend payable.
			L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.	
14,000	Anglo-Mexican	109	100	0	6	paid	12	0	0			
7,000	Bolazos	150	150	0	0		102	10	0			
10,000	Bolivas	50	20	0	0		18	0	0			
10,000	Brazilian (issued at 5s. premium)	36	25	0	0		58	0	0			Oct. Jan.
2,658	Do.	15	1	10	0		5	0	0			October.
4,000	Do. (National)	25	20	0	0		23	10	0			May, Nov.
20,000	British Iron	50	50	0	0		27	10	0			
10,000	Columbia (issued at 5s. premium)	66	61	10	0		12	15	0			
20,000	General Mining	20	11	0	0		8	0	0			
10,000	Hibernian	50	10	0	0		3	10	0			
11,588	Real del Monte mines, Mexican	64	64	0	0		55	0	0			
20,000	United Mexican	40	40	0	0		13	0	0			
	Do. Scrip	4	2	0	0		2	0	0			
	United Mexican do. (New)	4	6	0	0		16	0	0			
20,000	Mining Company, Ireland	25	5	10	0		1	5	0			
4,000	Brazilian, St. John del Rey	20	10	0	0		6	0	0			
2,500	English Mining Company	33	12	10	0		28	0	0			April, Oct.
6,155	Mexican Company	100	48	0	0		12	0	0			

MINIUM, or RED OXIDE OF LEAD, a tasteless powder of an intense red colour, often inclining to orange, and very heavy; its specific gravity being 8.94. It is extensively used in the arts.

MOCHA, the principal port in the Red Sea frequented by Europeans, in that part of Arabia called Yemen, about 40 miles to the north of the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb, lat. 13° 19' 30" N., lon. 43° 20' E. Population variously estimated; but may, perhaps, amount to from 5,000 to 7,000. It is encircled with walls, and indifferently fortified. Its appearance from the sea is imposing.

Mocha is situated on the margin of a dry sandy plain. It is built close to the shore, between 2 points of land which project and form a bay. Vessels drawing from 10 to 12 feet water may anchor within this bay at about a mile from the town; but large ships anchor without the bay in the roads, in 5 or 7 fathoms water—the grand mosque bearing E.S.E., and the fort to the south of the town S. by E., distant about two miles from the shore. The great article of export from Mocha is coffee, which is universally admitted to be of the finest quality. It is not possible to form any very accurate estimate of the quantity exported; but we believe it may be taken at 10,000 tons, or perhaps more. The greater portion is sent to Djidda and Suez; but there is a pretty large export to Bombay, and other parts of India, whence some is sent to Europe; occasionally, however, the exports from Mocha and Hodeida, direct for Europe, are very considerable. Besides coffee, the principal articles of export are, dates, adjuve, or paste made of dates, myrrh, gum Arabic, olibanum, senna (*caustia senna*), shanks' fins, tragacanth, horns and hides of the rhinoceros, balm of Gilead, ivory, gold dust, civet, aloes, sagapenum, &c. The principal articles of import are, rice, piece goods, iron and hardware, &c. The ivory, gold dust, and civet, met with at Mocha, are brought from the opposite coast of Abyssinia; whence are also brought slaves, ghee, &c.

The greater part of the foreign trade of Mocha is transacted by the Baniyas; and it is much safer to deal with them than with either Turks or Arabs. Europeans pay a duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* on all goods imported by them from Europe, India, or China; the duty being levied on the amount of the sales. The buyer pays brokerage, cooley and boat hire. All kinds of foreign goods are sold on credit, and the payment is made in 3 instalments, or at a certain day, according as may have been agreed on. Coffee is always paid for in ready money. On the sale of other goods, the produce of the country, a credit is given; or if ready money be paid, a discount is allowed at the rate of 9 per cent. When goods are discharging, the master must furnish the Custom-house officer with a manifest, or account of the marks, numbers, and contents of each package. He then opens two or three bales, taken at random; and if they correspond with the account delivered, no further examination is made; but if they do not correspond, the whole bales are opened, and double duty is charged upon the excess. The quantities being thus ascertained, their value is learned from the account of amins rendered by the seller, and the duty charged accordingly. In this respect there is nothing to object to at Mocha; but a good deal of extortion is practised in the exaction of port charges, presents, &c., which may, however, be defeated by proper firmness. The port charges on ships, or *three-mast* vessels, may amount to about 400 Mocha dollars, and those on brigs to about half as much. Provisions are plentiful and cheap; but water is dear: that in the vicinity being brackish and unwholesome, whatever is used for drinking, by all but the poorest persons, is brought from Mecca, about 20 miles off. Fish are abundant and cheap, but not very good.

Money.—The current coins of the country are carats and commassee; 7 carats = 1 commassee; 60 commassee = 1 Spanish dollar; 100 Spanish dollars = 12½ Mocha dollars.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are—

15 Vekias = 1 Rottolo = 1 lb. 2 oz. avoird.	10 Maunds = 1 Frazel = 30 lbs. avoird.
40 Vekias = 1 Meund = 3 lbs. avoird.	15 Frazels = 1 Bahar = 450 lbs. avoird.

There is also a small maund of only 30 vekias: 1 Mocha bahar = 16½ Bombay maunds; 1 Mocha

bahar = 13 Surat maunds = 15-123 seers. Grain is measured by the kella, 40 of which = 1 toman, about 170 lbs. avoirdupois. The liquid measures are 16 vakias = 1 nuseah; 8 nuseahs = 1 cadd, about 3 English wine gallons. The long measures are the guz = 25 English inches; the hand covid = 18 inches, and the long iron covid = 27 inches.

In compiling this article, we made use of *Milburn's Oriental Commerce*, and *Elmore's Directory*. Niebuhr has given a plan of the port of Mocha in his *Voyage en Arabie*, tome i. p. 348, ed. Amst. 1776. He has also given some details as to its trade in his *Description de l'Arabie*, p. 191. But the best account we have seen of Mocha is in *Hamilton's Account of the East Indies* (vol. i. pp. 40-52), an accurate and valuable work. Burchardt did not visit Mocha; which is much to be regretted.

MOGADORE, a sea-port town on the west coast of Morocco, lat. $31^{\circ} 50' N$, lon. $9^{\circ} 20' W$. Population about 10,000. It is indifferently fortified; the country in the immediate vicinity is low, flat, sandy, and unproductive. Water is scarce and rather dear; being either rain water collected and preserved in cisterns, or brought from a river about $\frac{1}{2}$ mile distant. The port is formed by a small island lying to the southward of the town; but as there is not more than 10 or 12 feet water in it at ebb tide, large ships anchor without, the long battery bearing E. distant $\frac{1}{2}$ mile. The city of Morocco derives its most considerable supplies of European articles from Mogadore, from which it is distant about 4 days' journey (caravan travelling). The principal imports are, English woollen and cotton stuffs and hardware, German linens, tin, copper, earthenware, mirrors, glass, sugar, pepper, paper, and a variety of other articles. The exports principally consist of sweet and bitter almonds, gum Arabic, and other gums, bees' wax, cow and calf skins, ivory, ostrich feathers, gold dust, olive oil, dates, &c.

Money.—Accounts are kept in nutkeels of 10 ounces; the ounce being divided into 4 blankels, and the blankel into 24 fluces. From their proportion to the Spanish dollar, the blankel may be valued at 1d., the ounce at 4d., and the nutkeel or ducat at 3s. 4d.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial pound is generally regulated by the weight of 30 Spanish dollars; and, therefore, 100 lbs. Mogadore weight, or the quintal, = 119 lbs. avoirdupois. The market pound for provisions is 50 per cent. heavier, or 1 lb. 12½ oz. avoirdupois.

The corn measures are for the most part similar to those of Spain, but there are considerable discrepancies.

The cubit, or canna, = 21 English inches, is the principal long measure.

The most ample details with respect to the trade of Mogadore, and the trade and productions of Morocco in general, may be found in *Jackson's Account of Morocco*, c. 6, 7, and 13; see also *Killy's Cambist*.

MOHAIR (Ger. *Mohr*; Fr. *Moire*; It. *Moerro*; Sp. *Mue*, *Muer*), the hair of a variety of the common goat, famous for being soft and fine as silk, and of a silvery whiteness. It is not produced any where but in the vicinity of Angors, in Asia Minor. The exportation of this valuable and beautiful article, unless in the shape of yarn, was formerly prohibited; but it may now be exported unspun. The production, preparation, and sale of mohair have long engrossed the principal attention of the inhabitants of Angora; and it used to form an important article of Venetian commerce.—It is manufactured into camlets and other expensive stuffs. Hitherto but little has been imported into England.—(See, for further particulars, *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. p. 463., where there is a figure of the goat; and *Urquhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 184.)

MOLASSES, or **MELASSES** (Fr. *Sirap de Sucre*, *Melasses*; Ger. *Syrup*; It. *Milazzo di zucchero*; Sp. *Miel de azucar*, *Chancaea*; Port. *Melasso*, *Assucar liquido*; Rus. *Patoka sacharnaja*), the uncrystallisable part of the juice of the sugar cane, separated from the sugar during its manufacture. It is of a brown or black colour, thick, and viscid; has a peculiar odour, and a sweet empyreumatic taste. Molasses imported from the West India colonies and the Mauritius is charged, on being entered for home consumption, with a duty of 9s. a cwt. It is not, however, used in its original state, but is purchased by the sugar-bakers, who, when it is of an ordinary degree of strength, extract from it a coarse, soft species of sugar called bastard, and treacle. But it is obvious, inasmuch as the duty on molasses is fixed, that the duty on the sugar extracted from it will vary indirectly according to the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains; and we understand that, in consequence, molasses is frequently imported so rich as to yield excellent crystallised sugar. We do not know whether the practice has been carried to such an extent as materially to injure the revenue; but it seems pretty clear that the duty ought to be made to depend, in part at least, on the quality of the molasses, or on the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains, as well as on the weight. It is difficult,—unless advantage has been taken of the way in which the duty is assessed, to elude the sugar duties,—to account for the increased importation of molasses.

About 8 gallons of proof spirit may, it is said, be obtained from a cwt. of molasses, such as has recently been imported; but this depends, of course, wholly on the richness of the molasses.

Part of the refuse that remains after refining muscovado sugar, is a sweet syrup, which, as well as the syrup that remains after boiling molasses to obtain bastard, is called treacle. But the treacle obtained from the former is always preferred to that obtained from the latter, and fetches 2s. per cwt. more.

Molasses is sometimes used in preparing the coarser sort of preserves; and on the Continent it is extensively used in the manufacture of tobacco.

Account of the Quantity
1790, with the Rates
(of Trade.)

Year.	Quantity Imported.	Cwt.
1800		28,091
1801		56,185
1802		76,990
1803		100,000
1804		120,000
1805		150,000
1806		180,000
1807		210,000
1808		240,000
1809		270,000
1810		300,000
1811		330,000
1812		360,000

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Vol. II.—R

Account of the Quantities of Molasses imported, exported, and entered for Home Consumption since 1800, with the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Produce of the Duty.—(Papers published by Board of Trade.)

Yr.	Quantity imported.		Quantity exported.		Quantity cleared for Consumption.		Duty on, from Foreign Parts.		Duty on, from British Possessions.		Nett Revenue.
	Cost.	Cost.	Cost.	Cost.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.			
1800	39,991	39,991	6,314	57,141	—	—	—	—	—	13,008	
1801	55,185	1,795	748	78,287	—	—	—	—	—	32,549	
1802	76,396	898	161,243	235,540	—	—	—	—	—	39,279	
1803	189,998	1,750	235,540	235,540	—	—	—	—	—	30,022	
1804	230,088	863	236,454	236,454	—	—	—	—	—	118,740	
1805	265,596	5,438	379,749	379,749	—	—	—	—	—	162,256	
1806	280,504	293	412,865	412,865	—	—	—	—	—	138,959	
1807	282,444	441	381,791	381,791	—	—	—	—	—	208,338	
1808	210,708	2,312	398,143	398,143	—	—	—	—	—	190,458	
1809	394,326	4,264	377,268	377,268	—	—	—	—	—	183,072	
1810	250,848	654	348,028	348,028	—	—	—	—	—	148,988	
1811	282,976	1,221	508,009	508,009	—	—	—	—	—	156,338	
1812	268,895	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	254,651	

In 1832, the consumption was, we understand, considerably larger. The imports of foreign molasses are quite inconsiderable.

MONEY. When the division of labour was first introduced, commodities were directly bartered for each other. Those, for example, who had a surplus of corn and were in want of wine, endeavoured to find out those who were in the opposite circumstances, or who had a surplus of wine and wanted corn, and then exchanged the one for the other. It is obvious, however, that the power of changing, and, consequently, of dividing employments, must have been subjected to perpetual interruptions, so long as it was restricted to mere barter. A. carries produce to market, and B. is desirous to purchase it; but the produce belonging to B. is not suitable for A. C., again, would like to buy B.'s produce, but B. is already fully supplied with the equivalent C. has to offer. In such cases—and they must be of constant occurrence wherever money is not introduced—no direct exchange could take place between the parties; and it might be very difficult to bring it about indirectly.*

The extreme inconvenience attending such situations must early have forced themselves on the attention of every one. Efforts would, in consequence, be made to avoid them; and it would speedily appear that the best or rather the only way in which this could be effected, was to exchange either the whole or a part of one's surplus produce for some commodity of known value, and in general demand; and which, consequently, few persons would be inclined to refuse to accept as an equivalent for whatever they had to dispose of. After this commodity had begun to be employed as a means of exchanging other commodities, individuals would become willing to purchase a greater quantity of it than might be required to pay for the products they were desirous of immediately obtaining; knowing that should they, at any future period, want a further supply either of these or other articles, they would be able readily to procure them in exchange for this universally desired commodity. Though at first circulating slowly and with difficulty, it would, as the advantages arising from its use were better appreciated, begin to pass freely from hand to hand. Its value, as compared with other things, would thus come to be universally known; and it would at last be used, not only as the common medium of exchange, but as a standard by which to measure the value of other things.

Now this commodity, whatever it may be, is *money*.

An infinite variety of commodities have been used as money in different countries and periods. But none can be advantageously used as such, unless it possesses several very peculiar qualities. The slightest reflection on the purposes to which it is applied, must, indeed, be sufficient to convince every one that it is indispensable, or, at least, exceedingly desirable. That the commodity selected to serve as money should, (1) be divisible into the smallest portions; (2) that it should admit of being kept for an indefinite period without deteriorating; (3) that it should, by possessing great value in small bulk, be capable of being easily transported from place to place; (4) that one piece of money, of a certain denomination, should always be equal, in magnitude and quality, to every other piece of money of the same denomination; and (5) that its value should be comparatively steady, or as little subject to variation as possible. Without the *first* of these qualities, or the capacity of being divided into portions of every different magnitude and value, money, it is evident, would be of almost no use, and could only be exchanged for the few commodities that might happen to be of the same value as its indivisible portions, or as whole multiples of them: without the *second*, or the capacity of being kept or hoarded without deteriorating, no one would choose to exchange commodities for money, except only when he expected to be able speedily to re-exchange that money for something else: without the *third*, or facility of transportation, money could not be conveniently used in transactions between places at any considerable distance: without the *fourth*, or perfect sameness, it would be extremely difficult to appreciate the value of different pieces of money: and without the *fifth* quality, or comparative steadiness of value, money could not serve as a standard by which to measure the value

* The difficulties that would arise on such occasions, and the devices that would be adopted to overcome them, have been very well illustrated by Colonel Torrens, in his work on the "Production of Wealth," p. 391.

of other commodities; and no one would be disposed to exchange the produce of his industry for an article that might shortly decline considerably in its power of purchasing.

The union of the different qualities of comparative steadiness of value, divisibility, durability, facility of transportation, and perfect sameness, in the precious metals, doubtless formed the irresistible reason that has induced every civilised community to employ them as money. The value of gold and silver is certainly not invariable, but, generally speaking, it changes only by slow degrees; they are divisible into any number of parts, and have the singular property of being easily reunited, by means of fusion, without loss; they do not deteriorate by being kept; and, from their firm and compact texture, they are very difficult to wear. Their cost of production, especially that of gold, is so considerable, that they possess great value in small bulk, and can, of course, be transported with comparative facility; and an ounce of pure gold or silver, taken from the mines in any quarter of the world, is precisely equal, in point of quality, to an ounce of pure gold or silver dug from the mines in any other quarter. No wonder, therefore, when all the qualities necessary to constitute money are possessed in so eminent a degree by the precious metals, that they have been used as such, in civilised societies, from a very remote era. "They became universal money," as M. Turgot has observed, "not in consequence of any arbitrary agreement among men, or of the intervention of any law, but by the nature and force of things."

When first used as money, the precious metals were in an unfashioned state, in bars or ingots. The parties having agreed about the quantity of metal to be given for a commodity, that quantity was then weighed off. But this, it is plain, must have been a tedious and troublesome process. Undoubtedly, however, the greatest obstacle that would be experienced in early ages to the use of gold and silver as money, would be found to consist in the difficulty of determining the degree of their purity with sufficient precision; and the discovery of some means by which their weight and fineness might be readily and correctly ascertained, would be felt to be indispensable to their extensive use as money. Fortunately, these means were not long in being discovered. The fabrication of coins, or the practice of impressing pieces of the precious metals with a stamp indicating their weight and purity, belongs to the remotest antiquity.—(*Goguet De l'Origine des Loix*, &c. tome i. p. 206.) And it may safely be affirmed, that there have been very few inventions of greater utility, or that have done more to accelerate the progress of improvement.

It is material, however, to observe, that the introduction and use of coined money makes no change whatever in the principle on which exchanges were previously conducted. The coinage saves the trouble of weighing and assaying gold and silver, but it does nothing more. It declares the weight and purity of the metal in a coin; but the value of that metal or coin is in all cases determined by precisely the same principles which determine the value of other commodities, and would be as little affected by being recoined with a new denomination, as the burden of a ship by a change of her name.

Inaccurate notions with respect to the influence of coinage seem to have given rise to the opinion, so long entertained, that coins were merely the signs of values! But it is clear they have no more claim to this designation than bars of iron or copper, sacks of wheat, or any other commodity. They exchange for other things, because they are desirable articles, and are possessed of real intrinsic value. A draft, check, or bill, may not improperly, perhaps, be regarded as the sign of the money to be given for it. But that money is nothing but a commodity; it is not a sign—it is the thing signified.

Money, however, is not merely the universal equivalent, or *marchandise banale*, used by society: it is also the *standard* used to compare the values of all sorts of products; and the stipulations in the great bulk of contracts and deeds, as to the delivery and disposal of property, have all reference to, and are commonly expressed in, quantities of money. It is plainly, therefore, of the utmost importance that its value should be preserved as invariable as possible. Owing, however, to improvements in the arts, the exhaustion of old mines and the discovery of new ones, the value of the precious metals is necessarily inconstant; though, if we except the effects produced in the 16th century by the discovery of the American mines, it does not appear to have varied so much at other times as might have been anticipated. Great mischief has, however, been repeatedly occasioned by the changes that have been made in most countries in the weight, and sometimes also in the purity, of coins; and since the impolicy of these changes has been recognised, similar, and perhaps still more extensive, disorders have sprung from the improper use of substitutes for coins. It is, indeed, quite obvious, that no change can take place in the value of money, without proportionally affecting the pecuniary conditions in all contracts and agreements. Much, however, of the influence of a change depends on its direction. An increase in the value of money is uniformly more prejudicial in a public point of view than its diminution; the latter, though injurious to individuals, may sometimes be productive of national advantage; but such can never be the case with the former.—(See my *Principles of Political Economy*, 2d ed. pp. 500—504.)

No certain estimate can ever be formed of the quantity of money required to conduct the business of any country; this quantity being, in all cases, determined by the value of no-

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they themselves, the services it has to perform, and the devices used for economising its employment. Generally, however, it is very considerable; and when it consists wholly of gold and silver, it occasions a very heavy expense. There can, indeed, be no doubt that the wish to lessen this expense has been one of the chief causes that have led all civilized and commercial nations to fabricate a portion of their money of some less valuable material. Of the various substitutes resorted to for this purpose, paper is, in all respects, the most eligible. Its employment seems to have grown naturally out of the circumstances incident to an advancing society. When government becomes sufficiently powerful and intelligent to enforce the observance of contracts, individuals possessed of written promises from others, that they will pay certain sums at certain specified periods, begin to assign them to those to whom they are indebted; and when the subscribers are persons of fortune, and of whose solvency no doubt can be entertained, their obligations are readily accepted in payment of debts. But when the circulation of promises, or bills, in this way, has continued for a while, individuals begin to perceive that they may derive a profit by issuing them in such a form as to fit them to be readily used as a substitute for money in the ordinary transactions of life. Hence the origin of bank notes. An individual in whose wealth and discretion the public have confidence, being applied to for a loan, say of 5,000*l.*, grants the applicant his bill or note, payable on demand, for that sum. Now, as this note passes, in consequence of the confidence placed in the issuer, currently from hand to hand as cash, it is quite as useful to the borrower as if it had been gold; and supposing that the rate of interest is 5 per cent., it will yield, so long as it continues to circulate, a revenue of 250*l.* a year to the issuer. A merchant who issues notes, coins, as it were, his credit. He derives the same revenue from the man of his written promise to pay a certain sum, that he could derive from the loan of the sum itself, or of an equivalent amount of produce! And while he thus increases his own income, he, at the same time, contributes to increase the wealth of the public. The cheapest species of currency being substituted in the place of that which is most expensive, the various coins are either used in the arts, or are exported in exchange for raw materials or manufactured goods, by the use of which both wealth and enjoyments are increased. Ever since the introduction of bills, almost all great commercial transactions have been carried on by means of paper only. Notes are also used to a very great extent in the ordinary business of society; and while they are readily exchangeable at the pleasure of the holder for gold, or for the precise quantities of gold or silver they profess to represent, their value is maintained on a par with the value of these metals; and all injurious fluctuations in the value of money are as effectually avoided as if it consisted wholly of the precious metals. In common mercantile language, the party who exchanges money for a commodity is said to buy; the party who exchanges a commodity for money being said to sell. Price, unless here the contrary is distinctly mentioned, always means the value of a commodity estimated or rated in money.—(For a further account of metallic money, see the article *COIN*; and for an account of paper money, see the article *BANKS*.)

MONOPOLY. By this term is usually meant a grant from the Crown, or other competent authority, conveying to some one individual, or number of individuals, the sole right of buying, selling, making, importing, exporting, &c. some one commodity, or set of commodities. Such grants were very common previously to the accession of the House of Stuart, and were carried to a very oppressive and injurious extent during the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The grievances became at length so insupportable, that notwithstanding the opposition of government, which looked upon the power of granting monopolies as a very valuable part of the prerogative, they were abolished by the famous act of 1624, the 21*st* of James I. c. 3. This act declares that all monopolies, grants, letters patent for the sole buying, selling, and making of goods and manufactures, shall be null and void. It excepts patents for fourteen years for the sole working or making of any new manufactures within the kingdom, to the true and first inventors of such manufactures, provided they be not contrary to law, nor mischievous to the state. It also excepts grants by act of parliament to any corporation, company, or society, for the enlargement of trade, and letters patent concerning the making of gunpowder, &c. This act effectually secured the freedom of industry in Great Britain; and has done more, perhaps, to excite the spirit of invention and industry, and to accelerate the progress of wealth, than any other in the statute book.

MONTEVIDEO, a sea-port, and the capital of the republic of Uruguay, on the north bank of the Rio de la Plata, lat. 34° 54' 11" S., long. 56° 13' 18" W. Population variously estimated; but may probably be about 12,000. The town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on a regular plan, and is well fortified. It has suffered much from the various plagues to which it has been subject during the last 30 years.

Montevideo is situated 2° 32' W. of Cape St. Mary, the northern limit of the embouchure of the Rio de la Plata. Vessels from the north bound to Montevideo generally make this cape, entering the river between it and the small island of Lobos, in from 14 to 17 fathoms. The course is thence nearly W. by the lile of Flores, on which is a light-house 112 feet above the level of the sea, with a revolving light-house, 475 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected on the summit of the Montevideo, and the town has its name. The latter is built on a projecting tongue of land, the port being on the S. side. This, which is the best on the La Plata, is a large circular basin open to the S. W.; ge-

nerally the water is shallow, not exceeding from 14 to 16 feet, but the bottom being soft mud, vessels are seldom damaged by grounding. It should, however, be observed that the depth of water in the harbour, as well as throughout the whole of the Rio de la Plata, depends very much on the direction and strength of the winds. The S. W. wind, called *pampero*, blows right into the bay of Montevideo with much force, not unfrequently causing a rise of a fathom or more in the depth of water. But it rarely occasions much damage to vessels properly moored with anchors to the S. W., S. E., and east to the N.—(*Blunt's American Pilot*, pp. 542—555; *Coulier sur les Phares*, &c.)

Montevideo has a considerable commerce. The great articles of export consist of animal products, or of hides, pork and beef, tallow, bones, grease, wool, &c. The imports principally consist of British cottons, woollens, and hardware, flour, wine and spirits, linens, sugar, tobacco, boots and shoes, salt, &c. The following tables give a view of the trade and navigation of Montevideo in 1854 and 1855.

Imports.—The entire value of the different articles imported into Montevideo, in 1854 and 1855, were estimated at 3,095,400 dollars. The quantities and value of some of the principal articles were as follow:—

					Value.
Flour	16,681 barrels				Dollars, 20,640
Rice	28,480 arrobas				61,200
Farina	55,328				20,000
Sugar	61,674				97,700
Brandy	2548 pipes, 7 barrels, 208 boxes				66,700
Cann	1,216 — 177 — 220 baskets				20,000
Wine, red	6,510 pipes, 1,628 boxes				Dollars, 100,620
Wine, white	765 — 228 — 76 baskets, 23 dozen barrels				41,245
Matto ^o	42,787 arrobas				221,700
Salt	Cadiz and Cape Verd 28,167, other places			Paraguay	7,500
Tobacco	Brazil 14,000 arrobas, Paraguay 1,454, North America				2,400
Raisins	178,864 yards and 151 pieces pelles				112,000
Shoes and shoes	7,558 dozen				79,200
Claps					64,200
English goods from the wreck of the "Carac"					30,000
Silk stuffs	7,974 yards, 8,230 yards, 25 pieces				27,100
Grey domestic	20,484 pieces, 4,860 yards				40,000
Ginghams	156,023 yards				6,000
Stockings	12,688 dozen cotton, 1,207 dozen silk, 620 dozen woollen				64,700
Shirtings	12,422 pieces				34,000
Handkerchiefs, shawls					27,000
Cloth	79,080 yards				7,000
Frisin	32,028 pieces				12,000
Tiles	201,000				12,000
Iron	4,139 quintals				13,700
Hardware	20,020 Brazil, 20,230 North America, 11,824 other places				23,000
Timber	12,728 France, 27,000 — — — — —			15,514	20,000
Furniture					6,200

Paraguay.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Montevideo in 1855.

	Ox and Cow Hides.		Horns.	Hair.	Wool.	Tallow.	Beef.	Grease.	Sheep Skins.	Horn Rins.
	No.	Value.								
January	38,712	5,120	54,070	1,644	4,290	6,616	21,590		1,798	10
February	4,332	5,400	18,000	798	3,040	15,513	110			
March	38,741	2,280	37,280	94	7,770	29,745	1,394		281	6
April	25,221	1,540	20,160	1,200	2,574	7,618	1,245		20	0
May	27,227	5,268	70,728	818	1,890	300	18,904		20	0
June	42,570	1,000	18,588	1,000	1,100	600	26,128		1,000	0
July	64,628	7,503	84,401	2,156	3,070	4,823	19,672		2,400	0
August	41,810	11,544	28,028	2,028	2,730	2,028	2,730		2,459	7
September	51,190	4,074	73,088	580	2,710	1,476	4,800		1,900	2,500
October	56,141	7,182	30,200	1,568	30	260	19,000		60	0
November	19,841	1,001	45,075	1,322	1,50	458	13,450		750	10
December	38,137	10,060	47,568	2,272	7,800	700	24,281		400	2,600
	420,800	56,422	548,888	17,070	23,696	32,710	198,774	6,741	14,867	1,571

A Statement of the Number of Vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, and the Total Invoiced Value of their Cargoes, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which arrived at and departed from the port of Montevideo in 1854.

Countries.	Arrived.				Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Departed.			
	Vessels.		Crews.	No.		Vessels.		Crews.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	No.	Tonn.				No.	Tonn.		
Great Britain	85	12,330	664	} £ 139,962	21	11,810	645	} £ 6125	
France	31	7,135	439		22	4,290	264		
United States	48	15,549	611		67	11,077	535		
Brazil	88	4,942	423		89	4,286	428		
All other nations									

DUTIES ON IMPORTS.

- In National or Foreign Vessels.
- Machinery, agricultural implements, instruments used in the arts and sciences, books, prints, and maps free.
 - Silk, raw and wrought, laces, blonds, gold and silver embroidery, watches, jewellery, silks, piques, plaster of Paris, coal, timber, cotton fringe, and woollen hoops 5 per cent.
 - Powder, pitch, tar, rosin, and naval stores 15 —
 - All raw materials, and manufactured articles, not included in the preceding enumeration 5 —
 - Sugar, Paraguay and China teas, cocoa, cassia lignea, and cinnamon, spices, drugs, and provisions in general 26 —
 - Furniture, pictures, looking-glasses, musical instruments, all sorts of carriages, carts, &c., and harness, saddles, horse's furniture (excepting horse cloths of the manufacture of the *Yajacani* pro-

DUTIES ON EXPORTS.

- In National or Foreign Vessels.
- Ox and cow hides, 2 reals, 25 centimos, for reconator of 1 dollar, and 1 per cent. consulado.
- Horse hides, 1 real for reconator, on valuations of 3 reals to be reconator each, and 1 per cent. consulado.
- All other produce of the country pays 4 per cent. on the net value, and 1 per cent. consulado.
- Gold and salt beef, pork, &c.; also all foreign goods that have paid the import duty, free.
- Jerked and salt beef, pork, &c.; also all foreign goods that have paid the import duty, free.
- Gold and silver, coined or in bullion, 1 per cent.
- Port Charges.—Tonnage from beyond sea, 3 reals. 1 real 1/2 per day.
- Freights, with pilot 3 dollars. 1 dollar.
- Boat 2 —
- Without pilot 4 —

DUTIES ON IMPORTS.

In National or Foreign Vessels, which pay 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado, on the net value, and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in bulk, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in casks, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in bottles, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in cases, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in boxes, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in kegs, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in barrels, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in casks, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in bottles, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in cases, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in boxes, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in kegs, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

Wine, when in barrels, 16 per cent. duty and 1 per cent. consulado.

We are indebted for the republic of Uruguay, MOROCCO, on Marroqui; Rue. S. from the Levant, Barb extensively used in the (MOULMEIN, on British prov. Martaban, town of Martaban, on serves as a natural bre the thrown in from the N. long. 97° 38' E. Campbell as eligible a above the level of the mountains. Its po promises to become a timber and rice; but th crutch, cocoa-nut, &c. wine stores. The princ Madras, Rangoon, and Ship-building is carried population; but, proba (Maulmain Chronicle) a week:—

"In order to exhibit, at place the totals to and

	Total
Cochin	
India	
Brill	
Bay	
Transver Coast	
Other Ports	
Total	

"From this it will appear two tax and a half. Am spirituous liquors, and ar the staple productions c that five laces of rupees were added, what does not a films, for the purchase of we think, be improper to is at the several dock yards.

Vessels launched	No.	Tonnage.	Estimated Value.
Ditto fitted for sea	9	2500	250,000
			125,000
Total			Rs. 375,000

"We are not aware that the mode in which our statements are drawn up requires any particular explanation. The word "Sundries" may be, perhaps, thought too comprehensive, but we have divided it among articles of European, Indian, Chinese, and Birmese produce or manufacture. "The following is a statement of the imports into Maulmain from the neighbouring Shoo States during 1837:—

	No.	Value.
Elephants	68	13,500
Ponies	146	17,500
Hutches	99	980
Cows and bullocks	3480	45,000
Sundries		4,500
		Rs. 81,910

"Of the exports to these states, we can procure no detailed statement. Little else, however, is taken to them from hence but piece goods, either European or native; the value of which may, perhaps, be estimated at about 60,000 rupees.

"Taking, then, into consideration the various items above alluded to, and which are not brought into our statements, we shall have the following as the amount of imports and exports for the year 1837:—

Imports	Rs. 20,02,275	Exports	Rs. 11,03,410
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MUNJEET, a species of *Rubia tinctorum*, or madder, produced in Nepal and in various districts of India. That which is brought to England is imported from Calcutta, and is cultivated in the high lands about Natpore in Purneah. The roots are long and slender, and when broken appear of a red colour. It is used in dyeing; the red which it produces being, though somewhat peculiar, nearly the same as that produced by European madder. Dr. Bancroft says, that the colour which it imparts to cotton and linen is not so durable as that of madder; but that upon wool or woollen cloth its colour is brighter and livelier; and, when proper mordants are used, nearly, perhaps quite, as permanent.—(*Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. p. 270.) The best munjeet is in pieces about the bigness of a small quill, clean and firm, breaking short, and not pipy or chafy. Its smell somewhat resembles liquorice root.

Being a very bulky article, as compared with its value, the freight adds greatly to its cost. The reasons to be the principal reason of its being so very little used in Great Britain, that the entire imports, during the 3 years ending with 1832, amounted to only 3,897 cwt. In 1824, 4,023 cwt. was imported; this increased importation being accounted for by the then comparatively low rate of freight.—(*Parl. Papers*, No. 22. Sess. 1830, and No. 425. Sess. 1833.) The brokers estimate that the per ton of freight is equal to 11s. 1d. per cwt. on the value of the article; 5s. per ton being equal to 13s. 10d.; 6s. to 16s. 7d.; and 7s. to 19s. 3d.; and as the price of munjeet in bond varies from 20s. to 25s. a cwt., it is plain it cannot be imported in any considerable quantity; except when freights are very much depressed. It is mostly imported in small packets or bundles of 600 or 800 to the ton; but sometimes it is packed in bales like cotton.

MUSCAT, a city and sea-port situated on the east coast of Arabia, about 96 miles N.W. of Cape Rasselgate (Ras-el-had), in lat. 23° 38' N., lon. 58° 37' E. Population uncertain; but estimated by Mr. Fraser at from 10,000 to 12,000; of these 1,000 may be Hindoos from Sindh, Cutch, and Guzerat, the rest being Arabs and negro slaves. The latter are numerous, and are generally stout, well made, and active.

The harbour, which is the best on this part of the Arabic coast, opens to the north, and is shaped like a horse-shoe. It is bounded on the W. and S. by the lofty projecting shores of the mainland, and on the E. by Muscat Island, a ridge of rocks from 200 to 300 feet high. The town stands on a sandy beach at the south end of bottom of the cove or harbour, about 1½ mile from its mouth. The depth of water near the town varies from 3 to 4 and 5 fathoms. Ships at anchor are exposed to the north or north-west winds; but as the anchorage is every where good, accidents are of very rare occurrence. The harbour is protected by some pretty strong forts. Vessels are not allowed to enter after dark, nor to leave before sunrise. If the usual signal be made for a pilot, one will come off, but not otherwise. It is best to make them attend till the vessel be secured, as they have excellent boats for carrying out warp anchors.

Muscat is a place of considerable importance, being at once the key to, and commanding the trade of, the Persian Gulf. The dominions of the Imam, or prince, are extensive, and his government is more liberal and intelligent than any other in Arabia or Persia. The town, situated at the bottom of a high hill, is ill-built and filthy; and, during the months of July and August, is one of the hottest inhabited places in the world. The country in the immediate vicinity of the town is extremely barren; but it improves as it recedes from the shore. Dates and wheat, particularly the first, are the principal articles of produce. The dates of this part of Arabia are held in high estimation, and are largely exported, those of Bushire and Bussorah being imported in their stead. A date tree is raised at from 7 to 10 dollars, and its annual produce at from 1 to 1½ dollar. An estate is said to be worth 2,000, 3,000, or 4,000 date trees, according to the number it possesses.

But the place derives its whole importance from the commerce and navigation of which it is the centre. The Imam has some large ships of war, and his subjects possess some of the finest trading vessels to be met with in the Indian sea. The port of Arabia adjoining to Muscat is too poor to have any very considerable direct trade; but owing to its favourable situation, the backward state of the country round the Persian Gulf, and the superiority of its ships and seamen, Muscat has become an important entrepôt, and has an extensive transit and carrying trade. Most European ships bound for Bussorah and Bushire touch at it; and more than half the trade of the Persian Gulf is carried on ships belonging to its merchants.—(See *Bussorah*.) But, exclusive of the ports on the gulf, and the south and west coasts of Arabia, ships under the flag of the Imam trade to all the ports of British India, to Singapore, Java, the Mauritius, the east coast of Africa, &c. The port trade of the Persian Gulf is now, also, wholly centered at Muscat. All merchandise passing up the gulf on Arab boats, pays a duty of 1 per cent to the Imam. He also rents the islands of Ormuz and Kishnee, the port of Gumbroon, and some sulphur mines from the Persian government.

In the magazines of the Persian Gulf. Val the internal consumption of cotton and cotton cloth. Bussorah, &c. Payne various descriptions, to ban, to Tranquebar, dr The markets of Musc qualities of good qual with the greatest varie such a manner that the abundant, and is cheap Mohammedans pay a cent.

Money, weights, and noody; and 30 marmos German crowns, and they are generally sold The weights are, the Neibuhr thinks, that (*Voyage en Arabie*, vol. by the resemblance of descriptive of Muscat p the same appearance subject, is inclined to p *Asiatique*, vol. ii. pp. 34 Hamilton's *New Accou Mithran's Orient. Com. Gulf*.)

MUSK (Fr. *Mus Muscus*; Arab, and inhabiting the Alpin under the belly. M from grittiness when and extremely power deep brown, with a s taining from '60 to baser sort from Rus very high-priced arti blood may be discove a dark, highly colour long texture, and is f allowed to a ton. It the East India Com *Milburn's Orient. C musk*, from all place amounted to 4,965 o

MUSLIN (Ger. *lina*; Sp. *Moselina* given to it in India, with a downy nap o now they are manuf ness and durability v by cheaper.—(See

MUSTARD (Ger. *Gortschiza*; Lat. *S several species, a cultivated in Durhar pally raised in the n and being manufactu mustard. Two qua portance in the mat ever, known, in its merely pounded in pared for use. But, ments, residing in D way that flour is tr proved by George I considerable time, a tries, mustard is ext*

—(*Bailey's Survey* **MYROBALANS** and other parts of I of olives to that of

In the magazines of Muscat may be found every species of produce imported into, or exported from the Persian Gulf. Various articles are also imported for the use of the surrounding country, and for the internal consumption of Arabia. Among these, the principal are rice, sugar, coffee from Mocha, cotton and cotton cloth, cocoa nuts, wood for building, slaves from Zanguebar, dates from Bushire and Bussorah, &c. Payment for these is chiefly made in specie and pearls; but they also export drugs of various descriptions, ivory, gums, hides, hairich feathers, horses, a sort of earthen jars, called marubans, to Tranquebar, dried fish, an esteemed sweetmeat called *Audooah*, and a few oilier articles.

The markets of Muscat are abundantly supplied with all sorts of provision. Beef, mutton, and vegetables of good quality may be had at all times, and reasonably cheap. The bay literally awarms with the greatest variety of most excellent fish. Water is excellent, and is conveyed to the beach in such a manner that the casks of a vessel may be filled in her boats while afloat. Fire-wood is also abundant, and is cheaper than at Bombay.

Mohammedans pay a duty of $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on imports and exports; and all other nations pay 5 per cent.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts here are kept in goz and mamoodies: 20 goz = 1 mamoodie; and 20 mamoodies = 1 dollar. All Persian, Turkish, and Indian coins, as well as French and German crowns, and Spanish dollars, are met with: their value fluctuating with the demand; and they are generally sold by weight.

The weights are, the *cuchas* and *maund*; 24 *cuchas* = 1 *maund* = 8 lbs. 12 oz. *svoldrupis*. Neibuhr thinks, that Muscat occupies the site of the Mosca of Arrian and other Greek writers—(*Popoge in Arabia*, vol. ii. p. 71 ed. Amst. 1780.); a conjecture which seems to be confirmed, not merely by the resemblance of the name, but also by the terms applied by Arrian to Mosca being sufficiently descriptive of Muscat; and as the port is bounded on all sides by rocks, it must now present almost the same appearance as in antiquity. Dr. Vincent, however, though he speaks doubtfully on the subject, is inclined to place Mosca to the west of Cape Rasselgate.—(*Commerce and Navigation of the Acetate*, vol. ii. pp. 344—347. For further particulars, besides the authorities above referred to, see Hamilton's *New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 63; *Frazer's Journey to Khorasan*, pp. 5—19; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*, &c. The longitude given above is that of *Arrowsmith's Chart of the Persian Gulf*.)

MUSK (Fr. *Musc*; Ger. *Bisam*; Du. *Muskus*; It. *Muschio*; Sp. *Aimizete*; Rus. *Muscus*; Arab. and Pers. *Mishk*) is obtained from a species of deer (*Moschus moschiferus*) inhabiting the Alpine mountains of the east of Asia. The musk is found in a small bag under the belly. Musk is in grains concreted together, dry, yet slightly unctuous, and free from greyness when rubbed between the fingers or chewed. It has a peculiar, aromatic, and extremely powerful and durable odour; the taste is bitterish and heavy; and the colour deep brown, with a shade of red. It is imported into England from China, in caddies containing from 60 to 100 oz. each; but an inferior kind is brought from Bengal, and a still baser sort from Russia. The best is that which is in the natural follicle or pod. Being a very high-priced article, it is often adulterated. That which is mixed with the animal's blood may be discovered by the largeness of the lump or clots. It is sometimes mixed with a dark, highly coloured, friable earth; but this appears to the touch to be of a more crumbling texture, and is harder as well as heavier than genuine musk. 20 cwt. of musk are allowed to a ton. It is not permitted to be brought home in the China ships belonging to the East India Company, but may be imported in others.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*) At an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the imports of musk, from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, with the exception of China, amounted to 4,965 oz. a year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Seas. 1833.)

MUSLIN (Ger. *Musselin*, *Nesseltuch*; Du. *Neteldoek*; Fr. *Mousseline*; It. *Moussolina*; Sp. *Moselina*; Rus. *Kissea*), is derived from the word *mousale* or *mouseln*, a name given to it in India, where large quantities are made. It is a fine thin sort of cotton cloth, with a downy nap on the surface. Formerly all muslins were imported from the East; but now they are manufactured in immense quantities at Manchester, Glasgow, &c. of a fineness and durability which rival those of India, at the same time that they are very considerably cheaper.—(See *COTTOX*.)

MUSTARD (Ger. *Mustert*, *Senf*; Fr. *Moutarde*; It. *Mostarda*; Sp. *Mostaza*; Rus. *Gurtsehiza*; Lat. *Sinapis*; Arab. *Khirdal*; Hind. *Rai*), a plant (*Sinapis*) of which there are several species, some of them indigenous to Great Britain. It was formerly extensively cultivated in Durham, but it is now seldom seen in that country. At present it is principally raised in the neighbourhood of York, and throughout other parts of the North Riding; and being manufactured in the city of York, is afterwards sold under the name of Durham mustard. Two quarters an acre are reckoned a good crop. Mustard is of considerable importance in the materia medica, and is extensively used as a condiment. It was not, however, known, in its present form, at our tables, till 1720. The seed had previously been merely pounded in a mortar, and in that rude state separated from the integuments and prepared for use. But, at the period referred to, it occurred to a woman of the name of Clements, residing in Durham, to grind the seed in a mill, and to treat the meal in the same way that flour is treated. Her mustard was, in consequence, very superior; and, being approved by George I., speedily came into general use. Mrs. Clements kept her secret for a considerable time, and acquired a competent fortune. In Bengal, and other Eastern countries, mustard is extensively cultivated, as rape is in Europe, for the purpose of yielding oil.—(*Bailey's Survey of Durham*, p. 147.; *Loudon's Ency. of Agric.*)

MYROBALANS, are dried fruits of the plum kind, occasionally brought from Bengal and other parts of India. There are said to be 5 different species. They vary from the size of olives to that of gull nuts; have an unpleasant, bitterish, austere taste; produce, with

trade with Japan in 1825; the ships employed being one of 600, and one of 700 tons burden. The trade is exclusively carried on with the port of Batavia.

Exports to Nangasacki.			Imports from Nangasacki.		
Articles.	Value.	Florins.	Articles.	Value.	Florins.
Sandal wood, 100 piculs	1,187 do.		Camphor, 720 piculs		69,130
Sassa wood, 1,187 do.			Copper*, 10,745 do.		617,468
Bull's hide, 500 in number		3,247	Copper, 450 piculs		17,748
De. hair, 4,320 lbs.		3,224	Cotton cloth		18,878
Malay gambier, 61 lbs.			Medicine		2,270
Java mats, 285 in number			Provisions		3,327
Coco nut oil, 84 piculs		18,998	Silk in and egg		14,233
Clare, 118 do.		104,928	Wheat, 207 bags		3,156
Tea, 4,991 do.		18,200	Silks		31,600
Ta, 330 do.		80,896	Sundries		26,089
Beal's piece goods		2,350			
Hatters and porcelain		1,400			
Jewellery		3,748			
Glass ware		75,909			
Netherlands broad cloths		4,793			
Lard, 147 piculs		91,323			
Netherlands cotton goods					
Medicine and sundries					
Total value of export cargoes	F.	273,832	Total value of import cargoes	F.	829,492
Or, at 12 P. per L.	L.	31,164 £ 4	Or, at 12 P. per L.	L.	72,731 10 0

We may take this opportunity of stating that the least authentic account we have of any British vessel attempting to carry on an intercourse with Japan, was that of a ship commanded by Captain Gordon, which touched at the entrance of the bay of Jeddo, in 1818, in a voyage from Calcutta to Ochotsk. Captain Gordon remained at anchor 8 days, waiting the receipt of instructions from the capital, Jeddo, at the head of the bay, distant about 100 miles. He requested leave to return next year for the purpose of carrying on a trade, which in civil but peremptory terms was refused. During the ship's stay, she was closely watched by an immense police force, but liberal offers were made of supplies. The officers would permit no species of trade to be carried on, for which, however, the people evinced the greatest possible desire, admiring the broad cloths, calicoes, and other European articles which were shown them. The ship was visited by some thousand natives, chiefly from curiosity. Captain Gordon thinks that a contraband trade, similar to that conducted by the European nations off the mouth of the Canton river, may be successfully carried on with Japan.—(Kempfer's History of Japan, vol. i. p. 310—335; Krusenstern's Voyage round the World, vol. i. p. 201. English translation; Crawford's Indian Archipelago, vol. iii. p. 307; Evidence of John Down, Esq., Private Report of the Select Committee in the Affairs of the East India Company, 1830, p. 342; Personal communications from Capt. P. Gordon.)

Money—Accounts are kept in taels, mace, and candarines; 10 candarines make 1 mace, and 10 mace 1 tael. The Dutch reckon the Nangasacki tael at 3 1/2 Florins, equal to about 6s. 2d. The gold coin current are the new and old Jihin and cobangs, or copangs; the silver coins are the sandalvins, itapanes, and kodamas. They are in general very simple, struck plain, and unadorned, the greater part of them without any rim round the margin, and most of them without any defined value. For this reason they are always weighed by the merchants, who put their chop or stamp upon them, to signify that the coin is standard weight and unadulterated.

The new mabags are oblong, rounded at the ends, and flat, about 1/2 inch broad, scarcely thicker than an English farthing, of a pale yellow colour; the die on one side consists of several cres (lines ranged) and at both ends there is a rectangular figure, with raised letters on it, and besides a moonlike figure, with a flower on it in the middle. On the other side is a circular stamp with raised letters on it; and within the margin, towards one end, two smaller sunk stamps with raised letters, which are different on each cobang; they are reckoned at 60 mace. There are old cobangs occasionally met with, which are of fine gold, somewhat broader than the new.

The old cobangs weigh 37 1/2 Dutch mace, or 27 1/2 English grains, and the gold is said to be 22 carats fine, which would give 44c. 7d. for the value of the old cobang. But the Japanese coins are reckoned at Jihin only 87 touch, which is 30 2/3 carats; this reduces the old cobang to 4s. 10d. The new cobangs weigh 140 grains; the gold is about 17 carats fine, and the value is 21s. 3d. The oban is thrice the value of the cobang.

The Jihin is called by the Dutch golden bean, and is made of pale gold, of a parallelogramical figure and flat, rather thicker than a farthing, with many raised letters on one side, and two figures or flowers in relief on the other; the value of this is 1-4 of a cobang. There are old Jihin also to be met with; these are thicker than the new ones, and its value is 2 mace 5 candarines.

Nandrin is a parallelogramical fine silver coin, of twice the thickness of a halfpenny, 1 inch long, and 1/2 inch broad, and formed of silver. The sides are stamped with stars, and within the edges are raised dots. One side is marked all over with raised letters; and the other, on its lower and larger moiety, is filled with raised letters, and in some time exhibits a double moonlike figure. Its value is 1 mace 1 candarine.

Itapanes and kodama are denominations by which various tumps

of silver, without form or fashion are known, which are neither of the same size, shape, nor value. The former of these, however, are oblong, and the latter roundish, for the most part thick, but sometimes, though seldom, flat. These pass in trade, but are always weighed in payment from one individual to another, and have a dull leaden appearance.

Beni is a denomination applied to pieces of copper, brass, and iron coin, which bear a near resemblance to our old farthings. They differ in size, value, and external appearance, but are always cast, and have a square hole in the middle, by means of which they may be strung together; and likewise have always broad edges. Of these are current silver coins, of the value of 4 common ones, made of brass, and almost as broad as a halfpenny, but thin. The common ones are the size of a farthing, and made of red copper; 60 of them make a mace. Doos seni is a cast iron coin in appearance like the last, of the same size and value, but is so brittle, that it is easily broken by the hand, or breaks in pieces when let fall on the ground.

The seni are strung 100 at a time, or, as is most commonly the case, 95 on a rube. The coins in one of these parcels are seldom all of one sort, but generally consist of 2, 3, or more different kinds; in this case, the larger ones are strung on first, and then follow the smaller; the number diminishing in proportion to the number of large pieces in the parcel, which are of greater value than the smaller.

The schull is a silver piece, of 4 oz. 15 dwt. 16 grs. Troy, and is 1 1/2 in. long, which gives it value 11. 6s. 3d. The name is Dutch, referring, probably, to its shape, like a boat.

Wrijgits.—These are the candarine, mace, tael, catty, and picul, thus divided:—

10 candarines	}	1 mace,
10 mace		1 tael,
10 tael		1 catty,
100 catties	}	1 picul,

The picul = 125 Dutch pounds, or 133 1/3 lbs. avoirdupois. It is, however, said to weigh only 120 lbs.

Masures.—The measures of Japan are estimated by two measures of rice, the man and kufi; the former contains 10,000 kufis, each 3,100 bales or bags of rice.

The long measure is the bu, which is about 4 Chinese cubits, or 6 1/2 feet English nearly; and 2 1/2 Japanese leagues are computed to be about 1 Dutch league.—(Milburn's Oriental Com.)

NANKEEN, or NANKIN (Ger. *Nanking*; Du. *Nankings linnen*; Fr. *Toile de Nankin*; It. *Nanguino*; Sp. *Nanguina*), a species of cotton cloth in extensive use in this country. It takes its name from Nanking, in China, a European corruption of Kyang-ning, the capital of the extensive province of Kyang-nan, where it is principally produced, and which also furnishes the greater part of the green tea. In the East, the manufacture is wholly confined to China.† The cloth is usually of a yellowish, though occasionally it is of a blue colour, and of different degrees of fineness; the broad pieces, called "the Company's nankeens," are generally of a better quality than the narrow ones, and are most esteemed. We produce imitation nankeens at Manchester and other places, but it must be

* The imports of copper, in 1825, amounted to 11,631 piculs, worth 988,635 florins.
 † It was stated in the former edition of this work, on authority that should not have been trusted to, that the manufacture of nankeen was carried to great perfection in the East Indies; but, in point of fact, the manufacture is wholly unknown every where in the East except China.

admitted that they are inferior to the Chinese; neither lasting so long, nor holding their colour so well. The colour, whether yellow or blue, is given to the cloth by dyeing; for, though yellow cotton wool be raised in the East, the cloth made from it is too glaring. The nankeens brought to England come under the general denomination of piece goods. They are mostly made into trowsers and waistcoats for gentlemen's wear during summer, ladies' pelisses, &c. In some of the more southern parts of Europe, the warmer parts of Asia and America, and the British settlements in Africa, nankeen is worn by both sexes all the year round, and constitutes the principal article of attire. It is worthy of remark, that while the Indian cotton fabrics have ceased to be imported, the imports of nankeen have gone on increasing. The quantities imported into Great Britain in the undermentioned years have been—

Year.	Pieces.	Yards.	Pieces.	Yards.	Pieces.
1793	77,898	1814	788,253	1830	691,330
1794	374,338	1815	806,797	1831	657,171
1795	146,365	1816	896,453	1832	195,748

—(Report on Affairs of the East India Company, 2d Finance, Commercial Appendix, part iii. p. 768., and Parl. Paper, No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

Exclusive of the nankeens exported from Canton by the English, amounting in 1830-31 to 922,770 pieces, and in 1831-32 to 315,370 do., the Americans exported, in 1831-32, 128,265 pieces; considerable quantities being also taken by the Spaniards, Dutch, &c. It is probable that, under the new arrangements with respect to the Chinese trade, the exports of nankeen from Canton will be materially increased.—(See vol. i. pp. 302 and 305.)

NANTES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Loire, about 34 miles from its mouth, in lat. 47° 13' 6" N., lon. 1° 32' 44" W. Population 78,000. Vessels of 200 tons burden come up to the city; but those of a larger size load and unload in the roads of Paimbœuf, about 24 miles lower down the river.

Entrance to the Loire.—There are 3 entrances to the Loire. The first and most generally frequented is between the bank called *Le Four* and *Point Croisic*: there is a second between *Le Four* and the bank called *La Banche*; and the third, which in southerly winds is much resorted to, between the latter and the rocks called *La Couronne*. The navigation, which is naturally rather difficult, has been much facilitated by the erection of light-houses and beacons. Of the former, one has been recently constructed on the north part of *Le Four*, about a league from *Croisic*, in lat. 47° 17' 53" N., lon. 2° 26' 3" W. It is 56 feet high. The light is a revolving one; the flash, which continues for 7 seconds, being succeeded by a dark interval of 53 seconds. Two light-houses, called the *Alguillon lights*, stand on the north side of the river, near its mouth; the lower light adjoining *Point de Lest*, being in lat. 47° 14' 33" N., lon. 2° 15' 46" W. The light is fixed, and is 111 feet above the level of the sea. The upper *Alguillon light*, situated about a mile N. 31° E. from the lower, is 127 feet high; it also is a fixed light, varied, however, by a flash every 3 minutes. A beacon tower, called the *Turk*, is erected on the southernmost extremity of *La Banche*; the courses for vessels entering between it and *La Couronne*, is to bring the *Alguillon lights* in one. The depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river varies from 2 to 2½ fathoms. At springs the rise is 14, and at neaps 7 or 8 feet. High water at full and change 3½ hours.

Trade, &c.—Her situation renders Nantes the emporium of all the rich and extensive country traversed by the Loire, so that she has a pretty considerable import and export trade, particularly with the West Indies. The exports consist of all sorts of French produce, but principally of brandy, wine and vinegar, silk, woollen and linen goods, refined sugar, wheat, rye, biscuits, &c. The principal imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, cotton, indigo, timber, hemp, &c. Nantes is a considerable *entrepôt* for the commerce of salt, the duty on that article in 1831 having amounted to 4,657,408 fr. During the time that the slave trade was carried on, Nantes was more extensively engaged in it than any other French port.

The customs duties of Nantes produced, inclusive of those on salt, in 1831, 15,100,371 fr.; and in 1832, 13,907,400 fr. The falling-off in the latter year is attributed to the drought having, for a considerable period, rendered the upper parts of the Loire unnavigable; and to the uncertainty caused by the agitation of the question as to the sugar duties.

Arrivals.—In 1831 there entered the port of Nantes:—

	Ships.	Tons.
French ships from foreign countries	68	8,590
— from colonies	68	22,033
— from fishery	665	7,791
— coasting trade	2,327	91,663
Foreign ships	66	12,519
Totals	3,388	146,596

In 1832, there entered Nantes 17 British vessels, of the burden of 1,732 tons. *Monies, Weights, and Measures* same as the rest of France.—(See *HONNANUX*.)
Taxes.—2½ per cent. on coffee in bags; real on ditto in hhd., casks, &c.; 6 per cent. on cotton; real on indigo; 17 per cent. on Brazil muscovado sugar, 19 per cent. on Martinique and Guadeloupe ditto, 13 per cent. on ditto clayed.

NAPLES, a very large city and sea-port in the south of Italy, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, the light-house being in lat. 40° 50' 12" N., lon. 14° 14' 15" E. Population, on the 1st of January, 1830, 358,550.—(*Annal. di Statistica*, 1830.) Naples is well

situated for commerce able to its growth, **Harbour.**—The bay is formed by a mole, the mole there is from there is no bar; it is their effects, vessels to take a pilot on board. **Money.**—Accountary system introduced 10 carlini; and there carlino are in copper. **Weights and Measures.**—100 rotoli = 196½ lbs. The cantaro is a dry measure, the in wine measure, the English wine gallon is oil measure, the Naples = 42½ English larger. In long measure, the Hence the palmo = 1 Eleven asme are a

Exports and Imports. Of these from Gallipoli, a exports of oil from 36,383 tons a year valent to the annual silk, wine, brandy, staves, rags, saffron teemed in the *laeris* in reality, the first, for the royal cellars, the vicinity of Naples the name of *laeris* sweet wines of super price of wine at a quantity comes to 1 twist, hardware, iron of the best marketable. The imports from but are mixed up with tom-house are not accurate statement the following estim Statement of the Qu (th Bottoms, from Articles exported in

Imports into Naples	Articles.
Cod-fish	-
Pilcherds	-
Coffee	-
Sugar	-
Manufactured cotton	-
Twist	-
Hardware	-
Iron and tin	-
Woolens	-
Worsteds	-
Total value	

We have no mean countries; but it is a Custom-house Regulation when 24 hours of their general manifest of their master, when consignee, or hour after the arrival of the for in detail, of all goods ordered the manifest in detail, of 30 per cent. upon This declaration or manifest are elapsed; and the master on for every package arrivally required, unless there is the director general of the

situated for commerce; but the perverse policy of the government has been most unfavourable to its growth, and has confined it within comparatively narrow limits.

Harbour.—The bay of Naples is spacious, and is celebrated for its picturesque view. The harbour is formed by a mole, built nearly in the form of the letter L, having a light-house on its elbow. Within the mole there is from 3 to 4 fathoms water, the ground being soft. The water in the bay is deep, and there is no bar: it is, however, a good deal exposed to the south-westerly winds; and to guard against their effects, vessels lying in the bay moor with open haws in that direction. There is no obligation to take a pilot on board, but it is usual to take one the first time that a ship anchors within the mole.

Money.—Accounts are kept at Naples in ducati di regno of 100 grani. According to the new monetary system introduced in 1818, the unit of coins is the silver ducat = 3s. 5 3/4d. sterling. The ducat = 10 carlini; and there are coins of 1, 2, 6, and 12 carlini in proportion. Coins of a less value than 1 carlino are in copper. The smallest gold piece is the oneceta = 10s. 3 1/2d. sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are the cantaro and rotolo. The cantaro grosso = 190 rotoli = 196 1/2 lbs. avoirdupois = 89.105 kilog. = 184 lbs. of Hamburg = 160 1/4 lbs. of Amsterdam. The cantaro piccolo = 106 lbs. avoirdupois = 48 kilog.

The dry measure, the carro of corn contains 36 tomoli. The tomolo = 1.45 Winchester bush. In wine measure, the carro is divided into 2 botti, or 24 barili, or 1,440 caraffe. The carro = 264 English wine gallons. The regular pipe of wine or brandy = 132 English gallons.

In oil measure, the salma is divided into 16 stajje; 256 quarti, or 1,536 misurette. The salma at Naples = 424 English wine gallons; at Gallipoli it is from 3 to 4 per cent. less; at Bari it is a little larger.

In long measure, the canna is divided into 8 palmi, or 96 onzie, and is = 6 feet 11 inches English. Hence the palmo = 10.38 English inches. Eleven salme are allowed to a ship's last.—(Nelson's Brecher; Dr. Kelly.)

Exports and Imports.—The exports principally consist of the products of the adjacent country. Of these olive oil is by far the most important. It is commonly called Gallipoli oil, from Gallipoli, a town in the Terra d'Otranto, whence it is largely exported. The entire exports of oil from the kingdom of Naples have been estimated at about 200,000 salme, or 36,333 tuns a year; which, taking its mean value, when exported, at 21l. per tun, is equivalent to the annual sum of 762,903l.—(See OLIVE OIL.) The other articles of export are silk, wine, brandy, dried fruits, brimstone, red and white argol, liquorice, oak and chestnut staves, rags, saffron, &c. There is a great variety in the Neapolitan wines. The most esteemed is the *lacrima Christi*, a red luscious wine, better known in England by name than in reality, the first growth being confined to a small quantity only, which is chiefly reserved for the royal cellars. There are, however, large quantities of second-rate wines produced in the vicinity of Naples, such as those of Pozzuoli, Ischia, Nola, &c., which are sold under the name of *lacrima Christi*, and are largely exported. Several parts of Calabria produce sweet wines of superior quality.—(Henderson's *Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 239.) The price of wine at Naples depends entirely on the abundance of the vintage; only a small quantity comes to England. The imports consist principally of English cottons and cotton twist, hardware, iron and tin, woollens, sugar, coffee, indigo, spicery, &c. Naples is one of the best markets for pilchards, and it requires a large supply of dried and barrelled cod.

The imports from, and exports to, Naples are not given separately in our trade accounts, but are mixed up with those of the rest of Italy; and the accounts of the Neapolitan Custom-house are not made public. We are, consequently, without the means of forming any accurate statement of the amount of our trade with Naples, but there is reason to think that the following estimate is not very wide of the mark.

Statement of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles annually Imported into Naples, in British Bottoms, from Great Britain and her Colonies; and of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles exported in such Bottoms, from the former to the latter.

Imports into Naples from Britain and her Colonies.			Exports from Naples to Britain and her Colonies.		
Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Cod-fish - - - quintals	60,000	£30,000	Argol - - - - cwt.	4,000	£5,000
Pilchards - - - hhds.	9,000	16,000	Liquorice paste - - -	5,000	10,000
Coffee - - - - cwt.	563	2,000	Silk organzined - - -	1,000	60,000
Sugar - - - - -	16,253	30,000	Brandy - - - - pipes	1,000	9,000
Manufactured cottons, yds.	5,478,480	200,000	Oil - - - - - tons	4,500	90,000
Twist - - - - lbs.	2,342,494	175,000			
Hardware - - - -	- - -	15,000			
Iron and tin - - - tons	- - -	3,000			
Woollens - - - - yds.	111,111	50,000			
Woolsteds - - - -	457,453	40,000			
Total value - - - -	- - -	£375,000	Total value - - - -	- - -	£174,000

We have no means of forming any estimate of the amount of the trade between Naples and other countries; but it is trifling compared to what it might and ought to be.

Custom-house Regulations.—Masters of merchantmen are bound, within 24 hours of their arrival, to furnish the Custom-house with a general manifest of their cargoes, provisions, and stores; and the manifest, when consigned, or the consignees, are bound, within 48 hours after the arrival of the ship, to send in a declaration or manifest in detail, of all goods on board. Should the consignees omit to render the manifest in detail within 48 hours, they are subjected to a fine of 20 per cent. upon the non-specified articles.

This declaration or manifest cannot be corrected after the 48 hours are elapsed; and the master or consignee is liable to a fine of 30 ducats for every package erroneously declared. This, however, is usually remitted, in case there be suspicion of fraud, upon application to the director general of the customs. Masters should be particularly

careful in manifesting their salt and tobacco, as the slightest error with respect to them subjects the vessel to seizure. All goods, provisions, &c., not manifested, are liable to seizure.

Quarantine Regulations. are rigorously and arbitrarily enforced. The free admission, conditional reception, or absolute refusal of a vessel arriving at the port is determined by the wholesome or an unwholesome character of the place from which she comes. The place may be 1. Infected. 2. Susceptible. 3. Endangered. Or, 4. Secure. In the first case, the vessel is refused altogether; in the 2d, she is admitted on a long quarantine; in the 3d, she is received on a short quarantine; in the 4th, she is allowed free pratique. If the vessel be a ship of war, her quarantine is performed in the Bay of Naples, the days of her passage being allowed in the calculation; if a non-

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68	8,591
88	22,653
865	7,251
257	61,863
66	12,531
338	146,861

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chantmas, quarantine is performed at Nisita, an island about 6 miles from Naples. It commences from the day of her arrival; if it is ballast, or loaded with unsuspicious merchandise; if otherwise, from the day of the discharge of her cargo. For vessels from undesignated ports, the quarantine is not less than 14, nor more than 30 days. For vessels from suspicious places, not less than 34, nor more than 40 days. For vessels from excepted places, not less than 7, nor more than 31 days. No foul lasarretto exists at Naples; but at Nisita there is a lasarretto of expurgation for vessels from suspicious or endangered districts or territories. Vessels from infested places usually go to Lagnara or Giove, where they undergo a lasarretto *apoco*. The fees charged on ships performing quarantine are heavy. No distinction is made between national and foreign bottoms. The verdict of the board of health, in frequently declaring places infected or suspicious or more unfounded reports, is loudly objected to by the merchants; the more especially since, when such declaration is made, it is not revoked till the report be officially contradicted by the government of the country in question.

Shipping, Port Charges, &c.—In 1831, there entered the port of Naples 202 foreign vessels. Of these, 101 were British, 44 French, 35 Sardinian, 6 Spanish, 8 Tuscan, &c. Tonnage not stated. The charges of a public nature on a national ship of 300 tons burden entering and clearing out from the port of Naples, are as under:—

On entering.—For expediting	1 60
(Equal to 6s. 8d. sterling)	
On clearing out.—Expediting	1 60
Bill of health	1 30
Tonnage duty at 4 grains per ton	12 0
(Equal to about 2s. 8d. sterling.)	24 14 60

Charges on a foreign ship of 300 tons burden.—	
On entering.—Vide	0 55
Expediting	0 60
Stamp	0 14
(Equal to about 1l. 4s. 6d. sterling.)	24 7 29

On clearing out.—Passport	1 0
Expediting	0 60
Stamp	0 14
Bill of health	0 40
Police	0 20
Port officers	0 60
Registering papers	0 30
Tonnage duty at 40 grains per ton	120 10
(Equal to about 51l. 17s. 1d. sterling.)	214 14 14

Brokers, Commission, &c.—No person can legally act as a broker unless authorized by government. All patented brokers are obliged, by way of security, to hold funded property producing 5000 ducats of "rents," or a dividend of 20l. 6s. 8d. sterling. Many persons, however, act as brokers without being patented, but no contract made by them is admitted in a court of law. Any person may set up as a merchant, by giving due notice to the Camera di Commercio.

The rates of commission generally established at Naples are as under:—

Rates of Commission and Charges established by the Merchants at Naples.

Commission on sales of fish	3 per cent.
Do. on manufactures of all kinds	3 —
Do. on all other goods	3 —
Do. on goods purchased	3 —
Do. on receiving and forwarding	1 1/2 —
Do. on attempting sales	1 —
Do. on sale of goods for the same account on which a purchasing commission has been charged	1 1/2 —
Do. on chartering vessels, or procuring charters	6 —
Do. on collecting freight on chartered ships	4 —
Do. on ships both inward and outward	4 —
Do. on advances on letters of credit	1 —
Do. on effecting insurance	1 1/2 —
Do. on negotiating bills	1 1/2 —
Do. on receiving and paying or remitting	1 1/2 —
Do. on purchase of oil, not exceeding 3 months	1 —
Do. do. do. not exceeding 6 do.	6 —
Do. per underwriter	1 1/2 —

Taxes usually allowed by the Custom-house at Naples on the leading articles of importation:—

Bacon, in hogsheads	12 per cent.
Do. in boxes or barrels	14 —
Do. in Brazil chests	15 to 20 —
Do. in bags	8 rotoli
Lewas, in casks	real tara
Do. extra for paper and strings	5 per cent.
Indigo	real tara
Tin, in barrels, each	12 rotoli
Alum, in casks	10 per cent.
Wax, real tara and extra	3 to 5 per cent.
Cod, and stick fish	1 per cent.
Coffee, in casks	real tara
Do. in bags, each	8 rotoli
Pepper	—

Tarif.—The duties on exports and imports are such as might be expected from a government that has suppressed the warehousing system, and allowed no drawbacks.

The duties on most sorts of imported articles are extremely oppressive, being seldom under 100, and often above 150 per cent. *ad valorem*. On coffee, the duty is no less than 46s. 8d. per cwt.; on sugar it varies from 41s. 10d. to 62s. 9d. per do.; on tea it is 30s. per do.; on cotton wool it varies from 16s. 8d. to 37s. 4d. per do. The duty on cotton and woollen manufactures is imposed by the piece, and is in common with all the other duties, most exorbitant. Even the indispensable articles, iron, ironed with 6s. 4d. per cwt. These duties have been imposed partly for the sake of revenue, and partly in the view of encouraging domestic manufactures; but they have not accomplished either object. The inordinate extent to which they have been carried has made them advantageous only to the smuggler, and ruinous to every one else. How, indeed, could it be otherwise? The coast of Naples, exclusive of Sicily, stretches from 800 to 1,000 miles; in many places it is uninhabited, while, in a great number of others, the people are not more than half civilised. The facilities for smuggling are, therefore, incalculably great; and, combined with the inadequate remuneration of the customs officers, and the ease with which they are corrupted, our only wonder is, not that smuggling is in a

thriving state, but that it is not more so. Naples, which is in a country town country subject to the same, is in fact, the only city that is not otherwise detected or unvisited. The following are the principal articles of commerce:—

Banking.—The principal merchants of Naples are all more or less bankers, inasmuch as they advance money on letters of credit, and deal in foreign exchanges, and other financial operations. The only banking establishment at present in existence, is the Bank of the Two Sicilies, founded by government, and guaranteed by the possession of landed property. It is not a bank for the issue of bank notes, but for the issue of bills on credit, like the Bank of England, but for their issue on deposit, on their paying an equivalent sum of money to the bank. These notes or orders form a considerable part of the circulating medium of Naples; they are paid in cash on demand.

Government has also established a discount office, where bills issued by 8 persons of good credit, and not at more than 2 months' date, are discounted at 1 per cent.

Prices of Provisions.—Naples is a favourable place for obtaining supplies of fruit, but not of solid provisions. The prices of the principal articles of consumption in 1831 were as follows:—

Articles.	Prices per lb. Anselopis.	
	In Neapolitan Grains.	In English pence.
Bread	8	2
Floor	5	2
Beef	10	3
Mutton	7	2 1/2
Pork	8	3
Cheese	0 20	10
Butter	40	10
Vegetables	6	2
Coffee	85	14
Sugar	11	7

Warehousing System.—The whole policy, if we may so live, of the Neapolitan government, with respect to commerce, is to suppress a nation of Holstenia. We believe that it is a mistake to suppose, after having established the warehousing system, to be of any sort of foreign produce. This was done in 1824. At present, all goods imported into Naples, may be deposited, on paying real, in warehouses under the joint locks of the king and the importer, for 3 years. At the end of the 1st year, half the import duty must be paid, and at the end of the 2d year, the other half. Whether sold or not, the goods must then be removed from the warehouse; and in paying the duties on deduction is made on account of damage in the warehouse, unless certain forms be complied with, the observance of which is invariably rectored more burdensome than the payment of the duties. No drawback for the import duty is allowed on the exportation of any sort of foreign produce. On the contrary, should it happen to be of the same species as native produce subject to a duty on export, it is charged, in addition to the duty it had paid on importation, with an export duty equal to that laid on the corresponding native product.

The influence of this system is most disastrous. So large a city as Naples, and so advantageously situated for the commerce with the Black Sea, the Levant, Greece, Spain, Northern Italy, North Africa, &c., would, had it been allowed to avail itself of its natural advantages, have become a most importantemporium. But, in consequence of the regulations now specified, no goods are carried except those destined for home consumption, and these are supplied sparingly; for, however much the price of an article may be depressed at Naples, it is impossible, owing to the oppressive duties charged on its importation not being drawn back on exportation, for the merchant to send it to Leghorno, Genoa, Trieste, or any other place where it is more in demand. It would really seem as if the government had been creating its illegality to find out the means of driving commerce, and with it enterprise and industry, from its shores; and it has not been denied that it has been, in no far, so successful.

Credit, &c.—Goods are universally sold at long credits, usually from 6 to 8 months; and for manufactured goods sometimes longer. On sales of indigo, from 12 to 16 months' credit is given. Discount for ready money is at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum. Merchants are arranged by the Chamber of Commerce into 5 different classes; and a 6 months' credit is given at the Custom-house for duties to the extent of 80,000, 40,000, 30,000, 20,000, and 10,000 ducats individuals, according to the class in which they happen to be entitled. But this is of little importance. Unless the transactions of a merchant be very limited indeed, the duties he has to pay amount much more than the credit he is allowed.

thriving state, but that it is not more so. Naples, which is in a country town country subject to the same, is in fact, the only city that is not otherwise detected or unvisited. The following are the principal articles of commerce:—

Cocoons (prohibited)	—
Cotton	—
Horse hair	—
Wool	—
Oil in native vessels	—
in foreign vessels	—
Pitch, white	—
black	—
Liquorice root	—
Soda seed (prohibited)	—
Sponges	—
Rags, white	—
coloured	—
Cork	—
Lyrol	—
Saffron	—
Wheat, and all other	—
ed in native vessels	—
exported in foreign	—

Of these duties, the pair of this valuable principle. But when the keen competition is in the last degree of country, and gives a duty of 30s. a tub on native ships; but it is its only effect being exported in Neapolitan to those by whom the Of the direct taxes, year. It was imposed, received by the landlord increased in price, while increased, its unequal

The perverse policy, longer. The reason of government of the revenue since its restoration, the results of the system, and to increase varied productions, then freedom and establishing countries of inhabitants of a manufacturing and inventing habit. It is surely may be undertaken unprofitable or valuable. merly worse than the foundations of a duties and restriction on importation to revenue; at the same the wealth of I

(A Statement of the of Naples; during Year 1835.—(Contd.)

Countries.	(Contd.)
England	—
Scotland	—
Newfoundland	—
Malta	—
Sicily	—
Leghorn	—
Sardinia	—
Polio	—
Gibraltar	—
France	—
Totals	—

staring state, but that there should be any legitimate traffic. The latter, indeed, is principally confined to Naples, where a stricter police is established; for it is not uncommon to find the same articles in country towns at no great distance from the capital, selling for $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ of their cost in it. In a country subjected to such a commercial code as Naples, the smuggler is a great public benefactor. He is, in fact, the natural enemy of oppressive duties and prohibitions. These bring him into the field, and make him put forth all his enterprise and energy; and it is fortunate for the best interests of society that he is uniformly victorious over penalties, confiscations, racks, and gibbets; and cannot be defeated otherwise than by the adoption of enlarged and liberal principles of commercial policy. The following are the duties charged on the principal articles of export from Naples:—

Tariff of the principal Articles of Export in force at Naples in 1833.

Articles.	Neapolitan.		English.	
	Weights.	Money.	Weights.	Money.
Cocoons (prohibited)				
Cotton - - - - -	per cantaro	1 1	per cwt.	0 1 10
Horse hair - - - - -	- - - - -	5 0	- - - - -	0 9 6
Wool - - - - -	- - - - -	0 50	- - - - -	0 0 11
Oil in native vessels - - - - -	per salma	3 38	per tun.	2 0 0
in foreign vessels - - - - -	- - - - -	4 68	- - - - -	4 10 0
Pitch, white - - - - -	per cantaro	2 40	- - - - -	0 4 6
black - - - - -	- - - - -	1 30	- - - - -	0 3 4
Liquorice root - - - - -	- - - - -	1 20	- - - - -	0 2 3
Soda seed (prohibited)				
Sponges - - - - -	- - - - -	8 0	- - - - -	0 15 3
Rags, white - - - - -	- - - - -	3 0	- - - - -	0 5 6
coloured - - - - -	- - - - -	0 50	- - - - -	0 0 11
Cork - - - - -	- - - - -	3 0	- - - - -	0 5 6
Argol - - - - -	- - - - -	0 65	per lb.	0 0 2½
Sulphur - - - - -	per lb.	0 65	per lb.	0 0 2½
Wheat, and all other sorts of grain, when exported in native vessels, pay no duty.				
exported in foreign vessels - - - - -	per cantaro	0 30	per cwt.	0 0 6½

Of these duties, that on oil is by far the most objectionable. Even though Naples enjoyed a monopoly of this valuable product, the imposition of such a duty would be wholly indefensible on any sound principle. But when, instead of having a monopoly of the oil trade, the Neapolitans are exposed to the least degree destructive. It depresses that branch of industry which is more suitable for the country, and gives a corresponding encouragement to its extension amongst foreigners. The increased duty of 30c. a tun on oil exported in foreign ships, is, of course, intended to force the employment of native ships; but it has not had, and could not rationally be expected to have, any such consequence; its only effect being to tempt foreigners to make a corresponding addition to the duties on oil, when imported in Neapolitan ships. Such regulations are never, in fact, productive of any thing except injury to those by whom they are enacted.

Of the direct taxes, the most productive is the *fondiaris*, or tax on rent, producing about 1,240,000*l.* a year. It was imposed during the French occupation, when it was fixed at 25 per cent. of the sum received by the landlord. It has not been altered since; and as agricultural produce has materially declined in price, while the rents of houses in towns, and particularly in the capital, have very much increased, its unequal pressure is much complained of.

The perverse policy we have thus endeavoured to develop, cannot surely be permitted to exist much longer. The reasonings of Filangieri, and other able native economists, might have forewarned the government of the real nature of that system of prohibition and restriction which it has laboured, ever since its restoration, to protect and defend. But facts have now taken the place of theory; and the results of the system are too obvious and too mischievous not to arrest the attention of every varied production, and advantageous situation of Naples and Sicily, it is plain that nothing more than freedom and security are required to render them among the richest, most industrious, and flourishing countries of Europe. But instead of this, the fetters laid upon commerce, by depriving the inhabitants of a market for their productions, and, consequently, of the most powerful stimulus to industry and invention, have paralysed all their energies, and immersed them in poverty, sloth and barbarism. It is surely high time that a different line of policy were adopted. At Naples, a reform may be undertaken without (which is not always the case elsewhere) endangering any thing either useful or valuable. Its political economy is such that no change, be it what it may, can make matters materially worse than they are at the moment. But it would be the easiest thing in the world to lay the foundations of a great and rapid improvement. To effect this, government has only to abolish all duties and restrictions on exportation, to establish the warehousing system, and to reduce the duties on importation to $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ part of their present amount. If it do this, it will add prodigiously to its own revenue; at the same time that it will do 10 times more to rouse the dormant energies, and to augment the wealth of its subjects, than it is possible to do by any other means.

(A Statement of the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels which entered and cleared from the Port of Naples; distinguishing the Nature of their Cargoes, and the Trade with each Country, in the Year 1835.—(Consular Returns.)

Countries.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargoes.
England - - - - -	83	10,381	17 with fish, 14 iron, 6 coals, 49 general	9	800	General.
Scotland - - - - -	4	635	Coal.			
Newfoundland - - - - -	18	2,418	Codfish.			
Malta - - - - -	8	532	1 in ballast, 1 coals, 1 wool and 1 leather	3	418	Grain.
Sicily - - - - -	8	150	1 sulphur, 1 general - - -	71	8,545	87 in ballast, 29 part of general cargoes, 2 coals, 1 fish.
Liguria - - - - -	9	318	1 coals, 1 harrings - - -	1	128	In ballast.
Bari - - - - -	1	280	Codfish - - - - -	4	711	ditto.
Gallipoli - - - - -	1	100	- - - - -	2	310	4 ditto, 4 part of cargoes.
Gibraltar - - - - -	1	100	- - - - -	3	274	1 ditto, 1 Indian crew.
France - - - - -	1	100	- - - - -	1	167	General and ballast.
Totals - - - - -	119	14,868		98	13,053	

A Statement of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of British and Foreign Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which entered and cleared from the Port of Naples in the Year 1855.

Flag.	Naples.					
	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonn.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonn.	Crews.
British	118	14,865	877	99	13,058	770
French	43	6,950	477	53	6,993	477
Sardinian	88	3,680	254	28	2,660	224
Spain	6	347	30	6	347	30
Austrian	6	718	43	6	718	43
Tuscan	17	522	68	17	522	68
Russian	1	378	27	1	378	27
Roman	1	33	6	1	33	6
American	1	210	16	1	210	16
	227	27,773	1,782	213	25,961	1,685

In compiling this article, we have been much indebted to the carefully drawn up, and generally judicious *Annuaire of the British consuls*, (Mr. Goodwin) to the *Circular Queries to Holland, Comp. d'Etat sur la Royale de Naples*, and to some valuable *private communications*. We have also looked into the works of a good many English and foreign travellers, but seldom with much advantage. They are filled with accounts, a thousand times repeated, of antiquities, Vesuvius, the churches, theatres, lazarettos, &c.; but few among

them communicate any information from which any just idea can be formed of the state of industry and commerce, the financial system of the country, &c. The statistical works of the Neapolitans are equally defective. They are overlaid with insignificant details, while they neglect altogether, or pass slightly over, the more important departments. This may arise from the jealousy of government; but the English traveller can make no such apology for their defects.

NAVIGATION LAWS. These laws form an important branch of Maritime Law. In this country they are understood to comprise the various acts that have been passed, defining British ships, the way in which such ships are to be manned, the peculiar privileges enjoyed by them, and the conditions under which foreign ships shall be allowed to engage in the trade of the country, either as importers or exporters of commodities, or as carriers of commodities from one part of the country to another.

Sketch of the History and Principles of the Navigation Laws.—The origin of the Navigation Laws of England may be traced to the reign of Richard II., or perhaps to a still more remote period. But, as no intelligible account of the varying and contradictory enactments framed at so distant an epoch could be compressed within any reasonable space, it is sufficient to observe, that, in the reign of Henry VII., two of the leading principles of the late navigation law were distinctly recognised, in the prohibition of the importation of certain commodities, unless imported in ships belonging to English owners, and manned by English seamen. In the early part of the reign of Elizabeth (5 Eliz. c. 5.), foreign ships were excluded from our fisheries and coasting trade. The republican parliament gave a great extension to the navigation laws, by the act of 1650, which prohibited all ships, of all foreign nations whatever, from trading with the plantations in America, without having previously obtained a licence. These acts were, however, rather intended to regulate the trade between the different ports and dependencies of the empire, than to regulate our intercourse with foreigners. But in the following year (9th of October, 1651) the republican parliament passed the famous *Act of Navigation*. This act had a double object. It was intended not only to promote our own navigation, but also to strike a decisive blow at the naval power of the Dutch, who then engrossed almost the whole *carrying trade* of the world, and against whom various circumstances had conspired to incense the English. The act in question declared, that no goods or commodities whatever, of the growth, production or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, should be imported either into England or Ireland, or any of the plantations, except in ships belonging to English subjects, and of which the master and the greater number of the crew were also English. Having thus secured the import trade of Asia, Africa, and America, to the English ship owners, the act went on to secure to them, as far as that was possible, the import trade of Europe. For this purpose, it further enacted, that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of any country in Europe, should be imported into Great Britain, except in British ships, or in *such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or most usually were, exported*. The latter part of the clause was entirely levelled against the Dutch, who had but little native produce to export, and whose ships were principally employed in carrying the produce of other countries to foreign markets. Such were the leading provisions of this famous act. They were adopted by the royal government which succeeded Cromwell, and form the basis of the act of the 12th Car. 2. c. 18., which continued, to a very recent period, to be the rule by which our naval intercourse with other countries was mainly regulated; and has been pompously designated the *Charta Maritima of England*.

In the statute 12 Car. 2. c. 18., the clause against importing foreign commodities, except in British ships, or in ships belonging to the country or place where the goods were produced, or from which they were exported, was so far modified, that the prohibition was made to apply only to the goods of Russia and Turkey, and to certain articles, since well known in commerce by the name of *enumerated articles*, leave being at the same time given to import all other articles in ships of any description. But this modification was of very little importance; inasmuch as the enumerated articles comprised all those that were of most importance in commerce, as timber, grain, tar, hemp and flax, potashes, wines, spirits, sugar,

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the Parliament seems, however, to have very speedily come round to the opinion that too much had been done in the way of relaxation; and in the 14th of Charles II. a supplemental statute was passed, avowedly with the intention of obviating some evasions of the statute of the preceding year, which, it was affirmed, had been practised by the Hollanders and Germans. This, however, seems to have been a mere pretence, to excuse the desire to follow up the blow aimed, by the former statute, at the carrying trade of Holland. And such was our jealousy of the naval and commercial greatness of the Dutch, that, in order to cripple it, we did not hesitate totally to proscribe all trade with them; and, to prevent the possibility of fraud, or of clandestine or indirect intercourse with Holland, we went so far as to include the commerce with the Netherlands and Germany in the same proscription. The statute of the 14th Car. 2. prohibited all importation from these countries of a long list of enumerated commodities, under any circumstances, or in any vessels, whether British or foreign, under the penalty of seizure and confiscation of the ships and goods. So far as it depended on us, Holland, the Netherlands, and Germany were virtually placed without the pale of the commercial world! And though the extreme rigour of this statute was subsequently modified, the principal provisions remained in full force until the late alterations.

The policy, if not the motives which dictated these statutes, has met with very general approval. It has been said, and by no less an authority than Dr. Smith, that national animosity did, in this instance, that which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended. "When the act of navigation was made," says he, "though England and Holland were not actually at war, the most violent animosity subsisted between the two nations. It had begun soon after in the Dutch wars during that of the Protector and of Charles II. It is not impossible, therefore, that some of the regulations of this famous act may have proceeded from national animosity. They are as wise, however, as if they had all been dictated by the most deliberate wisdom. National animosity at that particular time aimed at the very same object which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended,—the diminution of the naval power of Holland, the only naval power which could endanger the security of England. The act of navigation is not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can arise from it. The interest of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and to sell as dear as possible. But the act of navigation, by diminishing the number of sellers, must necessarily diminish that of buyers; and we are thus likely not only to buy foreign goods dearer, but to sell our own cheaper, than if there was a more perfect freedom of trade. As defence, however, is of much more importance than opulence, the act of navigation is, perhaps, the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England."—(Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 293.)

It may, however, be very fairly doubted, whether, in point of fact, the navigation law had the effects here ascribed to it, of weakening the naval power of the Dutch, and of increasing that of this kingdom. The Dutch were very powerful at sea for a long period after the passing of this act; and it seems natural to conclude, that the decline of their maritime pre-ponderance was owing rather to the gradual increase of commerce and navigation in other countries, and to the disasters and burdens occasioned by the ruinous contests the Republic had to sustain with Cromwell, Charles II. and Louis XIV., than to the mere exclusion of their merchant vessels from the ports of England. It is not meant to say, that this exclusion was altogether without effect. The efforts of the Dutch to procure a repeal of the English navigation law show that, in their apprehension, it operated injuriously on their commerce.* It is certain, however, that its influence in this respect has been greatly over-rated in this country. *Excessive taxation*, and not our navigation law, was the principal cause of the fall of profits, and of the decline of manufactures, commerce, and navigation, in Holland. "Les guerres," says the well-informed author of the *Commerce de la Hollande*, "terminées par les traités de Nimègue, de Ryawick, d'Utrecht, et enfin la dernière par le traité d'Aix-la-Chapelle, ont successivement obligé la République de faire usage d'un grand crédit, et de faire des emprunts énormes pour en soutenir les frais. Les dettes ont surchargé l'état d'une somme immense d'intérêts, qui ne pouvoient être payés que par une augmentation excessive d'impôts, dont il a fallu faire porter la plus forte partie par les consommations dans un pays qui n'a qu'un territoire extrêmement borné, et par conséquent par l'industrie. Il a donc fallu faire enchérir infiniment la main-d'œuvre. Cette cherté de la main-d'œuvre a non seulement restreint presque toute sorte de fabrique et d'industrie à la consommation intérieure, mais elle a encore porté un coup bien sensible au commerce de frêt, partie accessoire et la plus précieuse du commerce d'économie: car cette cherté a rendu la construction plus chère, et augmenté le prix de tous les ouvrages qui tiennent à la navigation, même de tous les ouvrages des ports et des magasins. Il n'étoit pas possible que l'augmentation du prix de la main-d'œuvre ne donnât, malgré tous les efforts de l'économie Hollandoise, un avantage

* In the treaty of Breda, agreed upon in 1667, between the States General and Charles II., the latter undertook to procure the repeal of the navigation law. But the subject was never agitated in either house of parliament.

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sensible aux autres nations qui voudroient se livrer au commerce d'économie et à celui de frêt."—(Tome ii. p. 211.)

This extract, which might, were it necessary, be corroborated by others to the same effect from all the best Dutch writers, show that it is not to our navigation law, nor to the restrictive regulations of other foreign powers, but to the abuse of the funding system, and the excess of taxation, that the decline of the commercial greatness and maritime power of Holland was really owing. Neither does it appear that the opinion maintained by Dr. Smith and others, that the navigation law had a powerful influence in augmenting the naval power of this country, rests on any better foundation. The taste of the nation for naval enterprise had been awakened, the navy had become exceedingly formidable, and Blake had achieved his victories, before the enactment of this famous law. So far, indeed, is it from being certain that the navigation act had, in this respect, the effect commonly ascribed to it, that there are good grounds for thinking it had a precisely opposite effect, and that it operated rather to diminish than to increase our mercantile navy. It is stated in Roger Coke's *Treatise on Trade*, published in 1671 (p. 36.), that this act, by lessening the resort of strangers to our ports, had a most injurious effect on our commerce; and he further states that we had lost, within 9 years of the passing of the act of 1650, the greater part of the Baltic and Greenland trade.—(p. 48.) Sir Josiah Child, whose treatise was published in 1691, corroborates Coke's statement: for while he decidedly approves of the navigation law, he admits that the English shipping employed in the Eastland and Baltic trades had decreased at least *two thirds* since its enactment, and that the foreign shipping employed in these trades had proportionally increased.—(*Treatise on Trade*, p. 89. Glasg. edit.) Exclusive of these contemporary authorities, it may be worth while to mention, that Sir Matthew Decker, an extensive and extremely well-informed merchant, condemns the whole principle of the navigation act; and contends that, instead of increasing our shipping and seamen, it had diminished them both; and that, by rendering the freight of ships higher than it would otherwise have been, it had entailed a heavy burden on the public, and been one of the main causes that had prevented our carrying on the fishery so successfully as the Dutch.—(*Essays on the Causes of the Decline of Foreign Trade*, p. 60. ed. 1756.)

There does not seem to be any very good grounds on which to question these statements; and they are at all events sufficient to show, that the assertions of those who contend that the navigation laws had a prodigious effect in increasing the number of our ships and sailors, must be received with very great modification. But, suppose that all that has been said by the apologists of these laws were true to the letter; suppose it were conceded, that, when first framed, the Act of Navigation was extremely politic and proper;—that would afford but a very slender presumption in favour of the policy of supporting it in the present day. Human institutions are not made for immortality: they must be accommodated to the varying circumstances and exigencies of society. But the situation of Great Britain and the other countries of Europe has totally changed since 1650. The envied wealth and commercial greatness of Holland have passed away: we have no longer any thing to fear from her hostility: and, "he must be, indeed, strangely influenced by antiquated prejudices and by-gone apprehensions, who can entertain any of that jealousy from which the severity of this law principally originated." London has become, what Amsterdam formerly was, the grand emporium of the commercial world—*universi orbis terrarum emporium*: and the real question which now presents itself for our consideration is, not what are the best means by which we may rise to naval greatness? but—what are the best means of preserving that undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs to which we have attained?

Now, it does not really seem that there can be much difficulty in deciding this question. Navigation and naval power are the children, not the parents—the effect, not the cause—of commerce. If the latter be increased, the increase of the former will follow as a matter of course. More ships and more sailors become necessary, according as the commerce between different and distant countries is extended. A country, circumstanced like Great Britain in the reign of Charles II., when her shipping was comparatively limited, might perhaps be warranted in endeavouring to increase its amount, by excluding foreign ships from her harbours. But it is almost superfluous to add, that it is not by any such regulations, but solely by the aid of a flourishing and widely extended commerce, that the immense mercantile navy we have now accumulated can be supported.

But it is extremely easy to show, that to have continued to enforce the provisions of the old navigation law, in the present state of the world, would have been among the most efficient means that could have been devised for the destruction of our commerce. The wealth and power to which Britain has attained, has inspired other nations with the same envious feelings that the wealth of Holland formerly generated in our minds. Instead of ascribing our commercial and manufacturing superiority to its true causes,—to the comparative freedom of our constitution, the absence of all oppressive feudal privileges, the security of property, and the fairness of our system of taxation,—our foreign rivals contend that it has been entirely owing to our exclusive system; and appeal to our example to stimulate their respective governments to adopt retaliatory measures, and to protect them against British competi-

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tion. These representations have had the most injurious operation. In 1787, the American legislature passed an act, copied to the very letter from our navigation law, with the avowed intention of its operating as a retaliatory measure against this country. The Northern powers threatened to act on the same principle; and would have carried their threats into effect, but for timely concessions on our part. The same engines by which we laboured to destroy the trade of Holland were thus about to be brought, by what we could not have called an unjust retribution, to operate against ourselves. Nor can there be a doubt that, had we continued to maintain our illiberal and exclusive system, and refused to set a better example to others, and to teach them the advantage of recurring to sounder principles, we should have run a very great risk of falling a victim to the vindictive spirit which such short-sighted and selfish policy would have generated.

For these reasons, it seems difficult to question the policy of the changes that have recently been effected in the navigation laws, partly by the bills introduced by Mr. (now Lord) Wallace in 1821, and Mr. Huskisson in 1825, and partly by the adoption of what has been called the *Reciprocity System*. Under the existing law (6 Geo. 4. c. 109, see *post.*) the intercourse with all European countries in amity with Great Britain is placed on the same footing. The memorials of our former animosity, and of our jealousy of the prosperity of certain of our neighbours, have thus been abolished; and the same law is henceforth to regulate our commerce with the Continent. This uniformity, besides giving greater scope to mercantile operations, and extending our traffic with some of our most opulent neighbours, removes a great source of embarrassment and litigation; at the same time that it detracts considerably from that selfish character which had been believed on the Continent, and not without considerable reason, to be the animating principle of our commercial system.

The distinction between enumerated and non-enumerated goods is still kept up under the new regulations; but, instead of confining the importation of the former into the United Kingdom, either to British ships, or ships belonging to the country or place where the goods were produced, or from which they originally were exported, the new regulations permit that they may be imported either in British ships, in ships of the country of which the goods are the produce, or in ships of the country or place from which they are imported into England. This is a very important alteration. Under the old law, when a number of articles, the products of different countries, but all of them suitable for importation into England, were found in a foreign port, they could not be imported except in a British ship, or separately in ships belonging to the different countries whose produce they were. This was obviously a very great hardship on the foreigner, without being of any real advantage to our own ship owners. When the foreign merchant had vessels of his own, it was not very probable he would permit them to remain unoccupied, and freight a British vessel; and there were very few ports of any importance in which foreign bottoms might not be found, in which the article could be legally imported. The real effect of the old law was not, therefore, to cause the employment of British ships, but to oblige foreigners to assort their cargoes less advantageously than they might otherwise have done, and thus to lessen their intercourse with our markets. The new law obviates this inconvenience; while, by restricting the importation of European goods to ships of the built of the country of which the goods are the growth, or to those of the built of the country or port from which the goods are shipped, and which are *wholly owned* by the inhabitants of such country or port, it is rendered very difficult for the people of a particular country to become the carriers of the produce of other countries to our markets.

Another new regulation is of such obvious and unquestionable utility, that it is surprising it was not long ago adopted. By the old law, all articles, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, could only be imported directly in a British ship from the place of their production. This law had already been repealed in so far as respected the United States, whose ships were allowed to import their produce directly into this country; but it was maintained with respect to Asia, Africa, and South America. And hence, although a British ship happened to find, in South American, African, or Asiatic ports, articles, the produce of one or more of the other quarters of the globe, suitable for our markets, and with which it might have been extremely advantageous for her to complete her cargo, she was prohibited from taking them on board, under penalty of forfeiture and confiscation, not only of the goods, but also of the ship. The regulation has been repealed; and it is now lawful for British ships to take on board all articles, the importation of which is not prohibited, on meeting with them in any Asiatic, African or American port. Lord Wallace originally intended to extend this principle to European ports, or to make it lawful for British ships to import all non-prohibited articles from *whenever they might find them*. But it was supposed by some, that foreign ships might be more cheaply navigated than ours; and that foreigners, taking advantage of this circumstance, would import the Asiatic, African, and American products required for our consumption into the contiguous continental ports, and would consequently restrict the employment of British ships to their carriage thence. We believe that these apprehensions were, in a great measure, visionary. But the law is so contrived as to avoid even the possibility of danger on this head; such of the products of Asia, Africa, and America, as are required for home consumption, being, with a few trifling exceptions, inadmissible from Eu-

rope; and only admissible when they are imported in British ships, or in ships of the country or place of which the goods are the produce, and from which they are brought. The only exceptions to this rule are articles from Asiatic and African Turkey imported from the Levant, and bullion.

Besides the restrictive regulations already alluded to, it had been a part of our policy to encourage the employment of our shipping, by imposing higher duties on commodities imported into our harbours in foreign vessels, than were imposed on them when imported in British vessels; and it had also been customary to charge foreign vessels with higher port and light-house duties, &c. This system was always loudly complained of by foreigners; but we had little difficulty in maintaining it, so long as the state of our manufactures enabled us to disregard the retaliatory measures of other powers. But the extraordinary increase that took place, since the commencement of the late war, in our manufactures for foreign consumption, and the necessity under which we were, in consequence, placed, of conciliating our customers abroad, led to the adoption of the *reciprocity system*. This system was first introduced into the trade with the United States. After the North American colonies had succeeded in establishing their independence, they set about framing a code of navigation laws on the model of those of this country. Among other regulations of a restrictive character, it was enacted, that all foreign vessels trading to the United States should pay \$1 a dollar, which was afterwards raised to a dollar, per ton duty, beyond what was paid by American ships; and further, that goods imported in foreign vessels should pay a duty of 10 per cent. over and above what was payable on the same description of goods imported in American vessels.

This law was avowedly directed against the navigation of Great Britain; though, as it was bottomed on the very same principles as our navigation laws, we could not openly complain of its operation. Under these circumstances, it would have been sound policy to have at once proposed an accommodation; and instead of attempting to meet retaliation by retaliation, to have offered to modify our navigation law, in so far as American shipping was concerned, on condition of the Americans making reciprocal modifications in our favour. A different course was, however, followed. Various devices were fallen upon to counteract the navigation system of the Americans, without in any degree relaxing our own: but they all failed of their object; and at length became obvious to every one that we had engaged in an unequal struggle, and that the real effect of our policy was to give a bounty on the importation of the manufactured goods of other countries into the United States, and thus gradually to exclude both our manufactures and ships from the ports of the Republic. In consequence, the conviction of the necessity of making concessions gained ground progressively; and it was ultimately fixed, by the commercial treaty agreed upon between Great Britain and the United States in 1816, that in future *equal charges* should be imposed on the ships of either country in the ports of the other, and that *equal duties* should be laid upon all articles, the produce of the one country, imported into the other, whether such importation were effected in the ships of the one or the other.

The new States of South America were naturally anxious to establish a commercial marine; and, to forward their views in this respect, they contemplated enacting navigation laws. But this intention was frustrated by the interference of the British government, who, without stipulating for any peculiar advantage, wisely offered to admit their ships into our ports on a fair footing of reciprocity, or on their paying the same charges as our own ships, on condition that they admitted British ships into their ports on a similar footing. Commercial treaties framed on this sound and liberal principle have since been entered into with most of these States.

The principle of the reciprocity system having been thus conceded in the case of the intercourse with the United States, whose commercial marine is second only to that of Great Britain, it was not possible to refuse acting on the same principle in the case of such European countries as might choose to admit our ships into their ports on a footing of equality. The first demand of this sort was made on the part of the Prussian government, by whom an order in council was issued on the 20th of June, 1822, which made large additions to the port dues charged on all ships belonging to those nations which did not admit Prussian ships on a footing of reciprocity. The real object of this order was to injure the navigation of this country; and it was speedily found that it had the desired effect, and that its operation on British shipping was most pernicious.

Under these circumstances, the British merchants and ship owners applied to our government for relief. "We were assailed," said Mr. Huskisson, "with representations from all quarters connected with the shipping and trade of the country, against the heavy charges imposed upon British ships in the ports of Prussia. In such circumstances, what could his Majesty's government take? We felt it to be our duty, in the first instance, to con-

* By the fourth section of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 1. it is enacted, that his Majesty may, by an order in council, admit the ships of foreign states into our ports, on payment of the like duties that are charged on British vessels, provided that British ships are admitted into the ports of such foreign states, on payment of the like duties that are charged on their vessels.

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communicate with the Prussian minister in this country; and our minister at Berlin was, I believe, also directed to confer with the Prussian government on the subject. I myself had a conference with the Prussian minister at this court, and I well recollect the substance of his reply to me:—'You have,' he said, 'set us the example, by your port and light charges, and your discriminating duties on Prussian ships; and we have not gone beyond the limits of that example. Hitherto, we have confined the increase of our port and tonnage charges to ships only; but it is the intention of my government next year,' (and of this he showed me the written proof,) 'to imitate you still more closely, by imposing discriminating duties on the goods imported in your ships. Our object is a just protection of our own navigation; and so long as the measure of our protection does not exceed that which is afforded in your ports to British ships, we cannot see with what reason you can complain.'

"Against such a reply what remonstrance could we in fairness make to the Prussian government? We might have addressed ourselves, it may be said by some, to the friendly feelings of that government; we might have pleaded long usage in support of our discriminating duties: we might have urged the advantages which Prussia derived from her trade with England. Appeals like these were not forgotten in the discussion; but they were of little avail against the fact stated by the consul at Dantzic,—that 'the Prussian ship owners were all going to ruin.'

"By others it may be said, 'Your duty was to retaliate, by increasing your own port charges, and discriminating duties on Prussian shipping.' I have already stated generally my reasons against the policy of this latter course. We were not prepared to begin a system of commercial hostility, which, if followed up on both sides to its legitimate consequences, could only tend to reciprocal prohibition. In this state of things, more prudently, as I contend, we entered upon an amicable negotiation with the Prussian government, upon the principle of our treaty with the United States,—that of abolishing, on both sides, all discriminating duties on the ships and goods of the respective countries in the ports of the other.

"Having concluded an arrangement with Prussia upon this basis, we soon found it necessary to do the same with some other of the Northern states. Similar conventions were accordingly entered into with Denmark and Sweden. Reciprocity is the foundation of all those conventions: but it is only fair to add, that they contain other stipulations for giving facility to trade, and from which the commerce of this country, I am confident, will, in the result, derive considerable advantage."—(*Mr. Huskisson's Speech, 12th of May, 1826, on the State of the Shipping Interest.*)

This statement shows conclusively, that the establishment of the reciprocity system, with respect to which so violent a clamour was raised, was not a measure of choice, but of necessity. In the state in which our manufactures are now placed, we could not afford to hazard their exclusion from a country into which they are annually imported to a very large extent. So long as the Prussians, Swedes, Danes, &c. chose to submit to our system of discriminating duties on foreign ships, and on the goods imported in them, without retaliating, it was no business of ours to tell them that that system was illiberal and oppressive. But when they found this out without our telling them; and when they declared, that unless we modified our restrictions, they would retaliate on our commerce, and either entirely exclude our commodities from their markets, or load those that were imported in British ships with prohibitory duties; should we have been justified, had we refused to come to an accommodation with them? Were we to sacrifice the substance to the shadow?—to turn away some of our very best customers, because they chose to stipulate that the intercourse between them and us should be conducted either in their ships or in ours, as the merchants might think best? Our government had only a choice of difficulties; and they wisely preferred adopting a system which has preserved free access for the English manufacturer to the markets of Prussia, and to the English ship owners an equal chance with those of Prussia of being employed in the traffic between the two countries, to a system that would eventually, and at no distant period, have put an end to all intercourse between the two countries, and which had already subjected it to great difficulties.

It was said by the ship owners, and others opposed to the late alterations, that the Prussians can build, man, and victual ships at a cheaper rate than we can do; and that the ultimate effect of the reciprocity system would, consequently, be to give them a decided superiority in the trade. But, admitting this statement to be true, still, for the reasons already given, it is pretty evident that the policy we have pursued was, under the circumstances of the case, the best. Had we refused to establish the reciprocity system, we must have submitted to be entirely excluded from the markets of the United States, Prussia, &c. grasping at what was beyond our reach, we should thus have lost what we were already in possession of. We should not only have injured our ship owners, by getting them forcibly excluded from the ports of many great commercial states, but we should have done an irreparable injury to our manufacturers,—a class which, without undervaluing the ship owners, is of incomparably more importance than they. Although, therefore, no doubt could be entertained with respect to the statements of the ship owners as to the comparative

ship, unless duly registered and navigated as such: and every British register ship (so long as the registry of such ship shall be in force, or the certificate of such registry retained for the use of such ship) shall be navigated during the whole of every voyage (whether with a cargo or in ballast), in every part of the world, by a master who is a British subject, and by a crew, whereof 3-4ths at least are British seamen: and if such ship be employed in a coasting voyage from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or in a voyage between the United Kingdom and the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or from one of the said islands to another of them, or from one part of either of them to another of the same, or be employed in fishing on the coasts of the United Kingdom or of any of the said islands, then the whole of the crew shall be British seamen.—2 12.

Exception in favour of Vessels under 15 Tons Burden, &c.—All British-built boats or vessels under 15 tons burden, wholly owned and navigated by British subjects, although not registered as British ships, shall be admitted to be British vessels, in all navigation in the rivers and upon the coasts of the United Kingdom, or of the British possessions abroad, and not proceeding over sea, except within the limits of the respective colonial governments within which the managing owners of such vessels respectively reside; and all British-built boats or vessels wholly owned and navigated by British subjects, not exceeding the burden of 30 tons, and not having a whole or a fixed deck, and being employed solely in fishing on the banks and shores of Newfoundland and of the parts adjacent, or on the banks and shores of the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, adjacent to the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, or on the north of Cape Canso or of the islands within the same, or in trading coastwise within the said limits, shall be admitted to be British boats or vessels, although not registered, so long as such boats or vessels shall be solely so employed.—2 13.

British Ships to be as British, in Trade with United Kingdom and Colonies in America.—All ships built in the British settlements at Honduras, and owned and navigated as British ships, shall be entitled to the privileges of British registered ships in all direct trade between the United Kingdom or the British possessions in America and the said settlements: provided the master shall produce a certificate under the hand of the superintendent of those settlements, that satisfactory proof has been made before him that such ship (describing the same) was built in the said settlements, and is wholly owned by British subjects: provided also, that the time of the clearance of such ship from the said settlements for every voyage shall be indorsed upon such certificate by such superintendent.—2 14.

Ship of any Foreign Country to be of the Built of, or Prize to such Country; or British-built, and owned and navigated by Subjects of the Country.—No ship shall be admitted to be a ship of any particular country, unless she be of the built of such country) or have been made prize of war to such country; or have been forfeited to such country under any law of the same, made for the prevention of the slave trade, and condemned as such prize or forfeiture by a competent court of such country; or be British-built (not having been a prize of war from British subjects to any other foreign country); nor unless she be navigated by a master who is a subject of such foreign country, and by a crew of whom 3-4ths at least are subjects of such country; nor unless she be wholly owned by subjects of such country usually residing therein, or under the dominion thereof; provided always, that the country of every ship shall be deemed to include all places which are under the same dominion as the place to which such ship belongs.—2 15.

Master and Seamen not British, unless natural-born, or naturalised, &c.—No person shall be qualified to be a master of a British ship, or to be a British seaman within the meaning of this act, except the natural-born subjects of his Majesty, or persons naturalised by any act of parliament, or made denizens by letters of denization; or except persons who have become British subjects by virtue of conquest or cession of some newly acquired country, and who shall have taken the oath of allegiance to his Majesty, or the oath of fidelity required by the treaty or capitulation by which such newly acquired country came into his Majesty's possession; or persons who shall have served on board any of his Majesty's ships of war in time of war for the space of 3 years; provided always, that the natives of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, although under British dominion, shall not, upon the ground of being such natives, be deemed to be British seamen: provided always, that every ship (except ships required to be wholly navigated by British seamen) which shall be navigated by 1 British seaman, if a British ship, or 1 seaman of the country of such ship, if a foreign ship, for every 20 tons of the burden of such ship, shall be deemed to be duly navigated, although the number of other seamen shall exceed 1-4th of the whole crew: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to repeal or alter the provisions of an act passed in the 4th year of the reign of his late Majesty King George IV. for consolidating and amending the laws then in force with respect to trade from and to places within the limits of the East India Company's charter.—2 16.

Foreigners having served 2 years on board H. M. Ships during War.—It shall be lawful for his Majesty, by his royal proclamation during war, to declare that foreigners, having served 2 years on board any of his Majesty's ships of war, in time of such war, shall be British seamen within the meaning of this act.—2 17.

British Ship not to depart British Port unless duly navigated, &c.—No British registered ship shall be suffered to depart any port in the United Kingdom, or any British possession in any part of the world (whether with a cargo or in ballast), unless duly navigated; provided always, that any British ships trading between places in America may be navigated by British negroes; and that ships trading eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, within the limits of the East India Company's charter, may be navigated by Lemons, or other natives of countries within those limits.—2 18.

If Excess of Foreign Seamen, Penalty 10l. for each, &c.—If any British registered ship shall at any time have, as part of the crew, in any part of the world, any foreign seaman not allowed by law, the master or owners of such ship shall for every such foreign seaman forfeit the sum of 10l.: provided always, that if a due proportion of British seamen cannot be procured in any foreign port, or in any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for the navigation of any British ship; or if such proportion be destroyed during the voyage by any unavoidable circumstance, and the master of such ship shall produce a certificate of such facts under the hand of any British consul, or of 2 sworn British merchants, if there be no consul at the place where such facts can be ascertained, or from the British governor of any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter; or, in the want of such certificate, shall make proof of the truth of such facts to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs of any British port, or of any person authorised in any other part of the world to inquire into the navigation of such ship; the same shall be deemed to be duly navigated.—2 19.

Proportion of Seamen may be altered by Proclamation.—If his Majesty shall, at any time, by his royal proclamation, declare that the proportion of British seamen necessary to the due navigation of British ships shall be less than the proportion required by this act, every British ship navigated with the proportion of British seamen required by such proclamation shall be deemed to be duly navigated, so long as such proclamation shall remain in force.—2 20.

Goods prohibited only by Navigation Law may be imported for Exportation.—Goods of any sort or the produce of any place, not otherwise prohibited than by the law of navigation here-in-before contained, may be imported into the United Kingdom from any place in a British ship, and from any place not being a British possession in a foreign ship of any country, and however navigated, to be warehoused

The following Tables give a very complete view of the trade of this great and growing emporium :-

1. Account of the Quantity of the various Articles Imported from the Interior to New Orleans during the Nine Years ending with the 30th of September, 1836. These, of course, form also the Articles of Exportation.

Articles.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.
Apple - bbls.	25,384	4,871	9,698	11,151	12,216	4,500	9,762	1,779	10,226		
Apple brandy - do.	44	7	50	81	81	189	69	76			
Bacon, smoked - casks.	7,371	8,046	8,046	4,328	4,861	6,427	30,688	3,629	4,147		
do - do - boxes.	370	779	323	216	370	1,207	312	762	1,190		
do - do - hhd's.	7,310	6,245	7,216	1,821	2,794	3,046	382	2,902	1,423		
do - do - boxes.	306	1,377	525	16	305	176	17	456			
Born in bulk - lbs.	81,308	1,519,329	615,324	685,915	907,380	1,282,354	306,617	301,001	329,756		
Bacon, Kentucky pieces - casks.	55,007	47,974	33,924	39,991	23,930	26,558	12,306	13,472	8,972		
Bale rope - lbs.	23,808	91,554	32,703	30,718	22,973	45,540	20,334	16,034	17,036		
Bale rope - bbls.	1,923	369	1,123	13,918	9,333	1,946	2,989	1,920	779		
Butter - bbls.	469	39				5	1	1	1		
do - kegs and casks.	4,868	6,199	8,072	6,919	5,014	4,319	5,846	4,140	4,047		
do - bbls.	339	66	90	180	165	448	83				
do - do - bbls.	225	190	479	384	5	332	811	796	770		
do - do - bbls.	61	20	5	185	374	153	78	40	69		
do - wax - boxes.	92,190	29,935	29,750	50	500	441	5,400	6,434	5,682		
do - do - bbls.	9,891	10,061	6,455	5,350	4,550	19,609	7,560	5,405	5,082		
do - do - do.	60	15	180	304	32	22	130	33	33		
do - do - do.	115,223	30,052	89,160	83,910	172,410	40,600	200	9,100	17,372		
do - do - do.	3,100	9,614	1,635	1,937	1,693	2,554	3,061	16,410	16,967		
Cocoa, Louisiana & N. Mex. - boxes.	358,891	645,970	307,421	292,748	193,680	242,427	174,194	160,570	191,175		
do - do - do.	16,472	17,456	6,063	1,333	17,938	387	5,093	6,350	3,484		
do - do - do.	11,169	10,626	5,222	11,974	7,354	10,339	9,302	6,753	5,917		
do - do - do.	96,142	148,132	135,542	89,909	114,934	171,616	166,806	90,355	98,748		
do - do - do.							7	20	109		
do - do - do.							1,789	1,333	1,201		
do - do - do.							2,024	2,921	2,907		
do - do - do.							335	193	284		
do - do - do.							6,783	5,443	6,849		
do - do - do.							45,344	42,317	81,852		
do - do - do.							21,190				
do - do - do.							179	84	147		
do - do - do.							216	313	731		
do - do - do.							236	635	455		
do - do - do.							40,800				
do - do - do.							138	236	288		
do - do - do.							86	231	126		
do - do - do.							98	373	385		
do - do - do.							430	744	548		
do - do - do.							87	421	271		
do - do - do.							10	143	285		
do - do - do.							138	47	66		
do - do - do.							97	724	724		
do - do - do.							379	256			
do - do - do.							6	6			
do - do - do.							17	17			
do - do - do.							12	12			
do - do - do.							516	857	461		
do - do - do.							103	80	67		
do - do - do.							12	12	6		
do - do - do.							8	17	21		
do - do - do.							87	87	271		
do - do - do.							162	138	47		
do - do - do.							6,429	9,137	724		
do - do - do.							18	379	256		
do - do - do.							98	388	288		
do - do - do.							15,923	18,439	12,884		
do - do - do.							39,192	17,327	23,288		
do - do - do.							1,025	797	167		
do - do - do.							401	329			
do - do - do.							10	6	11		
do - do - do.							117	631	1,042		
do - do - do.							131,111	70,276	110,806		
do - do - do.							505	12,000	116,845		
do - do - do.							489	214	74,073		
do - do - do.							840	135	885		
do - do - do.							2,023	2,034	183,712		
do - do - do.							333	782	471		
do - do - do.							845,500	409,641			
do - do - do.							2,169	5,210	1,787		
do - do - do.							859	1,323	1,323		
do - do - do.							1,868	1,910	2,940		
do - do - do.							181	146	254		
do - do - do.							347	572	786		
do - do - do.							85	906	917		
do - do - do.							8	234	747		
do - do - do.							19	106	156		
do - do - do.							230	1,060	278		
do - do - do.							2,742	6,148	5,888		
do - do - do.							62,162	49,102	35,917		
do - do - do.							107	33	604		
do - do - do.							859	304	964		
do - do - do.							859,200	841,400	863,690		
do - do - do.							206	631	580		
do - do - do.							1,110	720	192		
do - do - do.							387	984	87		
do - do - do.							3,809	8,805	3,965		
do - do - do.							1,490	1,520	1,555		
do - do - do.							1,196	3,066	2,443		
do - do - do.							72	78	218		
do - do - do.							408	4,475	6,900		
do - do - do.							251,000	331,000			
do - do - do.							990,000	850,000	827,000		
do - do - do.							87	22	11		
do - do - do.							1,597	1,337	3,900		
do - do - do.							801,015	92,709	39,432		
do - do - do.							1,873	1,664	4,571		
do - do - do.							1,447	1,026	1,127		
do - do - do.							2,272	831	2,137		
do - do - do.							126	202	415		
do - do - do.							11	91	139		
do - do - do.							970	4,135	6,670		
do - do - do.							64	70	1,728		
do - do - do.							80,378	84,091	26,449		
do - do - do.							1,195	2,115	912		
do - do - do.							2,222	6,229			
do - do - do.							938	64			
do - do - do.							33,931	87,012	80,378		
do - do - do.							3,170	1,195	44,077		
do - do - do.							2,884	7,989	459		
do - do - do.							1,039				

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II. Exports of Cotton and Tobacco from New Orleans during each of the Nine Years ending the 30th of September, 1836.

Whither exported.	Bales of Cotton.									
	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.	1831-32.	1830-31.	1829-30.	1828-29.	1827-28.	1826-27.
Great Britain	226,526	239,123	280,169	221,667	206,383	223,274	196,862	130,514	142,485	163,360
France	133,861	141,872	101,248	82,332	74,136	60,913	50,446	78,770	75,770	61,301
North of Europe	17,998	4,368	9,742	3,339	4,423	9,911	4,213	12,823	8,215	6,779
South of Europe	12,074	6,618	1,864	1,690	5,732	2,400	1,223	6,083	6,083	4,199
Coastwise	97,531	122,434	60,705	94,233	64,728	131,066	56,116	41,017	66,283	66,780
Total	493,001	524,785	492,833	407,230	356,408	424,264	351,990	297,949	304,819	268,240
	Hopsheads of Tobacco.									
Great Britain	15,492	6,339	8,112	4,875	8,448	6,181	7,792	4,507	6,400	8,350
France	1,198	1,460	3,908	55	676	43	959	323	770	770
North of Europe	5,842	4,203	4,610	4,820	7,157	4,815	5,151	3,732	6,336	4,199
South of Europe	1,980	3,962	1,455	424	1,491	2,274	2,274	4,284	4,284	2,763
Coastwise	18,329	20,343	10,448	14,047	15,362	21,240	19,980	8,674	18,599	16,684
Total	43,941	34,305	34,931	23,701	32,874	24,968	28,028	23,491	36,111	24,977

III. Arrivals of Ships, Brigs, Schooners, Sloops, and Steamboats, for Four Years, ending the 30th of September, 1836.

Months.	1835-36.				1834-35.				1833-34.				1832-33.				
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.	
October	48	39	9	111	94	43	39	111	123	74	26	29	0	71	68	31	170
November	65	40	37	142	115	73	37	115	169	101	53	43	1	155	109	81	245
December	69	69	6	144	79	63	56	119	141	59	82	80	1	142	71	65	178
January	32	52	70	154	156	140	55	351	153	136	43	70	0	184	97	56	253
February	57	40	63	160	114	105	49	268	115	118	64	66	0	136	112	52	200
March	39	48	64	151	190	70	65	325	118	87	68	3	0	169	113	61	243
April	63	66	60	189	144	34	65	243	133	104	57	48	0	182	107	46	235
May	58	41	51	150	127	56	53	236	144	108	44	48	2	195	100	46	241
June	18	38	28	84	114	115	49	278	105	54	31	34	0	90	93	27	150
July	18	19	25	62	58	19	20	90	63	6	32	32	1	80	51	20	101
August	30	23	29	82	56	17	22	95	48	4	19	23	1	47	37	15	59
September	35	19	0	54	75	24	18	117	66	69	18	12	15	48	19	17	84
Totals	498	472	537	1,507	1,372	507	480	1,801	1,173	418	507	437	10	1,432	1,005	405	1,243

We are indebted for the above valuable information to the Circular Statement of William Alders, Esq., New Orleans, the 1st of October, 1836.

[For the information which follows concerning the commerce of New Orleans, we are indebted to Hazard's Commercial and Statistical Register.

Imports from the Interior at New Orleans, for Three Years, ending with the 30th September, 1836.

Articles.	1836.			1835.			1834.			Articles.	1836.			1835.			1834.		
	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.
Apples	6,396		24,808		20,825		27,450		7,050	16,728		2,000		12,500		10,000		8,000	
Bacon, assorted	15,084		11,328		7,781		9,615		12,563	20,419		4,111		1,612		1,612		1,612	
Bacon hams	6,119		3,275		3,303		17		17	17		17		17		17		17	
in bulk	180		145		265		813		30	30		30		30		30		30	
Bagging, Kentucky	1,501,900		964,490		1,493,287		218,678		218,678	218,678		218,678		218,678		218,678		218,678	
Bale rope	63,107		52,897		38,116		3,300		10,000	10,000		10,000		10,000		10,000		10,000	
Beans	417		5,973		6,501		615		436	436		436		436		436		436	
Butter	8,475		11,279		8,055		900		600	600		600		600		600		600	
Beeswax	431		978		197		296,097		310,192	310,192		310,192		310,192		310,192		310,192	
in bulk	144		144		121		621		1,236	1,236		1,236		1,236		1,236		1,236	
Boaf	4,250		7,900		563		36,110		25,299	25,299		25,299		25,299		25,299		25,299	
in bulk	10,754		9,151		9,970		180		368	368		368		368		368		368	
in hds.	88,000		44,000		130,642		180		8	8		8		8		8		8	
Buffalo robes	3,562		5,049		5,053		51		157	157		157		157		157		157	
Cotton, Louisiana	477,849		561,225		442,257		207		31	31		31		31		31		31	
Mississippi	18,082		22,900		7,555		415		154	154		154		154		154		154	
Lake	71,467		13,892		11,643		166,113		138,583	138,583		138,583		138,583		138,583		138,583	
North Alabama	7,003		124,496		182,124		1,160		1,523	1,523		1,523		1,523		1,523		1,523	
Arkansas	16,769		11,069		7,101		7,182,173		2,474,078	2,474,078		2,474,078		2,474,078		2,474,078		2,474,078	
Florida	1,080		5,437		1,053		80		80	80		80		80		80		80	
Texas	3,342		5,300		2,845		478		454	454		454		454		454		454	
Corn meal	3,294		5,004		3,004		478		454	454		454		454		454		454	
Corn meal	161,686		263,514		301,321		3,183		2,821	2,821		2,821		2,821		2,821		2,821	
in extra	363,104		169,236		361,871		74		13	13		13		13		13		13	
shelled	815		431		293		970		2,017	2,017		2,017		2,017		2,017		2,017	
Cheese	34		33		33		108		108	108		108		108		108		108	
Candles	184		1,621		797		300		300	300		300		300		300		300	
Cider	34,862		99,230		61,118		68,000		140,000	140,000		140,000		140,000		140,000		140,000	
Coal, western	34		34		34		1,700,000		1,700,000	1,700,000		1,700,000		1,700,000		1,700,000		1,700,000	
Dried peaches	34		34		34		2		2	2		2		2		2		2	
apples	34		34		34		35		35	35		35		35		35		35	
Feathers	497		141		152		152		1,268	1,268		1,268		1,268		1,268		1,268	
Flaxseed	618		141		1,232		118		118	118		118		118		118		118	
Flour	436,257		307,810		264,336		28,318		37,706	37,706		37,706		37,706		37,706		37,706	
in bulk	114		28		1		108		96	96		96		96		96		96	
in hds.	13		80		602		1,368		96	96		96		96		96		96	
in boxes	801		801		801		96		96	96		96		96		96		96	
Olneog	45		45		45		179		179	179		179		179		179		179	
in bags and cases	58		70		70		8,600		8,600	8,600		8,600		8,600		8,600		8,600	
in bulk	3,665		3,000		3,000		1,010		1,010	1,010		1,010		1,010		1,010		1,010	
Hemp	4,014		450		450		1,874		435	435		435		435		435		435	
Hemp yarn	84		84		84		29,849		80,011	80,011		80,011		80,011		80,011		80,011	
Packing yarn	1,640		471		186		2,858		2,858	2,858		2,858		2,858		2,858		2,858	
Wool	19,613		12,273		22,241		17,898		2,927	2,927		2,927		2,927		2,927		2,927	

(New Orleans Free Custom.)

Arrivals of Ships, Brigs, Schooners, Sloops, and Steamboats, for Four Years, ending the 30th of September, 1836.

Months.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.
October	48	39	9	111
November	65	40		

Arrival of Ships, Brigs, Schooners, Sloops, and Steamboats, for Three Years, ending 30th Sept., 1839.

Months.	1838-39.						1837-38.						1836-37.					
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schns.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schns.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schns.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.
October	51	23	31	2	107	60	37	19	15	1	62	74	39	20	23	1	83	117
November	89	45	68	0	197	117	89	35	33	0	157	198	98	28	41	0	107	168
December	86	47	83	0	201	133	45	48	0	193	204	73	87	51	0	0	184	201
January	75	44	64	0	247	161	63	54	2	173	198	36	57	81	0	0	184	146
February	79	44	64	0	208	179	42	41	69	1	143	165	97	58	63	0	158	148
March	75	56	79	0	231	185	63	53	75	3	188	186	33	44	38	0	148	168
April	89	69	99	0	190	196	80	37	72	4	173	150	68	43	62	0	151	155
May	77	30	68	2	169	197	63	50	55	0	198	144	84	45	49	2	180	111
June	14	15	41	3	73	144	57	45	73	4	99	156	18	33	33	0	74	101
July	86	19	47	3	94	78	18	27	29	0	74	79	10	16	25	0	62	92
August	89	10	34	3	64	63	91	93	23	0	64	85	17	21	23	0	61	80
September	18	17	18	1	54	62	25	18	18	0	59	57	25	9	21	1	69	64
Total	670	411	718	28	1825	1673	582	464	654	15	1625	1551	499	480	543	8	1478	1549

(New Orleans Price Current.)

Exports of Cotton, from the port of New Orleans, for the last Three Years, commencing 1st October, and ending 30th September.

Whither exported.	Bales of Cotton.			Whither exported.	Bales of Cotton.		
	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.		1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.
Liverpool	297,774	465,182	535,892	New York	62,991	38,322	24,734
London	8	128	41	Boston	43,912	40,271	36,509
Glasgow and Greenock	7,390	18,147	17,077	Providence, R. I.	4,038	1,807	1,177
Corn, Falmouth, &c.	2,459	48	3,998	Philadelphia	6,150	5,528	6,028
Cork, Belfast, &c.	112,779	110,809	119,410	Baltimore	5,369	4,818	8,044
Havre	1,348	4,497	8,100	Portsmouth	7,171	8,026	5,781
Rotterdam	7,285	7,285	9,110	Other coastwise ports			
Marseilles	2,070	5,527	6,269	Total	690,817	737,189	691,538
Nantes	49	892	753	RECAPITULATION.			
Antwerp	27	816	123	Great Britain	809,769	481,601	335,096
Brussels		1,598	2,762	France	122,452	127,953	133,641
Amsterdam		3,149	2,638	North of Europe	1,648	7,580	8,431
Algeria, &c.	910	3,149	2,638	South of Europe	6,040	14,225	14,225
Hamburg	845	845	1,180	Coastwise	136,111	105,748	85,145
Gothenburg	1,225	4,713	4,300	Total	680,817	737,189	694,538
Saint and Gibraltar	4,259	2,611	2,030				
West India	2,558	7,174	7,976				
Genoa, Trieste, &c.	113	602	233				
Other foreign ports							

Comparative Arrivals, Exports and Stocks of Cotton of New Orleans, for Two Years, commencing 1st October.

Years.	Arrivals.		Exports.		Stocks.		Years.	Arrivals.		Exports.		Stocks.	
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.		Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
1838-39	689,281	580,817	16,307	1833-34	465,103	469,353	407,320	7,406					
1837-38	743,218	737,186	9,842	1832-33	418,833	407,320	7,406						
1836-37	601,475	596,068	15,302	1831-32	348,727	356,406	7,088						
1835-36	498,805	493,005	8,702	1830-31	428,576	424,694	13,697						
1834-35	531,366	534,765	4,842	1829-30	263,611	351,890	9,505						

(New Orleans Price Current.)

Exports of Sugar and Molasses (up the River excepted) for Three Years, ending 30th September, 1839.

Whither exported.	1838-39.				1837-38.				1836-37.			
	Sugar.		Molasses.		Sugar.		Molasses.		Sugar.		Molasses.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York	8,913	229	7,994	3,894	10,999	75	4,827	8,018	11,999	68	5,178	5,848
Philadelphia	4,714	125	173	692	5,423	-	782	798	5,257	19	397	408
Charleston, S. C.	1,593	97	863	2,844	1,570	-	691	3,696	1,774	171	246	3,245
Savannah	670	30	182	1,174	404	81	1,922	450	-	-	-	2,947
Providence and Bristol, R. I.	5	9	270	696	28	-	898	162	-	-	62	1,155
Baltimore	1,812	131	456	328	645	-	327	1,898	825	86	-	737
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.	6,914	398	1,734	3,532	4,418	-	1,216	6,553	4,889	120	281	5,431
Alexandria, D. C.	6	6	-	331	166	-	770	239	-	-	-	575
Mobila	1,895	140	-	909	59	-	108	-	-	-	-	368
Andalucia and Pensacola	490	232	1,353	398	1,219	15	908	229	1,034	3	1,804	
Other Ports	475	1,174	1,387	1,548	232	1,928	1,610	2,474	70	679	923	1,542
Total	29,143	3,011	13,115	20,415	98,098	3,602	10,144	27,133	27,681	9,269	6,328	28,324

(New Orleans Price Current.)

Exports of Tobacco, from the port of New Orleans, for the last Three Years, commencing 1st October, and ending 30th September.

Whither exported.	Hogheads of Tobacco.			Whither exported.	Hogheads of Tobacco.		
	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.		1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.
Liverpool	8,937	2,737	2,003	New York	7,846	10,072	4,207
London	3,723	3,578	1,609	Boston	3,916	2,599	9,510
Glasgow and Greenock	37	-	-	Philadelphia	1,935	1,952	1,316
Corn, Falmouth, &c.	671	3,093	6,492	Baltimore	298	604	647
Havre	1,465	2,558	2,386	Other coastwise ports	225	579	870
Rotterdam	100	1,781	859	Total	89,630	97,078	82,725
Marseilles	-	-	312	RECAPITULATION.			
Nantes	-	-	124	Great Britain	8,570	10,031	5,104
Antwerp	1,251	2,035	3,320	France	1,945	5,143	3,717
Amsterdam	-	-	718	North of Europe	2,338	3,973	6,344
Algeria, &c.	-	-	518	South of Europe	4,418	3,396	6,180
Hamburg	939	806	674	Coastwise	12,518	15,663	10,350
Gothenburg	3,014	1,941	1,242	Total	29,630	37,078	31,725
Saint and Gibraltar	619	791	1,242				
West India	609	503	612				
Genoa, Trieste, &c.	313	198	612				
Other foreign ports							

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Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Tobacco of New Orleans, for Ten Years, commencing 1st October.

Years.	Arrivals. Hhds.	Exports. Hhds.	Stock. Hhds.	Years.	Arrivals. Hhds.	Exports. Hhds.	Stock. Hhds.
1839-39	28,310	29,080	845	1839-34	24,903	24,931	316
1837-38	37,706	37,076	2,901	1838-33	21,301	23,701	717
1836-37	28,196	32,725	1,511	1831-32	30,015	32,074	3,257
1835-36	49,934	43,941	7,377	1830-31	32,708	34,903	6,416
1831-35	35,890	34,363	1,284	1829-30	33,781	28,028	9,499

Comparative Number of Vessels, in the Port of New Orleans.

	September 30, 1839.	1838.	1837.	1836.	1835.	1834.	1833.
Ships,	17	20	26	42	35	11	16
Barks,	1	2	4	2	2	0	6
Brigs,	17	15	8	17	24	11	15
Schooners,	21	38	18	24	25	13	20
Total,	56	76	56	85	76	45	57

An Ordinance Concerning the Levee Duties in and for the Port of New Orleans.—The General Council of the Municipalities of New Orleans, in conformity with the 20th section of the Act of Incorporation, approved 8th March, 1836, ordain as follows:

Article 1. The levee or wharfage duties on ships and other decked vessels, and on steam vessels arriving from sea, shall be fixed as follows:

On each sea vessel under 75 tons,	-	-	-	-	-	\$12
of 75 and under 100 tons,	-	-	-	-	-	15
100	-	-	-	-	-	20
125	-	-	-	-	-	25
150	-	-	-	-	-	30
200	-	-	-	-	-	40
250	-	-	-	-	-	50
300	-	-	-	-	-	55
350	-	-	-	-	-	60
400	-	-	-	-	-	65
450	-	-	-	-	-	75
500	-	-	-	-	-	85
600	-	-	-	-	-	95
650	-	-	-	-	-	110
700	-	-	-	-	-	120
over 750	-	-	-	-	-	130

Art. 2. The payment of these duties shall be exacted and collected by the municipality within whose limits such vessels may have moored, after their arrival from sea in port; and an extra duty of one third of these rates shall be paid by all vessels which may remain in port over two months, the same to be recovered at the commencement of the third month; and if they remain in port four months, then they shall pay a further additional wharfage of one third of said rates, at the commencement of the fifth month, and be privileged to remain until the expiration of six months from date of original arrival and mooring, without a further charge being imposed on them.

Art. 3. When any vessel shall be removed from that division of the port in which it shall have originally paid duty, to another division of said port, under the jurisdiction of another municipality, said latter municipality shall be entitled to receive from the municipality to which said duty has been paid in the following ratio, viz.:

One half of the duty actually paid or due, if said vessel have not remained longer than fifteen days in that part of the port in which it was first moored; one third, if said vessel have remained longer than fifteen days, but not more than twenty-five days; but if beyond twenty-five days, not any part of said duty shall be recovered. Nevertheless, the municipality in whose limits said vessel shall afterwards be moored, shall have the right to levy and collect the extra duty of one third of the rates mentioned in Article 1, on the conditions mentioned in Article 2; provided, that no further charge or extra duty shall be exacted from any vessel which may have removed from one part of the port to another, for the mere purposes of forthwith proceeding to sea.

Art. 4. All vessels or steamboats coming from sea, which, after their arrival in port shall proceed to, and return from any plantation, or other place, with a cargo, or part of a cargo, of any kind of produce whatever, and shall again enter the port for the purpose of discharging the same, shall pay, on returning from any such trip, a levee duty of eight dollars over and above the duties fixed by the last article of this ordinance, the same to be collected by the municipality within whose limits said vessels may discharge said produce.

Art. 5. The levee duties on steam vessels navigating on the river, and which shall moor and land in any part of the incorporated limits of the port, shall be fixed as follows:

On each steamer under 75 tons,	-	-	-	-	-	\$ 8
of 75 and under 100 tons,	-	-	-	-	-	12
100	-	-	-	-	-	18
150	-	-	-	-	-	20
200	-	-	-	-	-	25
250	-	-	-	-	-	30
300	-	-	-	-	-	35
350	-	-	-	-	-	40
400	-	-	-	-	-	45
450	-	-	-	-	-	50
500	-	-	-	-	-	55
over 550	-	-	-	-	-	60

Art. 6. All steam vessels employed as packets, and plying regularly between this port and ports in the Gulf of Mexico, including Havana, shall pay no other or higher rate of wharfage than is imposed by this ordinance on steamboats navigating the Mississippi.

Art. 7. The duties specified in the preceding article, shall be paid on the mooring and landing of said steamers in port, by their captains or other agents, to the officer entrusted with their collection by the municipality within whose limits said vessels shall have moored and landed.

Art. 8. After the payment of these duties, said steamers shall be entitled to remain thirty days in that part of the port which may have been designated by the municipality to which it belongs; and any steamer remaining over thirty consecutive days, shall pay an additional duty of two dollars per day, until its final departure from port, the same to be collected daily; and if any steamer leaves in

first landing place, to take duty of two dollars per day removed, whether said

Art. 9. Steamers employed whole or any part of the same duty as in specie

Art. 10. Two boats shall per officer of the municipality

Art. 11. The following and other raft, crafts, etc. On each flat boat, etc. any kind, - - - - -

On each barge, measure On all barges, keel and On all boats not descri

On each coasting pirog The owners or keepers of \$1 per day.

On their being broken On each steamer, or on On rafts of timber not

On each raft of measure On each craft measuring description of merchant

On all craft exceeding duty of - - - - -

Art. 12. All boats or oars, or any and every o market, shall be entire

of craft, otherwise the according to the tariff sh

Art. 13. The time allo goes in port, shall be fix

And less than 70 feet b And in the event of an

place of landing, they sh of twelve days shall hav

The time allowed for is fixed at twelve days

boats shall be taken out each day they may be fo

ers or consignees of said with the dispositions of

sal, on the evidence of t into effect. Provided, th

municipalities of the rig up and used within any

Art. 14. It is hereby ex cause to be sold, on board

spiruous liquors in quar said fine to be paid by t

It is also expressly for craft, under the penalty

Art. 15. All barges, the part of the port assigne

goods or merchandise by less, excepting sugar, m

than \$50 nor exceeding Art. 16. In case any p

signees, or the date of officers of the several n

or persons so contraven for each contravention.

Art. 17. It shall be ob rowers, and keepers of

their respective vessels municipality, in order

from one division of the Art. 18. All the fines

which any contraventi of the wharfage, and t

they be restituted, then test jurisdiction.

Art. 19. It shall be a to the comptroller there day enter and moor w

shall be carefully filed regular rotation of dat

Art. 20. Be it further wharfage collectors of

custom-house, a recor from sea, specifying th

three marginal spaces shall be from time to

testing that they hav the expense of procur

equal proportions.

Art. 21. Be it also ordained, that, in the event of the resignation or suspension of any officer or officers employed as collectors of any of the branches of the revenues belonging to either of the municipalities, he or they shall be forthwith required to deliver up to the treasurer of the municipality whence his or their appointment was derived, all his or their books, accounts, and vouchers appertaining thereto.

Art. 22. The present ordinance shall be put in force in ten days after its promulgation by the Mayor; and the execution of such dispositions thereof as relate to the police of the port, shall specially belong to the officers appointed by each of the municipalities for this purpose.

Art. 23. All previous ordinances, or parts of ordinances relative to levee dues, and to the police of the port, and which may be at variance with, or opposed to, the provisions of the present ordinance, shall be, and the same are hereby repealed.—(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

The following are the rates imposed on every description of merchandise, by an ordinance of the general council of New Orleans, which was put in execution on the first day of November, 1839.

	Cents.		Cents.
On each bale of cotton, hay, or moss	6	On each box of tin plates	6
On each hoghead of sugar	10	On each bale, box, case, iron, or other package of less weight and dimensions than a bale of blankets, including wool, candles, &c.	6
On each hoghead of molasses	10	On each pipe of wine, brandy, or other liquor, exceeding 60 gallons	6
On each hoghead of tobacco	121-2	On each cask of wine, brandy, or other liquor, of 60 gallons or less	6
On each 1,000 feet of lumber or 1,000 staves	121-2	On each case, basket, or box of wine, cordials, liquors, and oil, containing one dozen bottles	1
On each barrel of flour, whiskey, spirits of any kind, beef, pork, potatoes, onions, lime, or other articles packed in barrels, except lead, iron, or other articles of great weight	6	On each case, basket, or box of wine, cordials, liquors, oil, &c., containing more than one dozen bottles, then in proportion to that excess (say two cents per dozen).	1
On each cask of hams, hams, &c.	6	On bulk pork, per ton of 2,000 lbs.	1
On each ton of pig lead, pig iron, iron and copper nails, iron articles, coal, salt, slates, flag stones, bricks, paving, curb, and gutter stone, stone, bar iron, sand or ballast, or other articles of great weight, computing the ton at 2,000 lbs.	15	On each case of copper	1
On each keg of trest, butter, &c.	1	On each bag of coffee	1
On each firkin of do.	2	On each box of sugar	1
On each piece of bagging, coil hals rope, packing yarn, &c.	21-2	On each empty hoghead, staves, bundle of shims, buckets, &c.	1
On each pack or small truss of skins, sack of corn, corn meal, oats, bran, or stir grain	21-2	On all packages of more value, not particularly described in the foregoing tariff, shall be charged with port or wharfage duty as near as may be in conformity with the provisions of this ordinance, and on the scale specified therein, to wit, at the rate of three cents for every four cubic feet.—(<i>Am. Ad.</i>)	1
On each crate of brilles	6		
On each bale of blankets, or articles packed in bales, or cases of the hulk and weight thereof (say 400 lbs.)	6		

There were in this city, in 1830, 4 banks, with a capital of 9,000,000 dollars, exclusive of a branch of the Bank of the United States, having a capital of 1,000,000 dollars. The aggregate amount of dividends on bank stock during that year amounted to 542,400 dollars. But one of the banks, having a capital of 2,500,000, had only commenced; and as the whole capital of another bank had not been paid up, the dividend was really the produce of a capital of 6,750,000 dollars; being at the rate of 8.03 per cent. thereon. In April, 1835, there were 10 banks in the city having an aggregate paid up capital of 26,422,145 dollars, exclusive of about 6,000,000 to be paid in. There were, in 1830, 6 insurance companies in the city, having an aggregate capital of 2,400,000 dollars.—*Statement by J. H. Goddard, Esq., New York Daily Advertiser, 29th of January, 1831; and Letter by the Secretary of the Treasury, 2d of January, 1836.*

For *Monies, Weights, and Measures*, see *New York*.

NEWSPAPERS. Publications in numbers, consisting commonly of single sheets, and published at short and stated intervals, conveying intelligence of passing events.

Importance and Value of Newspapers in a Commercial Point of View.—It is foreign to the purposes of this work to consider the moral and political effects produced by newspapers: of the extent of their influence there is no doubt, even among those who differ widely as to its effect. Their utility to commerce is, however, unquestionable. The advertisements they circulate, though these announcements are limited in Great Britain by a heavy duty, the variety of facts and information they contain as to the supply and demand of commodities in all quarters of the world, their prices, and the regulations by which they are affected, render newspapers indispensable to commercial men, supersede a great mass of epistolary correspondence, raise merchants in remote places towards an equality, in point of information, with those in the great marts, and wonderfully quicken all the movements of commerce. But newspapers themselves have become a considerable commercial article in Great Britain. In the year 1830, the produce of the stamp duty, deducting the discount levied on newspapers, was 410,930*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* The gross produce of the sale must have been more than double this sum, without allowing for the papers sold at a higher price than 7*d.*; so that the consumption of newspapers must have amounted, in that year, to nearly 1,000,000*l.* sterling.

Newspapers, in London, are sold by the publishers to newsmen or newsvenders, by whom they are distributed to the purchasers in town and country. The newsmen, who are the retailers, receive, for their business of distribution, a regulated allowance. The papers which are sold to the public at 7*d.*, which form the great mass of London newspapers, are sold to the newsmen in what are technically called quires. Each quire consists of 27 papers, and is sold to the newsmen for 13*s.*; so that the newsmen's gross profit on 27 papers is 2*s.* 9*d.* In some instances, where newspapers are sent by the post, 3*d.* additional on each paper is charged by the newsmen to their country customers. Some of the clerks at the post-office, called clerks of the roads, are considerable news-agents. The stamp duty on a newspaper is, at present, nominally 4*d.*; but a discount is allowed on those papers which are sold at a price not exceeding 7*d.*, of 20 per cent., which reduces the stamp duty actually paid to 3*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Each paper being sold to the newsmen at a little less than 5*l.* 3*d.*, the sum which is received by the newspaper proprietors for paper, printing, and the expenses of their establishments, is a small fraction more than 2*l.* 3*d.* for each copy. Advertisements form a considerable source

of profit to newspaper could not support the function of length, wit was 3*s.* 6*d.* In 1832 15,242*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* in New sum derived from new should under-estimate advertisements are pr The sum received for Newspaper stamps tioners to be stamped advertisements, which monthly; and, for se moderate sums.

The London news which they contain, t ray and copiousness penitence and consid obtained by a success of 1/2 of an hour, or oc with less than 10 rep part of a morning ne

Regulations as to New newspaper, until an affi abode of the printer, pu paper, and a description paper is to be delivered The act 39 Geo. 3. c. 7 presses, shall be enterd types or presses must, if A printer is bound to and lost abest of every also required to keep a of his employe; and al Persons publishing pe carried before a magist to search for printing pr may carry them off, tog The 1 Geo. 4. c. 9. ena for 3 days, containing p taining more than 2 she be subject to the same

Influence of the T the stamp laws, to a cannot afford so larg with others, are oblig that are circulated in but it may be doubte not at present suffici papers seem, howeve the free and open cir the least reputable p unfrequently make t The better way, the principle, making it, one sold at 2*d.*, 3*d.* vantage would res attaches to low-price tenuous to write in t seems probable that more utterly worthl racter; and if so, th apprehend, introduc tects, which is foun into the same jour treated in a low-pri versant with its prim care nothing for the not occupy a promi daily served up to t proposed system w

of profit to newspapers; and without this source, some of the most widely circulated of them could not support their great expenditure. Each advertisement is now charged, without distinction of length, with a government duty of 1s. 6d.; but until last year (1833), the duty was 3s. 6d. In 1832, the advertisements produced 155,400*l.* 16s. in Great Britain, and 15,248*l.* 17s. 4d. in Ireland. We have no means of ascertaining exactly the portion of this sum derived from newspapers, as distinguished from other publications, but we believe we should under-estimate it by taking it at 3-4ths of the whole. The charges of newspapers for advertisements are proportioned to their length, and to the character of the newspaper itself. The sum received for them may now be taken, inclusive of the duty, at 200,000*l.*

Newspaper stamps are obtained at the Stamp Office, where the paper is sent by the stationers to be stamped. The stamps are paid for before the paper is returned. The duty on advertisements, which is also under the management of the commissioners of stamps, is paid monthly; and, for securing these payments, the printer and 2 sureties become bound in moderate sums.

The London newspapers have become remarkable for the great mass and variety of matter which they contain, the rapidity with which they are printed and circulated, and the accuracy and copiousness of their reports of debates. These results are obtained by a large expenditure and considerable division of labour. The reports of parliamentary proceedings are obtained by a succession of able and intelligent reporters, who relieve each other at intervals of 3 of an hour, or occasionally less. A newspaper cannot aim at copious and correct reports with less than 10 reporters for the House of Commons; and the expense of that particular part of a morning newspaper's establishment exceeds 3,000*l.* per annum.

Regulations as to Newspapers.—The 38 Geo. 3. c. 78. enacts, that no person shall print or publish a newspaper, until an affidavit has been delivered at the Stamp Office, stating the name and place of abode of the printer, publisher, and proprietor; specifying the amount of the shares, the title of the paper, and a description of the building in which it is intended to be printed. A copy of every newspaper is to be delivered within 6 days, to the commissioner of stamps, under a penalty of 100*l.*

The act 39 Geo. 3. c. 79. requires that the name of every printer, type founder, and maker of printing-presses, shall be entered with the clerk of the peace, under a penalty of 20*l.*; and every person selling types or presses must, if required by a justice of the peace, state to whom they are sold.

A printer is bound to print, upon the front of every page printed on one side only, and upon the first and last sheet of every publication containing more than 1 leaf, his name and place of abode. He is also required to keep a copy of every work he prints, on which shall be written or printed the name of his employer; and shall produce the same to any justice, if required, within 6 months.

Persons publishing papers without the name and abode of the printer may be apprehended, and carried before a magistrate; and a peace officer, by a warrant of justice of peace, may enter any place to search for printing presses or types suspected to be kept without the notice required by the act, and may carry them off, together with all printed papers found in the place.

The 1 Geo. 4. c. 9. enacts, that all periodical pamphlets or papers, published at intervals not exceeding 3 days, containing public news, intelligence, or occurrences, or any remarks thereon, and not containing more than 2 sheets, or published for less price than 6d., shall be deemed newspapers, and shall be subject to the same regulations and stamp duties.

Influence of the Tax on Newspapers.—At present it is impossible, without a violation of the stamp laws, to sell newspapers under 7*d.* or 7½*d.*; so that those poorer persons, who cannot afford so large a sum, or who have no means of getting a newspaper, in company with others, are obliged either to be without one, or to resort to those low priced journals that are circulated in defiance of the law. It has been proposed to reduce the duty to 2*d.*; but it may be doubted whether this would be any improvement, and whether the duty be not at present sufficiently low on a paper sold at 7*d.* or upwards. All fixed duties on newspapers seem, however, to be essentially objectionable, inasmuch as, by effectually hindering the free and open circulation of the cheaper sort, they throw their supply into the hands of the least reputable portion of the community, who circulate them surreptitiously, and not unfrequently make them vehicles for diffusing doctrines of the most dangerous tendency. The better way, therefore, would be to assess the duty on newspapers on an *ad valorem* principle, making it, in all cases, 50 per cent., that is, 6*d.* on a newspaper sold at 1*s.*, 1*d.* on one sold at 2*d.*, ½*d.* on one sold at 1*d.*, and so on, proportionally to the price. Several advantages would result from such a plan. It would remove the unjust stigma that now attaches to low-priced papers; and men of talent and principle would find it equally advantageous to write in them as in those of a higher price. Were such an alteration made, it seems probable that the present two-penny papers, than which nothing can be conceived more utterly worthless, would, very soon, be superseded by others of a very different character; and if so, the change would be in the highest degree beneficial. It would also, we apprehend, introduce into newspaper compiling, that division of labour, or rather of subjects, which is found in every thing else. Instead of having all sorts of matters crammed into the same journal, every different topic of considerable interest would be separately treated in a low-priced paper, appropriated to it only, and conducted by persons fully conversant with its principles and details. Under the present omnivorous system, individuals who care nothing for the theatre are, notwithstanding, unable to procure a paper in which it does not occupy a prominent place; and those who cannot distinguish one tune from another have daily served up to them long dissertations on concerts, operas, oratorios, and so forth. The proposed system would give the power of selecting. Those who preferred an *olla podrida*

III. An Account showing the Number of Stamps issued to each of the Provincial Newspapers in England, in the Year ending the 1st of April, 1835, with the duty on Advertisements paid by the same during the Year ending the 31st of January, 1835.—(Part. Papers, Nos. 569. and 574. Sess. 1833.)

Title of Newspaper.	Number of Stamps.	Advertisement Duty.	Title of Newspaper.	Number of Stamps.	Advertisement Duty.
North Herald	66,000	411 12 0	Leeds Times	8,000	
Chronicle	47,000	428 15 0	Mercury	311,000	1,488 17 6
Journal and Commercial Gazette	64,000	460 18 0	Parier	9,000	177 12 6
See Standard	18,000	150 16 0	Leicester Chronicle	40,400	364 15 0
Northampton Chronicle	27,000	238 16 0	Herald	4,775	80 9 0
Northampton Gazette (Aria's)	181,000	1,891 11 6	Journal	89,500	580 6 0
Journal	118,000	1,038 2 6	Lincoln Herald	11,625	143 16 0
Northampton Gazette	7,340	88 0 8	Lincolnshire Chronicle	26,000	25 14 6
Journal	4,000	180 4 0	Litchfield Mercury	6,750	97 5 0
Northampton Chronicle	42,000	380 6 6	Liverpool Courier	69,800	747 8 0
Northampton Gazette	10,000	178 15 6	Albion	85,000	1,281 4 6
Northampton Chronicle	26,000	498 9 6	Mercantile Advertiser	49,500	1,730 16 0
Northampton Gazette	41,000	484 18 0	General Advertiser	172,500	1,278 0 0
Northampton Chronicle	42,000	486 17 6	Mercury	10,400	682 19 0
Northampton Gazette	25,000	445 18 0	Bury Advertiser	39,000	581 11 6
Northampton Chronicle	26,000	798 11 8	Journal	77,000	563 13 6
Northampton Gazette	107,150	804 9 6	Standard	37,000	
Northampton Chronicle	45,387	281 1 0	Times	42,000	416 0 6
Northampton Gazette	7,400	47 6 6	Macclesfield Courier	87,000	326 15 0
Northampton Chronicle	28,448	90 12 0	Malden Gazette	62,600	430 13 6
Northampton Gazette	15,500	180 6 0	Newcastle-on-Tyne Mercury	62,850	436 14 6
Northampton Chronicle	73,800	461 19 0	Newcastle Courant	185,500	3,58 11 8
Northampton Gazette	9,000	91 10 0	Chronicle	47,550	624 7 6
Northampton Chronicle	19,000	581 9 8	Queen	182,000	1,671 1 6
Northampton Gazette	60,100	481 15 0	and Salford Advertiser	168,933	508 11 0
Northampton Chronicle	65,050	173 12 0	ter Herald	132,360	968 7 0
Northampton Gazette	66,000	640 18 0	Mentby Guardian	10,500	
Northampton Chronicle	30,000	298 1 6	Monmouthshire Merlin	38,900	293 18 0
Northampton Gazette	25,000	318 5 6	Newcastle Chronicle	17,000	622 6 0
Northampton Chronicle	18,000	190 4 6	Newcastle-on-Tyne Mercury	33,500	546 12 0
Northampton Gazette	98,000	589 0 6	Newcastle Courant	158,475	1,217 13 0
Northampton Chronicle	13,000	234 6 6	Norfolk Chronicle	68,075	368 16 6
Northampton Gazette	61,000	589 10 0	Herald and East Anglian	28,600	291 14 6
Northampton Chronicle	45,000	490 3 6	Norwich Mercury	86,000	912 18 0
Northampton Gazette	28,000	292 11 6	Northampton Mercury	84,000	318 16 6
Northampton Chronicle	18,000	86 12 6	Free Press	26,500	301 15 6
Northampton Gazette	15,000	98 12 6	Herald	38,000	304 13 6
Northampton Chronicle	228 7 6		Northampton Advertiser	18,800	123 16 6
Northampton Gazette	228 7 6		North Devon Advertiser	11,600	91 4 0
Northampton Chronicle	60,800	293 16 6	Wales Chronicle	17,500	200 9 0
Northampton Gazette	39,628	394 0 6	Nottingham Journal	45,000	444 13 6
Northampton Chronicle	18,000	174 1 0	Review	70,800	875 18 0
Northampton Gazette	26,100	193 18 0	and Newark Mercury	44,000	274 11 6
Northampton Chronicle	55,000	244 13 0	Oxford Herald	46,000	384 17 6
Northampton Gazette	67,600	658 17 6	Journal	171,000	1,171 12 0
Northampton Chronicle	40,800	318 6 6	Plymouth Herald	86,500	336 0 0
Northampton Gazette	32,100	298 13 0	and Devonport Journal	29,000	285 11 6
Northampton Chronicle	86,250	376 0 6	Reading Mercury	81,000	178 18 6
Northampton Gazette	6,000		Reading Mercury	114,700	867 5 6
Northampton Chronicle	83,860	948 6 6	Reading Mercury	3,000	37 18 6
Northampton Gazette	75,700	690 15 0	Reading Mercury	150,000	1,070 16 6
Northampton Chronicle	60,100	324 9 0	Reading Mercury	66,000	619 9 0
Northampton Gazette	47,760	365 13 0	Reading Mercury	34,000	287 8 6
Northampton Chronicle	20,000	115 4 0	Reading Mercury	23,600	91 15 0
Northampton Gazette	27,000	335 3 6	Reading Mercury	37,200	334 1 6
Northampton Chronicle	85,800	851 9 6	Reading Mercury	25,000	291 18 0
Northampton Gazette	26,275	267 12 6	Reading Mercury	43,000	371 0 0
Northampton Chronicle	49,500	480 14 6	Reading Mercury	93,700	682 3 0
Northampton Gazette	75,324	625 7 0	Reading Mercury	15,500	154 10 0
Northampton Chronicle	107,621	189 11 6	Reading Mercury	135,000	719 12 0
Northampton Gazette	102,300	815 4 0	Reading Mercury	54,500	183 1 0
Northampton Chronicle	81,500	800 11 0	Reading Mercury	272,500	1,509 7 6
Northampton Gazette	8,600		Reading Mercury	54,750	197 13 0
Northampton Chronicle	60,000	606 12 6	Reading Mercury	11,000	663 1 6
Northampton Gazette	188,000	801 10 6	Reading Mercury	19,000	338 7 0
Northampton Chronicle	87,850	488 12 6	Reading Mercury	8,800	877 6 6
Northampton Gazette	74,488	571 18 0	Reading Mercury	32,000	365 8 6
Northampton Chronicle	89,250	190 11 6	Reading Mercury	26,300	165 11 0
Northampton Gazette	22,500	318 18 6	Reading Mercury	50,000	409 13 6
Northampton Chronicle	39,000	370 19 6	Reading Mercury	29,300	124 8 0
Northampton Gazette	64,925	644 12 0	Reading Mercury	31,500	280 3 0
Northampton Chronicle	35,000	394 18 0	Reading Mercury	46,500	367 7 0
Northampton Gazette	84,000	647 10 0	Reading Mercury	12,000	100 6 0
Northampton Chronicle	101,000	418 8 6	Reading Mercury	13,000	96 4 6
Northampton Gazette	12,000	196 0 0	Reading Mercury	22,000	200 6 6
Northampton Chronicle	78,000	51 17 0	Reading Mercury	34,000	
Northampton Gazette	37,000	31 17 0	Reading Mercury	41,100	870 10 0
Northampton Chronicle	64,000	458 7 6	Reading Mercury	89,000	666 1 0
Northampton Gazette	23,454	130 13 6	Reading Mercury	75,000	668 6 6
Northampton Chronicle	52,000	194 12 0	Reading Mercury	16,000	83 6 8
Northampton Gazette	39,000	303 8 0	Reading Mercury	130,000	895 14 0
Northampton Chronicle	168,750	1,027 19 0	Reading Mercury	72,500	548 0 6
Northampton Gazette			Reading Mercury	6,150	19 0 0

Note.—This return is founded upon periodical accounts rendered by printers, who procure the stamps at this office for newspapers. The papers marked thus * being the property of 1 person, in whose name the stamps are taken out, the number used for each paper cannot be distinguished.

* We retained the following important paragraph from a note by Mr. Wood, the intelligent chairman of the Board of Stamps, submitted to the Part. Paper, No. 578, Sess. 1835. It shows that the above gives an account of the circulation of country newspapers, and is not such as depended upon. Of course, there are no such inaccuracies in the accounts of advertisements.—

It is to be noted, however, that the returns had been correct transcripts of the books in this office, if it were of remark that they would not have a total accurate information as to the circulation of newspapers. The circumstances hereinafter detailed will show that such returns must be always incomplete and fallacious.

* In the instance of the London newspapers, the account may ap-

proach to invariable correctness, as the stamps are usually obtained by the parties directly from this office; but it may be observed that these papers borrow from each other, and we have also reason to believe that agents of country papers have been seduced by London printers to take out stamps in the name of the latter which were intended for country use; so that, even with regard to the London papers, perfect accuracy cannot be attained.

* But in the case of country papers, still less reliance can be placed on these accounts. The supply of stamps to country papers is effected through London stationers and paper-makers, and sometimes also through country stationers. These persons take out large quantities of stamps, and furnish them, from time to time, to the respective newspapers as required. It is only from the returns made by those stationers that the number of stamps obtained by each country paper are known at this office. The stationers are bound to make these returns, but in general they furnish them with much reluctance and irregularity, and frequently omit them altogether. It is well known

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103 3,808,414
69 3,364,891
94 3,500,423
152 3,472,011
270 3,548,646
209 3,790,273
34 3,933,359
80 4,051,314
69 4,261,000
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that the Board have no means of detecting or punishing any misstatement, and it is therefore believed that, even when furnished, bills regard a paid to accuracy.
 "The trouble occasioned at this office might not be a consideration, if the returns were really a source of useful and authentic information. But the preceding observations show that no useful re-

ports arise; on the contrary, such returns constitute a needless expenditure from persons whose circulation is under-rated, and on whom pressure is thus inflicted.
 "It is, therefore, worthy of consideration whether similar returns should in future be allowed."
 - J. W. "

IV. A Return of the Number of Stamps issued by the Stamp Office, for the following London Newspapers, in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Title of Newspapers.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Title of Newspapers.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Age and Star	681,800	465,750	610,500	Mining Journal	-	-	25,000
Albion and Fleet	235,000	201,000	261,000	Municipal Corporation Reformer	-	-	25,000
Atlas	137,500	130,000	160,000	News and Sunday Herald	100,000	94,000	20,000
Bell's Weekly Messenger	582,500	81,000	885,000	Nicholson's Commercial Gazette	-	-	25,000
New Weekly Messenger	245,000	27,975	578,000	New Court Journal	24,200	60,175	25,000
Bell's Monthly Literary Advertiser	1,150	12,975	15,000	Observer; Bell's Life in London	4,850	618,000	202,000
Courier	584,800	688,000	464,500	Old England	25,700	-	-
County Chronicle; County Herald	186,500	130,000	125,000	Gazette United Service	39,000	107,900	-
Court Journal; Naval and Military Gazette	148,000	192,000	107,558	Gazette & Survey Standard	-	-	150,000
Christian Advocate	73,200	77,914	89,300	Patent	99,500	130,000	100,000
Cobbett's Weekly Political Register	72,750	54,304	65,000	Ferry's Bankrupt and Insolvent Gazette	13,295	13,304	14,700
Cors Trade Circular	3,280	1,070	15,300	Public Ledger	95,250	262,100	252,500
Circular to Bankers	12,000	11,850	15,300	Record	26,825	25,000	27,000
Course of the Exchange	3,760	300	300	Racing Calendar	-	-	25,000
Examiner	212,185	178,889	178,550	Standard; St. James's Chronicle; London Packet;	1,500,000	1,479,200	1,619,700
Financial and Commercial Record	3,540	1,830	2,888	London Weekly Journal	601,500	600,000	760,000
Globe and Traveller	1,082,000	1,016,000	915,000	Sun	388,000	386,000	260,000
Guardian and Public Ledger; British Traveller; Weekly Times	130,500	27,000	-	Sunday Times; Essex and Herts Mercury	-	-	25,000
Guardian and Public Ledger; General Advertiser for Town and Country	-	115,000	95,000	Herald and Marie's Weekly Register	25,000	-	-
John Bull	305,000	284,738	240,500	Herald and United Kingdom	37,000	-	-
London Gazette	125,000	130,000	140,000	Spectator	105,233	101,500	-
Mercantile Journal; Mercantile Prices Current ("Prices")	4,500	1,500	2,250	Spectator; Municipal Corporation Reformer	-	-	60,000
New Prices Current ("Nicholson's")	14,031	8,727	88	Spectator	130,000	220,500	250,000
Literary Gazette	36,558	30,700	28,475	Straits	2,671,491	3,240,468	2,740,000
Law Chronicle; Law Gazette	4,050	4,650	1,800,800	Sun; Evening Mail	561,000	688,500	508,500
Morning Advertiser	1,175,000	1,164,500	-	Truth	42,800	18,500	-
Chronicle; Observer; Englishman; Bell's Life in London	1,568,282	731,997	-	Trade List	178,500	-	400
Chronicle	-	339,300	-	United Kingdom Universal Corn Reporter	11,000	6,075	1,200,000
Chronicle; Evening Herald; English Chronicle	2,602,000	2,612,007	2,248,003	Weekly Dispatch	1,615,642	1,484,169	-
Chronicle	678,000	727,000	608,000	Dispatch (The New)	20,550	-	-
News and Public Ledger	-	164,500	-	Liberator; British and American Intelligencer	-	54,056	-
Mark Lane Express; New Farmers' Journal	67,890	65,450	68,100	Watchman	-	-	12,000

N.B. The foregoing are all 4 d. stamps, with the exception of the General Advertiser for Town and Country, and Bell's Monthly Literary Advertiser, which are 2 d.
 Where 2 or more papers appear together, they were published by one and the same party, in whose names the stamps were taken out. The number furnished for each paper could not, therefore, be distinguished.

V. An Account of the Sums paid by the Publishers of the following London Newspapers, for the Duty on Advertisements in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Title of Paper.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Title of Paper.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Age	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	Morning Chronicle	2,269 0 6	1,627 10 6	4,700 0 0
Albion	400 11 0	230 15 6	428 3 8	News	6,916 14 0	4,470 3 0	4,700 0 0
Atlas	390 8 9	245 1 8	245 4 8	Herald	4,319 16 6	2,568 4 6	3,009 15 6
Bell's Life in London	185 9 4	109 10 0	150 16 8	Naval & Military Gazette	96 5 0	108 12 0	210 11 0
British Liberator	89 9 6	1 5 4	-	News	171 16 0	108 10 0	38 11 0
Traveller and American Intelligencer	304 18 6	-	19 1 6	New Court Journal	61 5 6	3 16 6	20 11 6
Champion	-	17 6 8	-	Farmers' Journal	-	-	-
Christian Advocate	124 3 8	50 19 6	66 15 0	Weekly Dispatch	169 16 0	116 11 0	159 7 6
Cobbett's Register	95 10 0	19 0 0	3 11 0	Weekly Messenger	601 1 0	293 13 0	309 1 0
Commercial Gazette	7 4 0	9 12 0	6 19 0	Observer	86 3 0	70 5 0	59 14 0
Commercial Record	14 14 8	5 2 0	7 9 0	Patent	301 5 0	180 1 0	150 8 0
County Chronicle	470 0 0	244 1 6	246 6 8	Public Ledger	-	-	1,671 0 0
Herald	188 9 8	114 0 0	102 4 6	Racing Calendar	109 4 6	56 9 0	54 19 0
Courier	1,962 0 6	1,156 8 9	1,248 19 8	Record	613 3 0	402 19 0	434 11 0
Court Journal	339 1 0	223 6 8	324 11 0	Saint James's Chronicle	228 6 6	173 10 0	244 11 0
Course of the Exchange	311 0 0	1 10 0	0 16 6	Spectator	600 17 6	400 19 0	368 12 0
Englishman	23 12 8	7 14 6	-	Standard	311 0 0	153 4 6	227 19 6
English Chronicle	24 17 6	24 12 0	30 19 0	Survey Standard	1,108 19 0	623 11 6	1,733 1 6
Evening Chronicle	-	-	71 11 0	Stock List	-	0 16 0	0 16 0
Mail	88 17 6	62 0 8	74 8 8	Sun	1 17 0	444 7 6	600 19 0
Examiner	315 7 0	208 14 6	216 18 0	Sunday Herald	708 10 0	843 18 0	62 0 0
General Advertiser	114 16 0	345 1 6	748 11 8	Times	19 11 0	17 10 0	24 11 0
Globe and Traveller	1,648 1 0	1,098 10 0	1,078 9 6	Times	649 19 0	396 17 0	558 5 6
Guardian & Public Ledger	5,573 17 6	769 19 0	-	Town and Country Advertiser	12,555 1 8	8,680 7 6	7,946 1 8
Herts and Essex Mercury	215 3 0	149 5 0	158 0 0	Truth	108 9 0	94 5 6	-
John Bull	680 19 0	382 7 0	419 15 0	United Kingdom	-	-	227 0 0
Law Chronicle	0 1 6	0 19 6	0 12 0	Service Gazette	61 15 6	74 11 0	40 12 0
Literary Advertiser	114 16 0	345 1 6	748 11 8	Universal Corn Reporter	0 17 0	19 12 6	47 11 0
London Gazette	323 19 6	319 0 0	313 5 0	Weekly True Sun	118 0 0	127 14 0	47 11 0
London Journal	96 11 0	14 12 6	15 12 0	Dispatch	661 17 6	899 19 0	363 2 0
Mercantile Journal	6 11 6	5 18 0	-	Messenger	447 5 0	307 19 0	273 2 0
Mark Lane Express	81 19 6	53 12 0	90 10 6	World	-	-	80 0 0
Maria's Weekly Register	78 3 6	-	20 5 0	Watchman	-	-	110 11 0
Mining Journal	-	-	20 5 0				
Morning Advertiser	4,564 6 0	2,795 3 6	2,264 12 0				

VI.—An Account of the Number of Stamps issued by the Stamp Office, for the following London Newspapers, in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Title of Newspapers.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Christian Journal	-	-	25,000
Dublin Evening Mail	-	-	25,000
Evening Post	-	-	25,000
Gazette	-	-	25,000
Mercantile Advertiser	-	-	25,000
Evening Packet	-	-	25,000
Evening Freeman	-	-	25,000
Daily Freeman	-	-	25,000
Morning Register	-	-	25,000
Money's Circular	-	-	25,000
Overseer	-	-	25,000
Pilot	-	-	25,000
Racing Calendar	-	-	25,000
Record	-	-	25,000
Salisbury	-	-	25,000
Standard's News Letter	-	-	25,000
Standard's Dispatch	-	-	25,000
United Service Journal	-	-	25,000
Warder	-	-	25,000
Weekly Freeman	-	-	25,000

Title of Newspapers.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Antislavery	-	-	25,000
Belfast Commercial Chronicle	-	-	25,000
News Letter	-	-	25,000
Northern Whig	-	-	25,000
Guardian	-	-	25,000
Northern Herald	-	-	25,000
Athlone and Westmeath Athlone Independent	-	-	25,000
Sentinel	-	-	25,000
Westmeath Guardian	-	-	25,000
Cork	-	-	25,000
Cork Constitution	-	-	25,000
Evening Herald	-	-	25,000
Southern Reporter	-	-	25,000
People's Press	-	-	25,000
Mercantile Chronicle	-	-	25,000
Ballyshannon Herald	-	-	25,000
Down	-	-	25,000
Newry Telegraph	-	-	25,000
Examiner	-	-	25,000
Drogheda	-	-	25,000
Drogheda Journal	-	-	25,000
Argus	-	-	25,000
Fermanagh and Cavan	-	-	25,000
Enniskillen Chronicle	-	-	25,000
Imperial Reporter	-	-	25,000
Enniskilliner	-	-	25,000
Galway	-	-	25,000
Connaught Journal	-	-	25,000
Galway Weekly Advertiser	-	-	25,000

VII.—An Account of the Gross Amount of the Duty on Advertisements in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Year.	England.
1833	£. s. d.
1834	328,419 10 11
1835	331,000 11 6
1836	345,902 1 8
1837	362,641 4 4
1838	373,500 0 0
1839	383,414 3 6
1840	393,528 15 9
1841	404,104 4 0
1842	414,218 0 0
1843	424,332 0 0
1844	434,446 0 0
1845	444,560 0 0
1846	454,674 0 0
1847	464,788 0 0
1848	474,902 0 0
1849	485,016 0 0
1850	495,130 0 0
1851	505,244 0 0
1852	515,358 0 0
1853	525,472 0 0
1854	535,586 0 0
1855	545,700 0 0

NEWSPAPERS.

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VI.—An Account of the Number of Stamps issued to each Newspaper in Ireland, respectively, from the 5th of January, 1835, to the 5th of January, 1836.—(Parl. Paper, No. 146. Sess. 1836.)

Title of Newspaper.		No. of Stamps issued.	Title of Newspaper.		No. of Stamps issued.
Dublin Newspapers.					
Christian Journal	- - - -	12,500	Country Newspapers—continued.		
Dublin Evening Mail	- - - -	424,224	Galway :		
Evening Post	- - - -	184,000	Patriot - - - -	- - - -	14,725
Gazette	- - - -	11,000	Irishman - - - -	- - - -	1,100
Mercantile Advertiser	- - - -	17,500	Kerry :		
Evening Packet	- - - -	232,500	Kerry Evening Post - - - -	- - - -	9,025
Evening Freeman	- - - -	53,500	Western Herald - - - -	- - - -	5,000
Daily Freeman	- - - -	165,500	Tralee Mercury - - - -	- - - -	12,400
Morning Register	- - - -	247,000	Kilkenny and Carlow :		
Mooney's Circular	- - - -	2,500	Kilkenny Journal - - - -	- - - -	18,850
Overseer	- - - -	100,627	Moderator - - - -	- - - -	22,450
Phil.	- - - -	132,000	Carlow Morning Post - - - -	- - - -	1,525
Racing Calendar	- - - -	1,210	Sentinel - - - -	- - - -	15,650
Record	- - - -	28,340	King's and Queen's Counties :		
Satirist	- - - -	69,708	Linhart Express - - - -	- - - -	22,050
Saunders's News Letter	- - - -	444,000	Independent - - - -	- - - -	17,225
Stewart's Dispatch	- - - -	40,311	Limerick and Clare :		
United Service Journal	- - - -	20,835	Limerick Chronicle - - - -	- - - -	174,100
Wander	- - - -	109,489	Star and Evening Post - - - -	- - - -	40,000
Weekly Freeman	- - - -	104,000	Evening Herald - - - -	- - - -	9,458
			Times - - - -	- - - -	18,975
		2,392,204	Clare Journal - - - -	- - - -	11,494
Country Newspapers.					
Londonderry :					
Belfast Commercial Chronicle	- - - -	120,000	Londonderry Sentinel - - - -	- - - -	54,700
News Letter - - - -	- - - -	114,000	Journal - - - -	- - - -	26,490
Northern Whig - - - -	- - - -	88,550	Mayo :		
Guardian - - - -	- - - -	69,525	Ballina Impartial - - - -	- - - -	6,420
Northern Herald - - - -	- - - -	51,825	Mayo Constitution - - - -	- - - -	19,755
Athlone and Westmeath :			Telegraph - - - -	- - - -	24,025
Athlone Independent - - - -	- - - -	6,825	Western Star - - - -	- - - -	725
Sentinel - - - -	- - - -	9,100	Longford and Roscommon :		
Westmeath Guardian - - - -	- - - -	5,367	Roscommon Gazette - - - -	- - - -	6,875
Cork :			Journal - - - -	- - - -	6,349
Cork Constitution - - - -	- - - -	150,675	Siligo :		
Evening Herald - - - -	- - - -	28,350	Siligo Journal - - - -	- - - -	7,975
Southern Reporter - - - -	- - - -	189,700	Tipperary :		
People's Press - - - -	- - - -	12,029	Clonmell Advertiser - - - -	- - - -	16,950
Mercantile Chronicle - - - -	- - - -	30,001	Herald - - - -	- - - -	7,850
Donegal :			Tipperary Free Press - - - -	- - - -	29,750
Ballyshannon Herald - - - -	- - - -	7,185	Constitution - - - -	- - - -	6,000
Down :			Tyrone :		
Newry Telegraph - - - -	- - - -	62,650	Strabane Morning Post - - - -	- - - -	4,324
Examiner - - - -	- - - -	59,311	Waterford :		
Drogheda :			Waterford Chronicle - - - -	- - - -	42,050
Drogheda Journal - - - -	- - - -	25,248	Mirror - - - -	- - - -	21,000
Argus - - - -	- - - -	4,345	Mail - - - -	- - - -	32,575
Fenagh and Cavan :			Wexford :		
Eniskillen Chronicle - - - -	- - - -	9,650	Wexford Freeman - - - -	- - - -	16,500
Impartial Reporter - - - -	- - - -	10,050	Independent - - - -	- - - -	33,000
Eniskilliner - - - -	- - - -	6,900	Conservative - - - -	- - - -	21,625
Galway :			Dublin Newspapers, brought forward		1,000,775
Connaught Journal - - - -	- - - -	3,300			2,392,204
Galway Weekly Advertiser - - - -	- - - -	20,635	Total	- - - -	4,292,570

VII.—An Account of the Gross Produce of the Duties on Newspapers and Advertisements during each of the undermentioned Years, in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Year ending 5th of January.	Newspapers.						Advertisements.					
	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		England.		Scotland.		Ireland.	
	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.
1811	328	11 10 11	21,289	7 8	11,546	19 1	15,041	8 0	15,723	11 7	20,479	5 8
1812	323,095	0 0	21,054	13 9	114,105	11 6	14,357	9 0	20,479	5 8	20,479	5 8
1813	345,992	1 8	22,940	6 8	116,870	16 3	14,448	6 0	20,916	5 10	20,916	5 10
1814	362,241	4 4	21,921	19 7	114,111	12 10	14,623	7 0	21,213	3 11 4	21,213	3 11 4
1815	355,500	0 0	20,183	7 7	108,675	9 8	15,410	5 0	15,569	17 8	15,569	17 8
1816	368,414	3 6	20,231	13 10 1/2	110,941	6 6	14,017	7 0	20,475	18 1 1/2	20,475	18 1 1/2
1817	391,893	15 8	16,812	2 4	118,202	3 4	15,353	8 6	16,496	7 5	16,496	7 5
1818	349,104	4 0	14,180	8 4	116,352	4 11	16,696	13 0	18,191	12 7	18,191	12 7
1819	350,957	9 0	17,451	13 4	118,786	18 4	17,240	6 0	18,573	12 6	18,573	12 6
1820	365,080	11 4	19,090	0 0	122,227	3 3	16,911	9 0	16,721	1 8 1/4	16,721	1 8 1/4
1821	419,616	15 8	20,609	6 8	123,772	15 6	16,416	15 0	15,491	0 0	15,491	0 0
1822	394,923	17 4	19,373	18 0	129,985	17 6	16,085	2 0	16,102	8 0 1/2	16,102	8 0 1/2
1823	373,453	19 8	20,367	0 0	131,283	12 0	17,030	10 6	15,068	3 1 1/4	15,068	3 1 1/4
1824	380,375	0 0	20,795	13 0	125,445	2 5	16,020	11 0	14,824	8 8 1/4	14,824	8 8 1/4
1825	419,291	0 0	22,397	9 4	134,833	18 8 1/2	17,823	17 0	16,426	10 9	16,426	10 9
1826	425,154	10 9	24,419	17 0	144,751	2 6 1/2	18,728	13 0	15,977	5 0	15,977	5 0
1827	428,662	15 9	22,015	0 4	135,687	7 7	17,779	13 0	16,720	0 0	16,720	0 0
1828	423,629	9 8	22,929	10 4	133,779	10 11	16,400	14 6	14,279	17 6	14,279	17 6
1829	436,296	8 0	33,556	2 8	136,365	17 10	17,355	12 6	15,523	15 0	15,523	15 0
1830	438,987	10 4	43,391	6 0	136,053	18 10	17,652	5 7	14,668	0 0	14,668	0 0
1831	455,572	10 6	49,496	10 0	137,915	19 4	19,556	8 0	16,337	14 0	16,337	14 0
1832	502,697	19 4	52,080	16 2	137,898	12 5	19,090	0 0	15,672	10 9	15,672	10 9
1833	496,451	6 8	61,665	14 8	127,122	10 0	18,228	6 0	15,249	17 4	15,249	17 4
1834	491,457	3 0	49,100	14 0	111,506	2 2	16,191	4 4	12,240	2 4	12,240	2 4
1835	458,023	16 8	49,339	9 8	73,308	1 6	10,114	15 2	8,130	14 8	8,130	14 8
1836	475,910	12 0	47,099	4 8	77,853	2 0	10,557	17 0	8,468	12 9	8,468	12 9

The following Table contains a Statement of the Number of Newspapers published in the United States at the Commencement of the Revolutionary War, and the Number of Newspapers and other Periodical Works published in the same in 1810 and 1828.

States.	1775.	1810.	1828.	States.	1775.	1810.	1828.
Maine	-	-	29	Georgia	-	13	18
Massachusetts	7	32	78	Florida	-	1	2
New Hampshire	1	12	17	Alabama	-	-	10
Vermont	-	-	14	Mississippi	-	-	6
Rhode Island	2	7	14	Louisiana*	-	10	9
Connecticut	4	11	33	Tennessee	-	6	8
New York	4	66	161	Kentucky	-	17	23
New Jersey	-	8	23	Ohio	-	14	66
Pennsylvania	9	71	185	Indiana	-	-	17
Delaware	-	-	2	Michigan	-	-	2
Maryland	2	21	37	Illinois	-	-	4
District of Columbia	-	6	9	Missouri	-	-	5
Virginia	2	23	34	Arkansas	-	-	1
North Carolina	-	2	10	Cherokee nation	-	-	1
South Carolina	3	10	16				
				Total	37	358	802

(An important alteration was made in 1836, in the duties on, and in the regulations relating to, newspapers. The act 6 and 7 Will. 4 cap. 76. has repealed the former duty on newspaper stamps (see ante, p. 221.), and has imposed in its stead the duties specified in the following schedule:—

L. s. d.
 For every sheet or other piece of paper whereon any newspaper shall be printed 0 0 1
 And where such sheet or piece of paper shall contain on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, exceeding 1,530 inches, and not exceeding 2,295 inches, the additional duty of 0 0 0 1/2
 And where the same shall contain on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, not exceeding 765 inches, exceeding 3/29 inches, the additional duty of 0 0 1
 And provided always that any sheet or piece of paper containing on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, not exceeding 765 inches, which shall be published with, and as a supplement to, any newspaper chargeable with any of the duties aforesaid, shall be chargeable only with the duty of 0 0 0 1/2
 And the following shall be deemed and taken to be newspapers chargeable with the said duties: viz.—
 Any paper containing public news, intelligence, or occurrences printed in any part of the United Kingdom to be dispersed and made public:
 Any paper printed in any part of the United Kingdom weekly or oftener, or at intervals not exceeding 36 days, containing only or principally advertisements:
 Any paper containing any public news, intelligence, or occurrences, or any remarks or observations thereon, printed in any part of the United Kingdom for sale, and published periodically or

in parts or numbers at intervals not exceeding 26 days between the publication of any 3 such papers, parts, or numbers, where any of the said papers, parts, or numbers respectively shall not exceed 3 sheets of the dimensions hereinafter specified (exclusive of any cover or blank leaf, or any other leaf upon which any advertisement or other notice shall be printed), or shall be published for sale for a less sum than 6d., exclusive of the duty by this act imposed thereon; provided always that no quantity of paper less than a quantity equal to 21 inches in length and 17 inches in breadth, in whatever way or form the same may be made or may be divided into leaves, or in whatever way the same may be printed, shall, with reference to any such paper, part, or number as aforesaid, be deemed or taken to be a sheet of paper:
 And provided also, that any of the several papers herein before described shall be liable to the duties by this act imposed thereon, in whatever way or form the same may be printed or folded, or divided into leaves or stitched, and whether the same shall be folded, divided, or stitched, or not:
Exemptions.—Any paper called "Police Gazette, or Hue and Cry," published in Great Britain by authority of the Secretary of State, or in Ireland by the authority of the Lord Lieutenant.
 Daily accounts or bills of goods imported and exported, or warrants or certificates for the delivery of goods, and the weekly bills of mortality; and also papers containing any list of prices current, or of the state of the markets, or any account of the arrival, sailing, or other circumstances relating to merchant ships or vessels, or any other matter wholly of a commercial nature; provided such bills, lists, or accounts do not contain in any other matter than what hath been usually comprised therein.

Regulations, &c.—A discount of 25 per cent. is to be allowed on the above duties on newspapers printed in Ireland.—§ 2.
 In order to prevent fraud, in the returns as to newspapers, it is enacted, that, from the 31st of December, 1836, a separate or distinctive stamp or mark shall be used for each newspaper.—§ 3.
 No person is to print or publish a newspaper until after a declaration has been made and lodged at the Stamp-Office, containing certain particulars (specified in the act), as to the names and addresses of the printer, and certain of the proprietors of such paper, &c., under a penalty of 50l. Persons wilfully making a false or defective declaration are, upon conviction, to be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.—§ 4, 5, 7.
 There are a number of regulations intended to provide for the discovery and liability of the printer and proprietors, the security of the duties, and the prevention of the sale of unstamped papers. A penalty of 20l. is imposed on any person printing, publishing, selling, &c., newspapers not duly stamped, and it is declared to be lawful for any officer of stamps, or any person authorized by the commissioners in that behalf, to seize any such offender, and take him before any justice having jurisdiction where the offence is committed, who shall summarily determine the matter, and upon conviction and default of payment, shall commit such offender to prison for some term not exceeding 3, nor less than one calendar month.—§ 17.
 Penalty for sending abroad newspapers not duly stamped, 50l.—§ 18.
 Justices may grant warrants to search for unstamped newspapers, and to seize presses, &c. used in printing the same; and on refusal of admittance, officers may break open doors, &c. Persons refusing officers liable to a penalty of 20l.—§ 22, 23.

Influence of the Reduction of the Duty.—The duty which formerly amounted, deducting the discount, to 3 1-5d. (see ante, p. 220.), being now reduced to 1d., the price of the great majority of the London newspapers has been reduced from 7d. to 5d. Provincial papers, which are got up at comparatively little expense, are now sold generally at 4 1/2d. or 5d.; and this, also, is the case with one or two of the metropolitan journals. The newspaper's profit on selling a quire, or 27 papers, at 7d., used to be 2s. 9d., it is now on the London papers, 2s. 3d.

The reduction of the price has occasioned a considerable increase in the demand for the established papers; and a considerable number of new weekly papers have also started into existence since the reduction of the duty in the metropolis and throughout the country.

For some curious details with respect to newspapers in Louisiana, see Mr. Stuart's *Three Years in America*, vol. ii. p. 210.—the most instructive and trustworthy of all the recent works on the United States.

Advertising Papers paid in the

L. s. d.
 637 7 0
 11 0 6
 184 16 6
 825 17 6
 139 16 6
 20 8 0
 144 9 0
 30 16 6
 104 8 9
 159 19 0
 262 11 8
 22 1 8
 63 4 6
 197 19 0
 140 0 0
 337 18 4
 143 11 8
 179 18 4
 64 11 6
 87 12 8
 169 0 0
 65 1 0
 123 16 6
 127 10 8
 78 12 0
 99 1 6
 10,397 7 4

documents in which the much exceeds their greater

has also been of the greater taxation, and issued in the number issued that, making at an average, "From this compared with cases, and are, and shops; and promotional staple of the nce over pub

its quantity pital thing to number, they peaking gene- Union. The instead of er-cter and mite, we believe, ce, or to con- by a large ntitude of the people cannot, ation, exag-

Hitherto, however, no new daily paper has been established. The preceding Tables exhibit the circulation of each of the principal papers, and the total consumption of stamps, in each of the three years ending with 1835; and will, consequently, serve as standards by which to measure the precise influence of the late change on the demand for each paper. The general influence of the new system is seen in the subjoined table.

If it were proper to reduce the duty, and to preserve it at a uniform level, the new arrangements are, perhaps, as unexceptionable as any that could be devised. But we are not sure that the better way would not have been to have assessed the duty on an *ad valorem* principle, making it, in all cases, a certain aliquot part of the price.

A Return of the Number of Newspapers to which Stamps were issued, and of the Number of Stamps issued to Newspapers, in the Years ending 15th September, 1836 (when the former System terminated) and 1837, and the Half Year ending 15th March, 1838; distinguishing the Number issued to London Newspapers, to English Provincial Newspapers, and to Irish and Scotch Newspapers respectively, and showing the Total Number and Amount each Year; also, the Amount of Newspaper Stamp Duty received in each of the above Periods.—(Parl. Paper, No. 307, Sess. 1836.)

	Year ending 15th September, 1836.			Year ending 15th September, 1837.			Half Year ending 15th March, 1838.		
	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.
London Newspapers -	71	19,341,640	256,556 0 0	85	29,172,797	181,553 6 9	86	14,438,556	62,020 11 3
English Provincial do.	184	8,535,236	113,974 16 0	237	14,996,113	62,478 16 1	223	7,266,643	30,665 11 3
Scotch do.	54	2,094,451	36,332 10 3	65	4,123,380	17,150 10 10	68	2,216,460	9,235 0 9
Irish do.	78	5,144,862	37,525 8 0	71	5,235,967	16,263 3 11	62	2,520,181	5,977 8 2
Total	397	35,576,196	413,378 8 2	458	63,498,207	317,480 17 3	437	26,641,970	108,288 4 11

[The number of newspapers, magazines, and other periodicals published in the United States, as appears from returns made to the Post Office Department in 1839, is as follows:

Maine, - - - - -	41	Florida Territory, - - - - -	9
New Hampshire, - - - - -	26	Alabama, - - - - -	34
Vermont, - - - - -	31	Mississippi, - - - - -	26
Massachusetts, (at Boston 65) - - - - -	194	Louisiana, (at New Orleans 10) - - - - -	4
Rhode Island, - - - - -	14	Arkansas, - - - - -	50
Connecticut, - - - - -	31	Tennessee, - - - - -	31
New York, (at New York city 71) - - - - -	274	Kentucky, - - - - -	164
New Jersey, - - - - -	39	Ohio, (at Cincinnati 27) - - - - -	31
Maryland, (at Baltimore 20) - - - - -	49	Michigan, - - - - -	3
Pennsylvania, (at Philadelphia 71) - - - - -	253	Wisconsin Territory, - - - - -	3
Delaware, - - - - -	3	Iowa Territory, - - - - -	69
District of Columbia, (at Washington 11) - - - - -	10	Indiana, - - - - -	33
Virginia, (at Richmond 10) - - - - -	52	Illinois, - - - - -	25
North Carolina, - - - - -	30	Missouri, - - - - -	1,533
South Carolina, - - - - -	20		
Georgia, - - - - -	33		

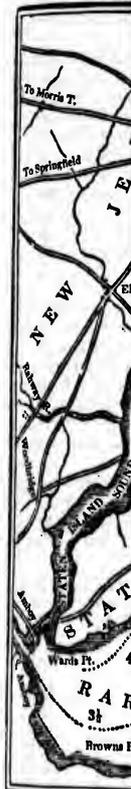
Of the above, 116 are published daily, 14 tri-weekly, 30 semi-weekly, and 91 once a week. The remainder are issued semi-monthly, monthly, and quarterly, principally magazines and reviews. Many of the daily papers also issue tri-weeklies, semi-weeklies, and weeklies. Thirty-eight are in the German language, four in the French, and one in the Spanish: Several of the New Orleans papers are printed in French and Spanish.—*A. W. Ed.*]

NEW YORK, the capital of the state of that name, and the commercial metropolis of the United States, in lat. 40° 42' N., lon. 74° 8' W. It is situated on the southern extremity of Manhattan Island, at the point of confluence of the Hudson river, which separates Manhattan from New Jersey, with East River, which separates it from Long Island. New York bay, or inner harbour, is one of the most capacious and finest in the world; it is completely land-locked, and affords the best anchorage. The entrance to the bay through the Narrows is extremely beautiful. On each side, the shore, though wooded down to the water's edge, is thickly studded with farms, villages, and country seats. At the upper end are seen the spires of the city; and in the distance the bold precipitous banks of the Hudson. From New York to the bar between Sandy Hook Point and Schreyer's Island (the division between the outer bay or harbour and the Atlantic) is about 17 miles. Fortifications have been erected at the Narrows, Governor's Island, and other places, for the defence of the city and shipping. The wood-cut on the opposite page represents the city and bay of New York, and the surrounding country.

The Hudson river was first explored in 1609, by the famous English navigator whose name it bears, then in the service of the West India Company of Holland. In 1612, New Amsterdam, now New York, was founded by the Dutch, as a convenient station for the fur trade. In 1664, it was taken by the English. The Dutch again recovered possession of it in 1673; but it was retaken by the English in the following year, and continued in their occupation till the termination of the revolutionary war.

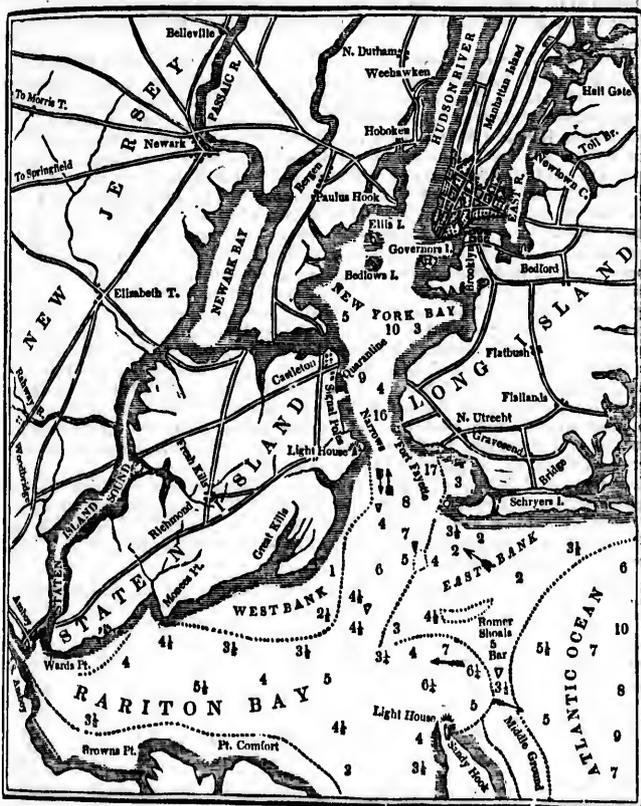
New York has increased faster than any other city in the United States. In 1699, it contained 6,000 inhabitants. In 1774, previously to the commencement of the war of independence, the population amounted to 22,750. During the war, the population continued stationary; but since 1783, its increase has been quite extraordinary. In 1790, the popula-

tion amounted to 33 and in 1830, to above narrow and confined during the last half with brick. The well paved and light were formerly abundant sure that has done however, New York thing as a sink or co pits, of which there thrown into the water great deal of filth is. The yellow fever, by lower and dirtiest pa vated streets. It is to be, that if stonew regulations enforced



Entrance to Harbour, due W. from the outer bay, and then nearly without the bar; for, on insurances, their service near the extremity of the called Sandy Hook, is in Vol. II.—U

tion amounted to 33,131; in 1800, to 60,489; in 1810, to 96,373; in 1820, to 123,706; and in 1830, to above 213,000! Originally the houses were mostly of wood, and the streets narrow and confined. In these particulars, however, a great improvement has taken place during the last half century; most of the old houses having been pulled down, and rebuilt with brick. The new streets, which are broad, and intersect each other at right angles, are well paved and lighted. Broadway, the principal street, is one of the largest and finest in the world. Many of the public buildings are commodious and elegant. The pools, that were formerly abundant in the city and its vicinity, have been completely filled up; a measure that has done much to improve the health of the population. In respect of cleanliness, however, New York is not to be compared with an English town. There is hardly such a thing as a sink or common sewer in the whole city: the night-soil and filth are collected in pits, of which there is one in every house, and, being conveyed to the nearest quay, are thrown into the water; but as these quays are made of timber, with many projections, a great deal of filth is retained about them, producing, in hot weather, an abominable stench. The yellow fever, by which New York is sometimes visited, uniformly breaks out in the lower and dirtiest part of the town; and seldom, indeed, extends to the new and more elevated streets. It is now much less prevalent than formerly; and the general opinion seems to be, that if stones were substituted for timber in the quays, sewers constructed, and proper regulations enforced as to cleanliness, the scourge would entirely disappear.



Entrance to Harbour, Light-houses, &c.—The course in entering the harbour of New York is nearly due W. from the outermost white buoy on the bar, till the buoy on the S.W. point of the east bank be passed, and then nearly due N. The navigation is extremely easy. Pilots generally board while without the bar; for, otherwise, they are only entitled to half fees. Were it not for fear of violating insurances, their services would seldom be required—(See Rates of Pilotage, post.) The light-house near the extremity of the long, low, narrow tongue of land, projecting from the New Jersey shore, called Sandy Hook, is in lat. 40° 28' N., lon. 74° 5' W. It is fitted up with a very powerful fixed light,

which, in clear weather, may be seen by vessels coming from the westward 10 leagues off. But, from its position, it is not readily discovered by ships coming from the S. till too near. To obviate this inconvenience, a floating light was moored about 7 miles E. from Sandy Hook Point. In 1822, however, 2 light-houses were erected on Neversink hills, nearly 4 miles S. by E. from Sandy Hook. They are 300 feet apart; the most northerly being furnished with a fixed, and the other with a revolving light, both of great power. The lights are elevated 250 feet above the level of the sea; and may be seen, in clear weather, in all directions, from 40 to 50 miles. Since they were fitted up, the floating light has been discontinued. Vessels load and unload at the wharfs on both sides the city.

New York is indebted, for her wonderful increase, to her admirable situation, which has rendered her the greatest emporium in the New World. The rise of the tide is about 6 feet; and even at ebb, there is 21 feet water on the bar; and the water in the outer and inner bays, and in the river, is so deep, that ships of the largest burden lie close to the quays, and may proceed to a great distance up the river. The navigation of the bay is but rarely impeded by ice. The great strength of the tide, and the vicinity of the ocean, keep it generally open, even when the Chesapeake and Delaware bays are frozen over. The influence of the tides is felt in the Hudson as far as Troy, 160 miles above New York, affording very peculiar facilities for its navigation. These natural advantages have been vastly extended by a system of canalisation, which has already connected the Hudson with Lake Ontario and Lake Erie; and which, when completed, will connect it with the Ohio river, and consequently with the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico! So prodigious a command of internal navigation is not enjoyed by any other city, with the exception of New Orleans; but the reader access to the port of New York, the greater salubrity of the climate, and her situation in the most industrious part of the Union, where slavery is abolished, give her advantages over her southern rival, which, it is most probable, will secure her continued preponderance.

Trade, &c.—The commerce of New York is very extensive. The value of the merchandise annually loaded and unloaded in the port is estimated at from 100,000,000 to 120,000,000 dollars. The number of vessels in the port in the busy season varies from 500 to 750, exclusive of about 50 steam packets. The number of arrivals from foreign ports amounted in 1832 to 1,808; and the coasting arrivals are between 4,000 and 5,000. The total value of the imports into the United States in the year ending the 30th of September, 1832, was 101,029,266 dollars; of which no less than 53,214,402, or more than the half were imported into New York! The customs revenue on the goods paying duties, imported into this city, amounts to about 13,000,000 dollars, while the total customs revenue of the United States seldom exceeds 22,000,000 dollars. The imports comprise an infinite variety of articles. The principal are cottons, woollens, linens, hardware, cutlery; earthenware, brass and copper manufactures, &c. from Great Britain; silk, wine, brandy, &c. from France and Spain; sugar and coffee from the Havannah and Brazil; with tea, spices, cochineal, indigo, dye woods, &c. The value of the exports from New York in the year ending the 30th of September, 1832, amounted to 26,000,945 dollars, being between $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the total exports from the United States. The exports principally consist of wheat flour, corn, rice, and cotton; beef, pork, butter, dried fish, and all sorts of provisions; furs, tobacco, coarse manufactured goods, lumber, &c. The great excess of the imports into New York over the exports is accounted for by the fact, that, while mostly all articles of export from the Western States are shipped at New Orleans, the greater part of the more valuable articles brought from abroad, and destined for the consumption of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and, in some degree, even Kentucky, are principally imported into New York.

The tonnage of New York is greater than that of Liverpool, or any other city, with the single exception of London. The registered tonnage belonging to the port on the last day of December, 1831, amounted to 122,458 tons, and the enrolled and licensed tonnage to 163,980 tons; making a grand total of 286,438 tons, being between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ of the whole tonnage of the United States.

Account of the Quantities of some of the principal Articles of Native American Produce exported from New York during each of the Three Years ending with the 1st of January, 1833.

Articles.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Ashes, pot	10,613	10,393	18,211
pearl	4,152	5,694	2,356
Beef	15,022	17,013	17,432
Pork	13,085	20,147	29,418
Lard	14,136	21,885	11,101
Butter	6,761	12,282	6,258
Cotton	101,910	118,508	108,741
Cotton goods	5,300	2,030	7,535
Flour (wheat)	304,352	437,101	105,914
Corn	174,152	245,368	93,716
Rice	13,372	15,205	10,678
Tar	10,397	18,879	18,537
Turpentine	102,441	121,703	144,675
Hides	-	-	169,493
Whale oil	-	-	1,302,690
Beap	-	-	76,081
Tobacco	8,069	7,815	7,783

Flag.	No. Vessels.
British	-
United States	1,200
France	-
Spain	-
Netherlands	-
Germany	-
Holland	-
Haase Towns	-
Sweden	-

The arrivals in 1831, sloops, 8; being, in all, Hanburgh, and Bremen the British ships are from *Régulations as to Passengers* at the Custom-house exempt from duty, and at the office gratis. Can on exhibiting which to inspected. Only 1 entry may be the number of t are liable to pay duties pass free.

An entry is usually made each 20 cents for a payment of duties, if an article is found belonging to the person in whose bag.

Besides making entry of a vessel arriving from 24 hours after entering and in case of his sickness of every person w voyage, upon pain of fol for every alien, and as aforesaid.

Masters of ships bring seeger to the corporation, able to the city poor rat taxes. The number of t to the undermentioned.

Year.	Fees.
1828	...
1829	...
1830	...
1831	...
1832	...
1833	...
1834	...
1835	...

LIRES OF PACKERS.—and also to every princple, and rounded equjected, and the public packet ships, distributed with that port. A dozen and 15 in the trade betw of the smallest, to 800 to now be estimated at abo York. They are probabl fully modelled, of the be the most expensive sty voyages is quite astron Independence, of 730 to of the present year, in 1 New York to Portsmou reckoned from land to j The packet ships from or rather Cowes, at wh These bound for New bound for New York fro Cabin passage to New Liverpool 140 dollars; a the same. This include provide any thing excep Each ship has a separa dno two passengers; bu 11 passage, that is, 22; and 4 of those ships sail

Shipping.—Arrivals from, and Departure for, Foreign Ports, in 1831.

Flag.	Arrived.		Departed.		Flag.	Arrived.		Departed.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.		No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	278	41,758	273	31,716	Hayti	2	330	2	330
United States	1,204	308,539	1,375	265,205	Brazil	2	134	2	131
France	25	6,710	22	3,228	Genoa	1	260		still in port.
Spain	8	1,702	7	1,076	Russia	1	260	1	260
Netherlands	1	260	1	170	Denmark	18	3,709	16	2,003
Germany	10	2,796	7	2,042					
Holland	2	315	2	315					
Same Towns	1	260	1	260					
Sweden	14	3,339	12	2,473	Total	1,658	368,684	1,622	316,472

The arrivals in 1831, from foreign ports, were, ships, 496; barques, 119; brigs, 886; schooners, 425; sloops, 6; being, in all, 1,932. Of these there were, American, 1,486; British, 303; French, 27; Dutch, Hamburg, and Bremen, 23; Swedish, 28; Spanish, 18; Danish, 11, &c. By far the greater part of the British ships are from our colonies in North America and the West Indies.

Regulations as to Passengers arriving at New York.—On the arrival of passengers, an entry must be made at the Custom-house of their names, clothes, implements of trade or profession (all of which are exempt from duty), and an oath taken respecting them; the form of which, and the entry, may be had at the office gratis. Cabin passengers make this entry themselves, and pay 20 cents each for a permit; on exhibiting which to the officer on board, they are allowed to move their baggage after it has been inspected. Only 1 entry and permit is necessary for a family, and only 20 cents demanded, whatever may be the number of the family. Remains of sea stores, such as tea, sugar, foreign spirits and wines, are liable to pay duties; but unless these are of great bulk or quantity, they are generally allowed to pass free.

An entry is usually made by the master of the vessel of at least passengers and their baggage: they pay each 20 cents for a permit. When entry is made by any person not the owner, he gives bond for payment of duties, if any; and if, after entry is made at the Custom-house, and the oath taken, any article is found belonging to a passenger, liable to pay duty, not specified in the entry, it is forfeited, and the person in whose baggage the article is found subjected in double the value.

Besides making entry at the Custom-house, it is provided by a law of the State, that every master of a vessel arriving from a foreign country, or from any other port of the United States, "shall within 24 hours after entering his vessel at the Custom-house, make a report in writing, on oath, to the mayor, and in case of his sickness or absence to the recorder of the said city, of the name, age, and occupation of every person who shall have been brought as passenger in such ship or vessel on her last voyage, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect or omission to make such report, the sum of 75 dollars for every alien, and the sum of 50 dollars for every other person neglected to be so reported as aforesaid."

Masters of ships bringing passengers to New York must also pay a dollar on account of each passenger to the corporation, as commutation money, or give bond that none of them shall become chargeable on the city poor rates for the space of 2 years. They almost uniformly prefer paying the commutation. The number of immigrants arriving at New York from the British Islands, and from all places, is the undermentioned years, was as follows:—

Year.	From England.	From Ireland.	From Scotland.	Total British Isles.	From all Parts.
1828	6,631	6,107	2,717	15,547	
1829	8,110	2,443	948	11,501	16,064
1830	16,352	3,497	1,584	21,433	30,224
1831	13,808	6,721	2,078	22,607	31,739
1832	18,947	6,050	3,286	28,283	48,589
1833	Particulars not specified.			16,100	41,752
1834				26,540	48,110
1835				10,749	

Lines of Packets.—The establishment of regular lines of packets from New York to foreign ports, and also to every principal port in the United States, has produced a new era in the commerce of the city, and redounded equally to the benefit of the enterprising individuals by whom they were projected, and the public. The principal intercourse is carried on with Liverpool; there being about 20 packet ships, distributed in 4 lines, employed at present (1830) in maintaining a regular communication with that port. A dozen packet ships are also employed in the trade between New York and London; and 15 in the trade between New York and Havre. These ships vary in size from 450 tons, the burden of the smallest, to 800 tons. Their tonnage has lately been increasing; and, at an average, it may now be estimated at about 600 tons. These ships are all American property, and built chiefly in New York. They are probably the finest and fastest sailing merchant vessels in the world; being beautifully modelled, of the best workmanship, and fitted up with every convenience for passengers, and in the most expensive style. The safety, regularity, and expedition with which they perform their voyages is quite astonishing. The average length of a voyage from Liverpool and Portsmouth to New York, may be estimated at about 34 days, and, from the latter to the former, at about 20 days. The Independence, of 730 tons, Captain Nye, made the voyage from New York to Liverpool, in the course of the present year, in 14 days; and the Toronto of 650 tons, Captain Griswold, made the voyage from New York to Portsmouth in the same time. And it is material to observe, that these voyages are not reckoned from land to land, but from port to port.

The packet ships from New York sail from London on the 7th, 17th, and 27th; and from Portsmouth, or rather Cowes, at which place they touch, on the 1st, 10th, and 20th of each month.

Those bound for New York from Liverpool, sail on the 1st, 8th, 16th, and 24th of each month; those bound for New York from Havre sail on the same days as those from Liverpool.

Cabin passage to New York from London and Liverpool 35 guineas; from New York to London and Liverpool 140 dollars; a cabin passage to New York from Havre 140 dollars, from New York to Havre, the same. This includes provisions, wines, beds, &c., so that the passengers have no occasion to provide any thing except personal apparel.

Each ship has a separate cabin for ladies; each state-room, in the respective cabins, will accommodate two passengers; but a whole state room may be secured for 1 individual by paying at the rate of 11 passage, that is, 54 guineas to New York.

Packets for Philadelphia sail from Liverpool on the 8th and 20th of every month throughout the year; and of these ships sail from Philadelphia for Liverpool on the 20th of each month; the others do not

always return direct for Liverpool, but sometimes go to Charleston, Savannah, &c., to bring cargoes of produce to Liverpool.

Cabin passage same as that to and from New York.

These ships, 8 in number, are all American built and owned, and average about 500 tons burden; some of them are as splendid as the New York packets, and are all fitted up with every regard to comfort.

Three American packet ships are employed in the trade between New York and the Clyde; and an American packet ship sails from Liverpool for Boston twice every month.

The rate of *steerage* passage varies, in the course of the year, considerably; depending on the number of ships and the number of passengers going at the time. By the packet ships it fluctuates from 3 to 6 guineas for each full-grown person; and children under 14 years are taken at half-price. By other ships the rate of *steerage* passage varies, at Liverpool, from 1l. 10s. to 5l.; being sometimes reduced, by competition, so low as 30s.; but the average rate may be taken at 4l. For these rates, the ship provides nothing but berths, fire, and water; the passengers provide their own provisions, bedding, &c. The expense of provisions for a poor person, who might wish to be as economical as possible, for the voyage out to the United States, would not be more than from 40s. to 50s.

The *cabin* passage by the common traders (and many of them are quite equal to the packets in equipment and safety) varies from 15l. to 25l.; no wines being provided by the ships at these rates, but provisions, bedding, malt liquor, and spirits.

The rates of *freight* to New York, are—

	By Packets.			By other Ships.		
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Fine goods per ton measurement of 40 cubic feet	9	0	0	0	0	0
Hardware	1	10	0	0	0	0
Coarse low-priced goods	1	0	0	1	5	0
Iron, per ton of 20 cwt.	0	10	0	0	12	6
Coin, do. do. do.	1	0	0	0	0	0
Crates of earthenware, per ton of 40 cubic feet	0	10	0	0	12	6
Salt, per ton of 40 bushels	0	17	6	0	18	6

Steam packets.—It has been proposed to establish steam packets between New York and Valentia harbour, on the west coast of Ireland; but as yet little progress has been made in the undertaking, it may be doubted, indeed, seeing how well the intercourse is maintained by the sailing packets, whether the introduction of steam packets would be of material service. [See art. STEAM VESSELS.]

BANKS, INSURANCE COMPANIES, &c.—We borrow from a detailed and authentic statement by Thomas H. Goddard, Esq., published in the *New York Daily Advertiser* for the 29th of January, 1831, the following particulars in relation to the banks, insurance companies, &c. of New York, in 1830, with a view of their progress from 1810 to 1830.

Banks.	When chartered.	Length of Charter.	No. of Shares.	Amount of Share.			Time and Rate of Dividend.	Amount of Dividend.
				Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.		
United States Branch	-	-	21,000	100	2,500,000	Jan. 3 1-2 - July 3 1-2	175,000	
America	1828	20 years	80,000	100	2,000,000	Jan. 2 1-2 - July 2 1-2	160,000	
Mechanics	1810	82 do.	80,000	25	2,000,000	Jan. 3 1-2 - July 3 1-2	160,000	
Munhattan Company	1790	perpetual	41,000	50	2,050,000	Jan. 3 1-2 - July 3 1-2	145,500	
Delaware and Hudson Canal Company	1825	do.	15,000	100	1,500,000	June 0 - Dec. 0	-	
Mercantile	1808	27 years	25,000	50	1,400,000	June 3 - Dec. 3	84,000	
City	1812	20 do.	25,000	50	1,250,000	May 3 - Nov. 3	75,000	
New York	1812	20 do.	25,000	50	1,250,000	May 4 - Nov. 4	75,000	
North River	1812	20 do.	20,000	25	600,000	Jan. 3 1-2 - July 3 1-2	30,000	
Trademen's	1822	10 do.	12,000	40	500,000	Jan. 4 - July 4	40,000	
Chemical	1824	21 do.	20,000	25	600,000	Jan. 3 1-2 - July 3 1-2	30,000	
Union	1811	20 do.	20,000	50	6,000,000	May 3 - Nov. 3	60,000	
Fulton	1824	20 do.	20,000	50	6,000,000	May 3 1-2 - Nov. 3 1-2	42,000	
Dry Dock	-	perpetual	14,000	50	700,000	Jan. 2 - July 0	14,000	
Greenwich	1830	saw	9,000	25	900,000	not determined	-	
			339,900		18,130,000		1,637,500	

Recapitulation.—There were, in 1830, 16 banks in this city, whose aggregate capital was \$15,150,000. And these made dividends for \$1,037,700. Of these, the Hudson and Delaware made no dividend, in consequence of appropriating their means to the great work of completing the canal between the 2 rivers, which promises a great advantage to the city. The Greenwich had just commenced; so that the dividend accrued upon a capital of 17,830,000 dollars—making an interest of 5-7/8 per cent., as the paper discounted would average 80 days' notes, and 8 per cent. discount deducted; there must have been discounted during the year paper to the amount of \$103,707,968.

Marine Insurance.—During 1830, there were in this city 8 marine insurance companies, with an aggregate capital of \$3,050,000. And these made dividends for \$463,000. But 2 companies, whose capital amounted to 450,000 dollars, divided nothing, so that the dividend really arose out of a capital of 2,600,000 dollars, making an interest of 15-6/7 per cent. The American Company

commenced in 1815, and its dividends to 1830 inclusive were 312 per cent., amounting to \$1,507,000.

The Ocean, with a capital of \$50,000, has, from 1823 to 1830 inclusive, made dividends for 128 per cent. \$41,000.

Fire Insurance.—During 1830, there were in this city 30 fire companies, whose aggregate capital was \$793,000. And these made dividends for \$49,750.

But 2 companies, whose capital amounted to 750,000 dollars, divided nothing, so that the dividend really arose out of a capital of 43,000 dollars, making an interest of 8-6/8 per cent. The Washington commenced 1814, and has made a uniform semi-annual dividend of 4 1/2 per cent., making in all 144 per cent., amounting to \$36,300.

From 1823 to the year 1830 inclusive—

The dividends of the Eagle were 89 1/2 per cent. — 36,300
 Franklin — 44 1/2 — — 19,125
 North River 64 — — 25,125
 New York — 78 — — 36,300

Progress of Stocks in the City of New York, from 1810 to 1830, both Inclusive.

Years.	Banks in New York City.			Marine Insurance Companies.			Fire Insurance Companies.		
	Amount of Capital.	Am't. of Div. declared.	Rate per Cent.	Amount of Capital.	Amount of Div. declared.	Rate per Cent.	Amount of Capital.	Am't. of Div. declared.	Rate per Cent.
1810	15,800,000	782,000	4-9/16	78,189,892	3,850,000	412,250	10,707	4,607,000	337,500
1820	15,000,000	921,500	6-7/8	82,148,980	3,850,000	450,750	6,818	4,500,000	363,500
1830	15,000,000	929,500	6-7/8	82,618,984	3,850,000	520,500	6,910	4,500,000	364,500
1822	16,000,000	921,200	5-7/77	82,118,278	3,850,000	320,150	6,310	4,500,000	385,500
1823	15,500,000	894,500	6-4/8	80,232,000	4,100,000	376,500	6,777	7,400,000	487,000
1824	15,000,000	617,800	3-9/47	81,700,000	4,630,000	317,000	6,817	7,400,000	652,500
1825	17,450,000	536,500	3-9/68	81,618,973	5,300,000	321,000	4,169	1,190,000	707,500
1826	17,500,000	1,031,500	6-8/84	103,148,858	5,300,000	380,000	4,905	12,100,000	717,750
1827	17,800,000	1,045,400	6-7/81	102,538,868	4,370,000	228,000	4,241	12,150,000	803,000
1828	18,300,000	1,089,400	6-6/69	101,918,972	4,100,000	301,500	7-3/35	10,100,000	487,000
1829	17,300,000	877,000	5-4/70	87,829,901	3,900,000	442,000	14-3/33	7,500,000	481,500
1830	18,130,000	1,037,700	6-1/23	103,789,951	3,950,000	403,500	19-1/318	7,800,000	479,500
12 years	11,302,950			1,120,201,752		3,642,800		5,808,500	

In the previous list interest is determined. Remarks on Banking some details as to the New York as in any other that will exist obtain in 1830, the grand Ju with the formation of defend the public, obviously been deemed; that these convic was established beyo Lombard Association; but the association had been paid up! (Re some than 114.—(Re With the exception notes of so low a valu In order to protect the State of New Yo their charters renewe by whom it is investe certain restrictions, ar authority to examine different banks subje This system has not be formed as to its pro to eradicate the evils of than to tax the capital set on foot for the pu responsibility of the th than the multiplication for payment of which material service. It is mismanagement by an Forgers is extremely consequence of the low transactions. It is not less satisfactory conditi tion deteriorated, shou SELL BY AUCTION, such, is of long stan appointed by the senate

Year.	Amount.
1810	126
1811	110
1812	130
1813	150
1814	80
1815	189
1816	177
1817	170
1818	194
1819	141
1820	150
1821	154
1822	180
1823	205
1824	222
1825	228
1826	242
1827	219
1828	257
1829	345
1830	218
	3,809

Dividend of the principal Provi The duties are— 1. On wines and ardent spirits, &c. 2. On goods imported from beyo 3. On packets, bills, &c., as imp 4. On all other articles, subject to The following articles are 1. Ships and vessels, 2. Kindred of husbandry, horses, 3. Articles grown, produced, or distilled in the State. * The returns of sales by estimating the average correct as stated. † The amount of real u 2

In the previous estimates, the rate per cent. on the actually productive capital was given. Here the interest is determined by comparing the whole capital with the whole dividend.

Remarks on Banking at New York.—The reader will find in the article **BANKS, FOREIGN** (vol. i. p. 125), some details as to the banking system of the United States. It seems to be quite as defective in New York as in any other part of the Union. Several banks in that State have failed, and some of those that still exist obtained their charters by resorting to the most disgraceful practices. In the summer of 1826, the grand jury of the city entered upon an investigation of certain circumstances connected with the formation of some of these establishments, which ended in the conviction, as conspirators to defraud the public, of not a few citizens, and even of some members of the legislature, who had previously been deemed highly respectable! The Court of Errors afterwards decided, by a small majority, that these convictions were illegal; but the fact of the most scandalous abuses having prevailed was established beyond all question. We may mention, by way of example, that the United States Lombard Association, incorporated in 1825, was sworn to as having a paid up capital of 300,000 dollars; but the association having failed in 1826, it was ascertained that not more than 30,000 dollars had ever been paid up! There were, we are sorry to say, several other cases quite as bad, or, if possible, even worse than this.—(*Report and Observations on the Banks, &c. of the State of New York*, p. 10.)

With the exception of the branch of the United States Bank, all the other New York banks issue notes of no low a value as 1 dollar. They all discount bills: generally at 6 per cent. In order to protect the public from the mischief resulting from the failure of banks, the legislature of the State of New York enacted a law, in 1829, compelling all banks chartered in future, or getting their charters renewed, to pay from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 1 per cent. of their capital stock to the treasurer of the State, by whom it is invested and accumulated as a guarantee fund. When a bank fails, its debts, under certain restrictions, are to be paid from this fund. Commissioners have also been appointed, having authority to examine upon oath, and to inquire into any particulars as to the management of the different banks subjected to this regulation.

This system has not been established for a sufficient length of time to enable a conclusive opinion to be formed as to its practical operation. We believe, however, that it will be found quite inadequate to eradicate the evils complained of. Even were it otherwise successful, what can be more unjust than to tax the capital of solid and well-managed concerns, to create a fund to pay the debts of those set on foot for the purpose of swindling? The interference of the commissioners, by lessening the responsibility of the directors, must be a good deal worse than useless; and can have no effect other than the multiplication of abuses. We have not, indeed, the least doubt, that it will be found in America, as in England, that banking can acquire no real solidity till a stop be put to the issue of all notes for payment of which security has not previously been given. Nothing short of this can be of any material service. It is mere error and delusion to suppose that it is possible to prevent fraud or mismanagement by any system of official superintendence.

Forgery is extremely prevalent in the State of New York, and, indeed, throughout the Union; a consequence of the low value at which notes are issued, and of their employment even in the smallest transactions. It is not, in truth, easy to imagine that the paper currency of any country can be in a less satisfactory condition than that of the United States. And it will not, certainly, be improved, but much deteriorated, should the president succeed in his efforts to destroy the Bank of the United States.

SALES BY AUCTION.—The practice of selling goods, particularly those imported from abroad, by auction, is of long standing in New York, and is carried to a very great extent. Auctioneers are appointed by the senate, on the nomination of the governor.

Statement of Sales at Auction in the State of New York, from 1810 to 1830 inclusive, from Returns made by the Auctioneers to the Comptroller.

Year.	Amount of Duties.		Amount of Sales dutiable.		Amount of Sales not dutiable.		Total.	
	Dollars.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cents.	Dollars.	Cents.
1810	126,404	62	5,609,662	59	510,760	28	6,113,422	87
1811	110,220	76	4,393,937	51	342,155	24	4,736,142	75
1812	121,236	92	5,203,566	67	425,451	30	5,629,017	97
1813	156,481	05	6,001,162	40	1,051,646	40	7,052,809	80
1814	80,067	76	3,527,155	88	387,631	12	3,914,787	00
1815	129,236	57	12,124,054	76	1,037,665	01	13,161,719	77
1816	171,907	40	11,249,826	07	765,859	76	12,115,715	83
1817	199,123	38	12,472,446	92	726,165	73	13,198,612	65
1818	170,032	24	11,573,638	42	1,614,418	83	13,488,077	25
1819	141,570	96	9,538,293	51	1,727,356	31	11,365,558	82
1820	153,099	86	10,182,967	00	1,833,229	75	12,016,196	75
1821	154,543	92	10,525,791	05	1,819,424	72	12,345,275	77
1822	180,761	88	12,340,127	54	1,798,880	88	14,139,008	42
1823	209,254	01	13,751,821	57	3,117,128	86	16,871,950	43
1824	220,218	13	15,716,432	85	3,587,386	46	19,301,019	36
1825	235,037	62	19,712,686	97	4,530,600	69	24,191,287	36
1826	242,810	06	16,228,198	52	4,722,154	73	21,050,353	25
1827	217,808	24	16,101,643	68	3,003,576	64	19,465,230	32
1828	257,180	40	17,119,544	64	8,590,116	29	26,039,600	93
1829	242,552	54	16,536,900	60	8,685,802	29	25,222,708	89
1830	218,513	00	15,465,405	99	10,300,705	79	25,766,111	78
	3,892,661	78	216,502,249	87	60,638,437	10	307,140,686	97

List of the principal Provisions of the Law concerning Auctions.

- The duties are—
 - On wine and ancient spirits, foreign or domestic, 2 per cent.
 - On goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and sold in packages, bales, &c., as imported, 1 per cent.
 - On all other articles, subject to duties, 1 1/2 per cent.
- The following articles are not subject to duties—
 - Ships and vessels.
 - Utensils of husbandry, horses, neat cattle, hogs, and sheep.
 - Articles grown, produced, or manufactured in this state, except distilled spirits.

- All fabrics of cotton, wool, hemp, and flax, manufactured within the jurisdiction of the United States.
- Goods are exempted from auction duties—
 - When they belong to the United States or this State.
 - When sold by the authority of a court, or when seized by a public officer on account of any forfeiture or penalty, or under a distress for rent.
 - The effects of a deceased person sold by executors, or administrators, or by a person authorized by a surrogate.
 - The effects of a bankrupt or insolvent sold by his assignees, appointed pursuant to law, or by a general assignment for the benefit of all his creditors.
 - Goods damaged at sea and sold within 30 days after being landed, for the owners or insurers.

* The returns of sales for 1811, having been mislaid at the comptroller's office, the amounts are stated by estimating the average of the 4 preceding years in proportion to the duties paid, which are exactly correct as stated.

† The amount of real estate sold in 1820 (included in the above not dutiable) was \$2,131,300 67 cents.

Prices at New York.—The following statements of the wholesale prices of some of the principal articles of importation at New York, are taken from the *New York Price Current* for the 17th of September, 1856.

	Dls. cts.				
Corn—import duty, 3 cents per lb.	0 14	0 21			
New Orleans, per lb.	0 13 1-2	0 22			
Indian, do.	0 12 1-2	0 20			
Epokah, do.	0 12	0 18			
Tennessee, do.	0 11	0 17			
Corn meal—import duty, 1 1-4 cents per square yard.	0 18	0 21			
French, per yard	0 18	0 17			
Flat, do.	0 20	0 0			
American, do.	0 0	0 0			
Four and meal—import duty, 50 cents per 112 lbs.	0 0	0 0			
New York, superior, per barrel	0 0	0 0			
Troy, do.	0 0	0 0			
Western Canal, do.	0 0	0 0			
Philadelphia, do.	0 0	0 0			
Richmond, do.	0 0	0 0			
Baltimore, do.	0 0	0 0			
Richmond Country mills, do.	0 0	0 0			
Georgetown, do.	0 0	0 0			
Albany, do.	0 0	0 0			
Fredericksburgh, do.	0 0	0 0			
Terre-haute, do.	0 0	0 0			
Scratched and fine, do.	0 0	0 0			
Whiting, fine, do.	0 0	0 0			
Res. do.	0 0	0 0			
Louisiana, do.	0 0	0 0			
Superior, do.	0 0	0 0			
Foreign—import duty, 18 1-2 per cent. ad valorem + 2 cents ad valorem.	0 0	0 0			
Beaver, parchment, per lb.	3 0	3 50			
South, do.	2 50	3 0			
North, do.	2 50	3 0			
Wool, do.	4 50	5 0			
Over, per bale	0 0	0 0			
Russia, S. and W.	0 10	0 20			
Detroit, do.	0 25	0 35			
Mohair, S. and N., do.	0 1 1-2	0 2			
Havana, do.	0 85	1 0			
N. W., do.	1 12 1-2	1 50			
Red Sea, do.	0 85	1 0			
Hind, S. and N., do.	0 20	0 40			
Northern, do.	0 20	0 30			
Havana, Russia, do.	0 12 1-2	0 18			
Wool—import duty, 25 cents per bushel, other sorts, free.	0 0	0 0			
North Carolina, do.	1 50	1 75			
Virginia, per bushel	1 50	1 75			
North Carolina, do.	1 50	1 75			
Rye, Northern, do.	1 12 1-2	1 13			
Corn, yellow, Northern, do.	1 12 1-2	1 13			
White, Long Island & Jersey, do.	1 12 1-2	1 13			
Southern, do.	1 0	1 0			
Butter, North River, do.	0 74	0 0			
Can, Northern and Southern, do.	0 48	0 62			
Beans, per tierce of 7 bushels	10 0	12 0			
Pean, white, dry, do.	7 0	8 0			
Lumber—Yard selling prices.					
Boards, North River, per mille feet	17 0	18 0			
Eastern pine, do.	18 0	19 0			
Albany do., per piece	0 13	0 19			
Plank, Georgia do., per mille feet	25 0	30 0			
Heading, W. O., per mille	54 0	60 0			
Staves, W. O., pipe, do.	60 0	62 0			
hoghead, do.	43 0	45 0			
barrel, do.	30 0	32 0			
R. O., hoghead, do.	33 0	35 0			
Hops, do.	30 0	40 0			
Scantling, pine, do.	15 0	16 0			
oak, do.	30 0	35 0			
Timber, oak, per square foot	0 20	0 25			
Georgian yellow pine, do.	0 28	0 30			
Shingles, cypress, per mille	4 0	10 0			
Naval Stores—					
Tar, per barrel	2 12 1-2	2 25			
Pitch, do.	2 0	2 12 1-2			
Rosin, do.	1 37 1-2	1 50			
Turpentine, Wilmington, soft, do.	8 50	9 0			
North. Co., do, do.	2 75	3 0			
Spirits of turpentine, per gallon	0 38	0 45			
Provisions—					
Beef, mess, per barrel	10 0	10 25			
prime	10 0	10 50			
cargo	4 50	5 0			
Pork, mess, do.	24 50	25 0			
prime	16 50	17 50			
cargo, do.	14 0	0 0			
Hog's lard, per lb.	0 17	0 17 1-2			
Butter, Goshen dairy, do.	0 18	0 20			
West, do.	0 18	0 20			
shipping, do.	0 12	0 17			
Philadelphia	0 10	0 15			
American, do.	0 0	0 10			
Hams, smoked, do.	0 15	0 18			
Tobacco—import duty, Leaf, 18 per cent. ad valorem.					
Richmond and Petersburg, per lb.	0 8	0 9			
North Carolina, do.	0 8	0 7			
Kentucky do.	0 7	0 10			
Cuba (in parcels), do.	0 12	0 23			
St. Domingo, do.	0 14	0 20			
Manufactured, No. 1, do.	0 13	0 17			
No. 2, do.	0 13 1-2	0 14 1-2			
No. 3, do.	0 12 1-2	0 13			
Ladies' twist, do.	0 19	0 24			
Cavendish, do.	0 14	0 40			

[The Tables omitted in this article are comprehended in those which have been added to the articles **IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, AND SHIPS.—Am. Ed.**]

New York Canal, 1853.—In addition to the information laid before the reader in vol. I. p. 228, we have now to state, that the total amount of tolls collected on all the canals of the State, for the year ending the 30th of September, 1853, was as follows, viz:—

	Dolls. cts.
Erie and Champlain Canals	1,324,421 58
Cayuga Canal	20,950 23
Cayuga and Seneca Canals	14,783 59
Total	1,360,155 40

The expenses of collection are deducted from the tolls received by the collectors, which add, say

	25,500 0
Total amount of tolls	D. 1,385,655 40

The net revenue of the Erie and Champlain Canal fund, after paying all expenses, amounts to

	1,135,181 33
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The debt standing against the State, on the 30th of September, 1853, for the several canals, was as follows, to wit:—

	Dolls. cts.
Erie and Champlain Canal debt	5,522,539 29
Utica do.	427,947 0
Cayuga and Seneca do.	237,000 0
Fleming do.	315,000 0
Crooked Lake do.	120,000 0
Cayuga do.	50,000 0
Total	D. 6,673,006 29

Bills of Exchange.—By a revised law of the State of New York, the following damages on bills drawn or negotiated in this State, and protested for non-payment, are allowed, viz:—

Bills drawn on the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or district of Columbia, 3 per cent. North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent.

Any other State or territory of the United States, or any other place on or adjacent to this continent, and north of the equator, or any British or other foreign possessions in the West India, or elsewhere on the Western Atlantic Ocean, or any port or place in Europe, 10 per cent.

Such damages shall be in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and all other charges incurred previous to and at the time of giving notice of non-payment, but the holder of such bill shall be notified to demand and recover lawful interest upon the aggregate amount of the principal sum specified in such bill, and of the damages thereon, from the time at which notice of protest for non-payment shall have been given, and payment of such principal sum shall have been demanded.—Sect. 19.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account of the United States, the amount due thereon and of the damages herein allowed for the non-payment thereof, shall be ascertained and determined without any reference to the rate of exchange existing between this State and the place on which such bill shall have been drawn, at the time of the demand of payment or of notice of non-payment.—Sect. 20.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account or currency of any foreign country, then the amount due, exclusive of the damages payable thereof, shall be ascertained and determined by the rate of exchange or the value of such foreign currency, at the time of the demand of payment.—Sect. 21.

TARIFF OF THE UNITED STATES.—Notwithstanding the unprecedented progress of the United States in wealth and population, their foreign trade was nearly stationary for the 10 years ending with 1830! And yet, considering the spirit of commercial enterprise by which the people, particularly in the New England States and New York, are animated, and their skill in navigation, it might have been fairly presumed that the growth of their foreign trade would, at least, have kept pace with the development of the internal resources of the country. That it did not do so is wholly owing to the policy of government. Not satisfied with the extraordinary advances their constituents had made in numbers and wealth, Congress seems to have believed that their career might be accelerated by means of Custom-house regulations!—by giving an artificial direction to a portion of the public capital and industry, and turning it into channels into which it would not naturally flow!

No one who has the slightest acquaintance with the condition of America—who knows

that she is possessed of boundless tracts of fertile and unappropriated land—that her population is comparatively thin, and wages high—can doubt for a moment that agriculture must, for a long series of years, be the most profitable species of employment in which her citizens can engage. There can be no question, indeed, that such branches of manufacture as are naturally adapted to her peculiar situation, will gradually grow up and flourish in America, without any artificial encouragement, according as her population becomes denser, and as the advantage which now exists on the side of agriculture becomes less decided. But to force, by means of duties and prohibitions, the premature growth of manufactures, is plainly to force a portion of the industry and capital of the country into businesses in which it will be least productive.

Such, however, has been, for a lengthened period, the policy of the American legislature. The exploded sophisms of the mercantile system, though renounced by every statesman in Europe, acquired a noxious influence in congress, and were put forth with as much confidence, as if their soundness neither had been, nor could be, questioned! From 1816 down to 1832, the object of the American legislature was to bolster up a manufacturing interest, by imposing oppressive duties on most manufactured articles imported from abroad. Now, it is obvious even had the articles produced in America through the agency of this plan been as cheap as those they superseded, that nothing would have been gained by it; for, to whatever extent the importation of foreign articles may be diminished, there must be a corresponding diminution in the exportation of native American products; so that the only result would have been the raising up of one species of industry at the expense of some other species, entitled to an equality of protection. But the "American system" was not so innocuous. Instead of the goods manufactured in the States being as cheap as similar ones manufactured in Europe, they were admitted to be, at an average, from 30 to 100 per cent. dearer! The extent of the pecuniary sacrifice that was thus imposed on the Union has been variously estimated by American writers; but we have been assured by those who have the best means of knowing, that it may be moderately estimated at from 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 dollars, or from about 11,000,000*l.* to 13,000,000*l.*! And this immense burden—a burden nearly three times as great as the whole public expenditure of the republic—was incurred for no purpose of public utility, and was productive of nothing but mischief. The whole effect of the scheme was to divert a certain amount of the national capital from the production of cotton, wheat, rice, tobacco, &c., the equivalents sent to foreigners in payment of manufactured goods, to the direct production of these goods themselves! And as the latter species of industry is nowise suitable for America, a tax of 13,000,000*l.* a year was imposed on the Union, that the manufacturers might be enabled to continue a losing business. We leave it to others to determine whether the absurdity of the system, or its costliness, be its more prominent feature. That its influence was not more injurious, is solely owing to the smuggling it occasioned. With a frontier like that of America, and with a half or more of the population hostile to the tariff, it would have been worse than absurd to suppose that it could be carried into full effect. But it had enough of influence to render it in the last degree prejudicial—to occasion a great rise in the price of many important articles—to cripple the trade and navigation of the country—and to throw a considerable part of it into the hands of foreigners, who carried it on in defiance of the law.

It is difficult, however, to say how long this perverse system might have been maintained, but for its political effects. It was principally patronised by the Northern States. We believe, indeed, that it is quite impossible to show that they either did or could derive any benefit from it; but, at all events, it is quite certain that it was highly injurious to the Southern States. Their staple products are cotton, tobacco, and rice, of which by far the largest portion is exported to foreign countries: and the planters speedily found that every restriction on importation from abroad occasioned a corresponding difficulty of exportation. This led to a disunion of interests, and to strong remonstrances against the tariff by the Southern States. These, however, were disregarded. Provoked by this treatment, South Carolina took the decisive step of refusing to enforce the customs acts; and threatened, if coercion were attempted, to repel force by force, and to recede from the Union! This was a death-blow to the tariff. Congress now saw, what all sensible men had seen long before, that it was necessary to recede; that, in fact, either the tariff must be modified, or the integrity of the Union be brought into jeopardy. A law was accordingly passed on the 14th of July, 1832, which directed a considerable deduction to be made from the duties on various articles after the 3d of March, 1833; and a subsequent act, commonly called "Mr. Clay's New Tariff Bill," was passed on the 2d of March, 1833, providing for the future gradual reduction of the duties. These judicious acts restored tranquillity; and, there can be no doubt, will be, in every point of view, highly beneficial to the republic.

We subjoin the act of the 23d of March, 1833, and the explanatory letter of Mr. M'Lane, Secretary to the Treasury.

MR. CLAY'S NEW TARIFF BILL,

To modify the Act of the 14th of July, 1832, and all other Acts imposing Duties on Imports. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in congress assembled, that, from and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where duties are imposed

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foreign imports by the act of July 14, 1832, entitled "An Act to alter and amend the several Acts imposing Duties on Imports," or by any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on the value thereof, one-tenth part of such excess shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1833, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1837, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1839, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; and from and after the 31st of December, 1841, one half of the residue of such excess shall be deducted; and from and after the 30th of June, 1842, the other half thereof shall be deducted.

Sec. II.—And be it further enacted, that so much of the second section of the act of the 14th of July aforesaid, as fixes the rate of duty on all milled and fulling cloth, known by the name of plains, broad cloths, or Kendal cottons, of which wool is the only material, the value whereof does not exceed 35 cents a square yard, at 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, shall be and the same is hereby repealed. And the said articles shall be subject to the same duty of 50 per cent. as is provided by the said 2d section for other manufactures of wool, which duty shall be liable to the same reductions as are prescribed by the 1st section of this act.

Sec. III.—And be it further enacted, that until the 30th of September, 1842, the duties imposed by existing laws, as modified by this act, shall remain and continue to be collected. And from and after the day last aforesaid, all duties on imports shall be collected in ready money, and all credits now allowed by law, to the payment of duties, shall be and are hereby abolished, and such duties shall be collected for the purpose of raising such revenues as may be necessary to an economical administration of the government; and from and after the day last aforesaid, the duties required to be paid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, shall be assessed upon the value thereof at the port where the same shall be entered, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law.

Sec. IV.—And be it further enacted, that, in addition to the articles now exempted by the act of the 14th of July, 1832, and the existing laws, from the payment of duties, the following articles imported from and after the 31st of December, 1833, and until the 30th of June, 1842, shall also be admitted to duty free from duty; to wit, bleached and unbleached linens, table linens, linen napkins, and linen muslins, and worsted stuff goods, shawls, and other manufactures of silk and worsted, manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be the component material of chief value, coming from this side of the Cape of Good Hope, except sewing silk.

Sec. V.—And be it further enacted, that from and after the said 30th of June, 1842, the following articles shall be admitted to entry free from duty; to wit, indigo, quicksilver, sulphur, crude saltpetre, grindstones, refined borax, emery, opium, tin in plates or sheets, gum Arabic, gum Senegal, lac dye, madder, rosin, codden, nut and berries used in dyeing, saffron, turmeric, wood or pastel, aloes, ambrogia, saffron, cochineal, camomile flowers, coriander seed, cataup, chalk, cocculus Indicus, horn shavings, glass, lanterns, ox horns, other horns and tips, India rubber, unmanufactured ivory, juniper berries, nut, nuts of all kinds, oil of juniper, unmanufactured rattans and reeds, tortoiseshell, tin foil, shell-lac, all vegetables used principally in dyeing and composing dyes, weld, and all articles employed chiefly for dyeing, except alum, copperas, bichromate of potash, prussiate of potash, chromate of potash, and nitrate of lead, aquafortis and tartaric acid. And all imports on which the 1st section of this act now operates, and all articles now admitted to entry, free from duty or paying a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem* before the said 30th of June, 1842, from and after that day may be admitted to duty, subject to such duty, not exceeding 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as shall be provided for by law.

Sec. VI.—And be it further enacted, that so much of the act of July 14, 1832, or of any other act, which is inconsistent with this act, shall be and the same is hereby repealed: provided that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prevent the passage, prior or subsequent to the said 30th of June, 1842, of any act or acts from time to time, that may be necessary to detect, prevent, or punish evasion of the duties on imports imposed by law; nor to prevent the passage of any act prior to the 30th of June, 1842, in contingency either of excess or deficiency of revenue, altering the rate of duties on articles which, by the aforesaid act of the 14th of July, 1832, are subject to a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, in such manner, as not to exceed that rate, and so as to adjust the revenue to either of the said contingencies.

Circular to Officers of the Customs.

Treasury Department, April 20, 1833.

The 7th section of the act of the 14th of July, 1832, entitled "An Act to alter and amend the several Acts imposing the Duties on Imports," provides, that in all cases where the duty which now is or hereafter may be imposed on any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States, shall, by law, be regulated, or be directed to be estimated or levied upon the value of the square yard, or any other quantity or parcel thereof, and in all cases where there is or shall be imposed any *ad valorem* rate of duty on any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States, it shall be the duty of the collector, within whose district the same shall be imported or entered, to cause the actual value thereof, at the time purchased, and place from which the same shall have been imported into the United States, to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of such yards, parcels, or quantities, and such actual value of every of them as the case may require; and it shall, in every case, be the duty of the appraisers of the United States, and every of them, and every other person who shall act as such appraiser, by all the reasonable ways or means in his or their power, to ascertain, estimate, and appraise the true and actual value, any invoice or affidavit thereto to the contrary notwithstanding, of the said goods, wares, and merchandise, at the time purchased, and place from whence the same shall have been imported into the United States, and the number of such yards, parcels, or quantities, and such actual value of every of them as the case may require, &c. &c.

The 9th section of the same act provides, "that if shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury, under the direction of the President of the United States, from time to time to establish such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as the President of the United States shall think proper, to secure a just, faithful, and impartial appraisal of all goods, wares, and merchandise as aforesaid, imported into the United States, and just and proper entries of such actual value thereof, and of the square yards, parcels, or other quantities, as the case may require, and of such actual value of every of them; and it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury to report all such rules and regulations, with the reasons therefor, to the next session of Congress."

The 1st section of the act of the 2d of March, 1833, entitled "An act to modify the Act of the 14th of July, 1832, and all other Acts imposing Duties on Imports," declares, "that from and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where duties are imposed on foreign imports by the act of the 14th of July, 1832, entitled 'An Act to alter and amend the several Acts imposing Duties on Imports,' or by any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on the value thereof, one-tenth part of such excess shall be deducted," &c.

It is believed that by this provision, and as necessary to the execution of the law, all duties imposed by any act of Congress upon foreign imports are substantially regulated by, and are directed to be estimated and levied upon, the value of the square yard, where that is the form, and upon some other quantity or parcel in cases where the duty is not imposed by the square yard; and that consequently the authority conferred by the 9th section aforesaid must necessarily be exercised, for the more effectual execution of the said act of the 2d of March, 1833.

The following rules and regulations are therefore established, under the direction of the President

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of the United States, for the purpose of securing a just, faithful, and impartial appraisal of all goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States from and after the 31st of December next, and for the just and proper entries of the actual value thereof, and of the square yard, parcels or other quantities, as the case may require.

In all cases of *ad valorem* duties under the act of the 14th of July, 1832, or any other act, the regulations at present authorized by law, for ascertaining the actual value, will remain unaltered. With respect to those articles liable to a specific duty, or other duty than that of *ad valorem*, the actual value thereof at the time purchased, and place from which the same shall have been imported into the United States or in the country wherein the same may have been originally manufactured, or produced, as the case may be, will be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of yards, or square yards, tons, pounds, gallons, bushels, or other parcels or quantities, and such actual value of any of them as the case may require, and just and proper entries thereof be made, in the same manner and according to the same regulations, as are required by the said act of the 14th of July, 1832, and other acts now in force in regard to articles paying *ad valorem* duty; and in all such cases the same verification of invoices and other proofs will be required and produced as are at present authorized in respect to articles liable by previous acts in an *ad valorem* duty. The value of all such articles being thus ascertained, the proportion which the duty now paid by such articles bears to the said value will be calculated, and from the excess thereof beyond 20 per cent, there will be deducted, from and after the 31st of December next, 10 per cent.; that is to say, where such proportion shall be equal to 30 per cent., there shall be deducted 10 per cent., upon 30 per cent., or 3 dollars; and from and after the 31st of December, 1833, the like deduction shall be made from the same excess, or 10 per cent., upon 30 per cent., being 3 dollars more; and in the same manner, at the several periods specified in the said act of the 3d of March, 1833, until the 31st of December, 1841; from and after which, one half of the residue of such excess will be deducted, and the other half thereof from and after the 30th of June, 1842.

From the proportion of the duty thus ascertained upon the wines of France, in addition to the said 10 per cent., there will also be deducted such further per cent. as will be necessary to preserve the discrimination in favour of such wines, stipulated in the convention between the United States and his Majesty the King of the French, concluded at Paris on the 4th of July, 1831, and authorized by law.

It may be proper to observe, that all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, will be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of yards, square-yards, or otherwise, parcel or quantities, and of such actual value thereof as the case may require, will be ascertained, and just and proper entries thereof made, according to the foregoing regulations.

It is believed that the value of foreign imports referred to in the act of the 3d of March, 1833, is not the assumed value on which the duty upon all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, is directed to be estimated under the act of the 14th of July, 1832; viz. of thirty cents, if not dyed, coloured, painted, or stained, though valued at less than 30 cents; and of thirty-five cents, if dyed, coloured, painted, or stained, though valued at less than 35 cents the square yard. This value is merely artificial, and assumed by previous laws as a means of augmenting the *ad valorem* rate of duty, imposed for the purpose of protection, upon such articles; and the amount of the duty, although ascertained by the adoption of the minimum principle, in the proportion which the sum collected by the government bears to the actual value of the article; and, therefore, a quantity of such cottons, costing in fact 80 dollars, but valued for the purpose of the act of the 14th of July, 1832, at 240 dollars, really pays a duty of 75 per cent. upon the true value thereof.

The act of the 3d of March, 1833, however, proceeds upon a different principle, and aims at a different purpose. It obviously intends to make an equal deduction from the duty on all foreign imports, and ultimately to reduce it to a rate not exceeding 20 per cent. upon the real, and not an assumed, value of the articles imported. This last purpose is explicitly stated in the last clause of the 5th section, which provides "that all imports on which the last section of this act may operate, and all articles now admitted to entry free of duty, or paying a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, before the said 30th of June, 1842, from and after that day may be admitted to entry, subject to such duty, not exceeding 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as shall be provided for by law." And the last section, which has been already referred to, expressly provides for the deduction, after the 30th of June, 1833, of all excess of foreign imports above 20 per cent. on the value thereof, which shall have been imposed by previous laws, and to which they may then be subject.

The object of thus establishing a general *ad valorem* duty on foreign imports, and of equalizing the rate, can only be attained by calculating the duty on the real instead of the assumed value. This purpose is more particularly manifest from the last clause of the 3d section, which provides, that from and after the 30th of June, 1842, "the duties required to be paid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, shall be assessed upon the value thereof at the port where the same shall be entered, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law." Each of these clauses relates to the actual value of the foreign import, and they differ only in estimating that value; previously to the 30th of June, 1833, the value in the foreign port being taken, and after that time, the value at the port of entry. The object of neither can be accomplished at any period, by adhering either to the nominal value assumed by previous acts, or in the rate of *ad valorem* founded upon such assumption.

In all importations of manufactures of cotton, therefore, or of which cotton shall be a component part, after the 31st of December, 1832, the value thereof will be ascertained in the manner aforesaid, and from the amount which the rate of duty under the act of the 14th of July, 1832, or any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on such value, the deduction required by the act of the 3d of March, 1833, will be made according to the foregoing rules.

Though these rules and regulations will not go into effect until the 1st of January next, they have been thus early adopted and made public, for the purpose of giving timely notice to the manufacturers and merchants, and all others concerned; and especially as to the verification, by the consuls abroad of the invoices of importations to be made after that time.

LOUIS M'LANE, Secretary of the Treasury.

Dzeroback.—All articles subject to duty imported into the United States, not having been landed more than 3 years, are allowed a drawback of the duties, on exportations of the same (except foreign dried and pickled fish, and other salt provisions, and chain cables).

Credits.—When the duty on an article of which wool is not a component part does not exceed 300 dollars, it must be paid in cash without discount; when it exceeds 300 dollars, a credit of 3 months is allowed for the 1st, and of 6 months for the other 1/2, reckoning from the date of the vessel's entry. Duties on wool, and all manufactures of wool, to be paid in cash without discount.

Discount.—When the duties on any article, except wool and woolen manufactures, exceed 200 dollars, and they are paid in cash at the time of entry, the importer is entitled to a discount of 4 per cent.

Leakage and Drerage.—On spirits, 2 per cent. *ad valorem*, and porter, in bottles, 10 per cent.; all other liquors, in bottles, 5 per cent.

Restrictions.—No goods to be imported in vessels less than 30 tons burthen. No beer, ale, and porter, in casks of less capacity than 60

gallons, beer measure; or, if in bottles, in packages less than 6 lbs. No distilled spirits in casks of less capacity than 90 gallons measure, except brandy, which may be imported in casks of any capacity, not less than 15 gallons.

Tonnage Duty.—On American vessels, and the vessels of the West Indies, Central America, Netherlands, Hamburg, Bremen, London, Prussia, Sweden, Norway, Ulsterburgh, Russia, Asia, East Hindoos, Papal Dominions, Portugal, and Barbary, from whatever port or place, and on French vessels coming from Martinique and Guadeloupe, &c. On French vessels from other ports, and all other foreign vessels (except as above enumerated) coming from ports where Americans are permitted to trade, 1 dollar per ton; but from ports where Americans are not permitted to trade, 2 dollars and 50 cents per ton.

On Spanish vessels, coming direct from Spain, 5 cents per ton. **Dye Goods.**—The following, among other articles, are allowed free of duties.—Antimony, alumina, alves, another name, ammonia, argols, arrowroot, arsenic, asphaltum.—Belgium, Berlin, and

and bleaching powder, brimstone, sugar, sugar, cinchona, pepper, saffron, and bark, and shoes, and woollen goods.—From the westward—Coffees, gums of all kinds, and skins, hides, horns, bones, ivory, soap, Lac, dye, liquorice,

The following Table of the principal articles is

Table of principal articles with descriptions and values.

[We submit a statement of New York Shipping and Arrivals]

Table of shipping arrivals listing steamers, ships, frigates, galleons, and schooners from various countries.

It may be remarked that losses in operation to a very slight impression in 1835. The value of the cargo, for the purpose, at \$13,000,000. Contrary to general expectation of these losses. Losses from fire are in the material drawback, in the present sum for the year, 192 fire, being Vol. II.—X

Of these, 90 originated in brick and fireproof buildings.	
The property destroyed by the said fires, amounted in all to	- - - - - \$3,225,000
On which there were insurance for	- - - - - 2,853,510
The collective amounts paid by the Insurance Companies, was	- - - - - 2,601,501
Leaving a balance of actual loss to the persons insured, of	- - - - - 561,519
The value of property destroyed, on which there was no insurance, amounts to	- - - - - 265,000

See IMPORTS and EXPORTS, SHIPS, and TARIFF.—*Am. Ed.*

NICARAGUA, or PEACH WOOD (Ger. *Nicaragaholz*, *Blutholz*; Du. *Bloedhout*, Fr. *Bois de sang*, *Bois de Nicaragua*; It. *Legno sanguigno*; Sp. *Palo de sangre*; Port. *Pao sanguinho*), a tree of the same genus (*Casalpinia*) as the Brazil and sapan woods, but the species has not been exactly ascertained. It grows principally in the vicinity of the lake of Nicaragua, whence its name. It is said by Dr. Bancroft to be almost as red and heavy as the true Brazil wood, but it does not commonly afford more than a third part, in quantity, of the colour of the latter; and even this is rather less durable and less beautiful, though dyed with the same mordants. Nicaragua or peach woods differ greatly in their quality as well as price; one sort being so deficient in colouring matter, that 6 pounds of it will only dye as much wool or cloth as 1 pound of Brazil wood; while another variety of it will produce nearly half the effect of an equal quantity of Brazil wood, and will sell proportionally dear.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 332.)

The London dealers distinguish Nicaragua wood into 3 sorts, viz. *large*, *middle*, and *small*; the price of the 1st sort (duty included) being from 14*l.* to 20*l.* per ton; of the 2d, from 8*l.* to 10*l.* per do.; and of the 3d, from 7*l.* to 8*l.* per do. The entries of Nicaragua wood for home consumption amounted, in 1831, to 1,485 tons: in 1832, they amounted to 1,890 tons; an increase that was, no doubt, in part at least, occasioned by the duty having been reduced in 1831 from 15*s.* to 5*s.* a ton.

NICKEL, a scarce metal, which occurs always in combination with other metals, from which it is exceedingly difficult to separate it. When pure, it is of a fine white colour resembling silver. It is rather softer than iron: its specific gravity, when cast, is 8.273; when hammered, 8.932. It is malleable, and may without difficulty be hammered into plates not exceeding $\frac{1}{100}$ th part of an inch in thickness. It is attracted by the magnet; and is not altered by exposure to the air, nor by being kept under water. It is employed in potteries, and in the manufacture of porcelain.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

NITRE. See SALTPETRE.

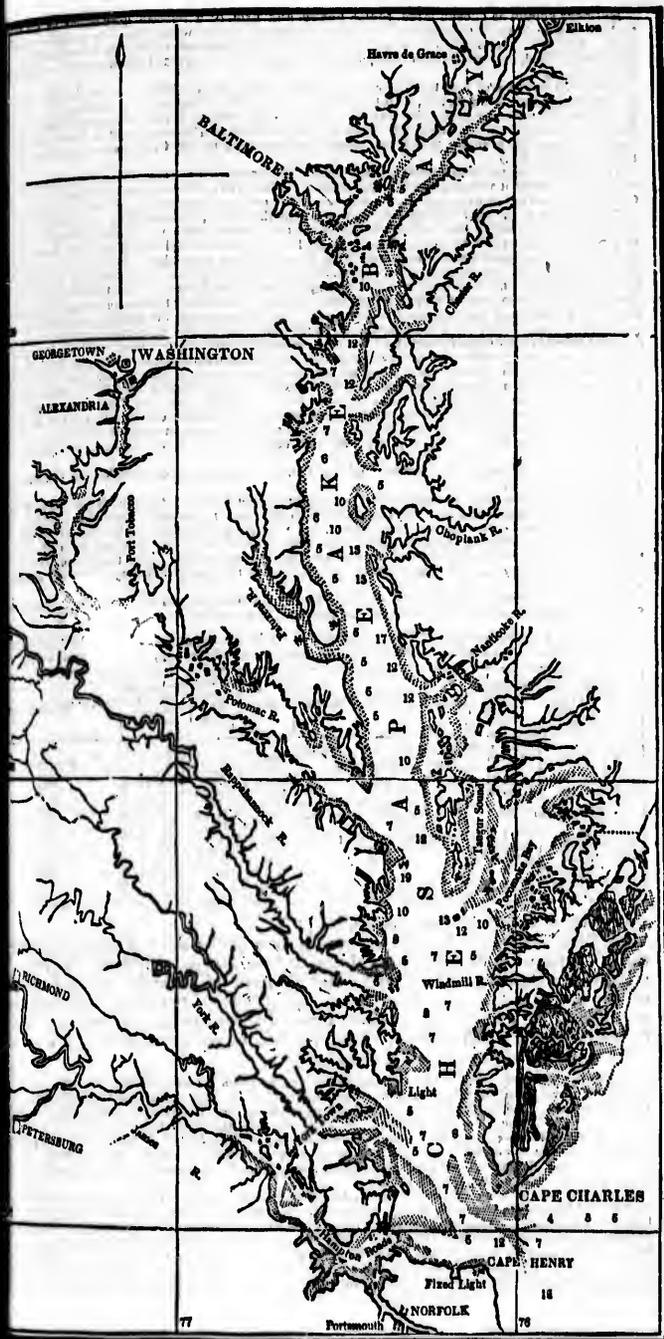
[**NORFOLK**, a seaport situated on Elizabeth river in Virginia, and 8 miles from Hampton Roads, in lat. 37° 12' North, and longitude 76° 42' West. Its harbour is capacious and deep, of easy access, and safe in all weathers. The Roads are formed by an enlargement of James river, at its mouth in the Chesapeake Bay; and they afford an anchorage for vessels, unsurpassed anywhere else in the world. These circumstances, together with the advantages of transportation furnished by the Dismal Swamp canal and the Portsmouth and Roanoke railroad, have rendered Norfolk a place of considerable trade. In this respect it takes precedence of any other place in the state of Virginia. We annex a plan of the Chesapeake Bay. See opposite page.—*Am. Ed.*]

NOTE, PROMISSORY. See BANKING, and BANKS.

NUT, or HAZEL NUT (Ger. *Haselnüsse*; Fr. *Noisettes*, *Avelines*; It. *Nociuole*, *Avelane*; Sp. *Avellanas*; Port. *Avellãs*; Lat. *Avellanæ*), the fruit of different species of *Coryli*, or hazels. The kernels have a mild, farinaceous, oily taste, agreeable to most palates. A kind of chocolate has been prepared from them; and they have sometimes been made into bread. The expressed oil of hazel nuts is little inferior to that of almonds. Besides those raised at home, we import nuts from different parts of France, Portugal, and Spain, but principally from the latter. The Spanish nuts in the highest estimation, though sold under the name of Barcelona nuts, are not really shipped at that city, but at Tarragona, a little more to the south. Mr. Inglis says that the annual average export of nuts from Tarragona is from 25,000 to 30,000 bags, of 4 to the ton. They cost, free on board, in autumn, 1830, 17*s.* 6*d.* per bag.—(*Spain in 1830*, vol. ii. p. 362.) The entries of nuts for home consumption amount to from 100,000 to 125,000 bushels a year; the duty of 5*l.* a bushel producing from 10,000*l.* to 12,500*l.* nett.

NUTMEG (Ger. *Muskatennüsse*; Du. *Muskaät*; Fr. *Muscades*, *Noix muscade*; It. *Noce muscada*; Sp. *Moscada*; Arab. *Jowzaltëib*; Sans. *Jitiphala*; Malay, *Dwab-pala*), the fruit of the genuine nutmeg tree (*Myristica Moschata*), a native of the Moluccas, which has been transplanted to Sumatra, Penang, &c. An inferior and long-shaped nutmeg is common in Borneo; but the fruit nowhere attains to the same perfection as in the Moluccas. Of the several varieties of the tree, that denominated the Queen Nutmeg, which bears a small round fruit, is the best. The kernel, or proper nutmeg, is of a roundish oval form, marked on the outside with many vermicular furrows, within of a fleshy farinaceous substance, variegated whitish and bay. Nutmegs are frequently punctured and bored, in order to obtain the essential oil; the orifice being afterwards closed; but the fraud is easily detected by the lightness of the nutmeg.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Materia Indica*.)





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Nutmegs should be chosen large, round, heavy, and firm, of a lighish grey colour on the outside and the inside beautifully marbled, of a strong fragrant smell, warm aromatic taste, and a fat body. They are very subject to be worm-eaten. The best manner of packing them is in dry clean boxes, the oblong kind, and the smaller ones, should be rejected. 15 cwt. are allowed to a ton.—(Jardinier's *Orient. Com.*)

The dried produce of a nutmeg tree consists of nutmeg, mace (which see), and shell. The whole produce to be divided into 100 parts, there are 13½ of mace, 33½ of shell, and 53½ of nutmeg. In the ancient commerce, and down to the establishment of the Dutch monopoly, nutmegs were sold and exported in the shell. The natives, whenever the commerce is left to their management, continue the practice, which is strongly recommended by Mr. Crawford.—(*East Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 396.)

The jealous and miserable policy of the Dutch has reduced the trade in nutmegs to a mere shadow compared to what it would otherwise have been. They have, in so far at least as it was possible, exerted themselves to exterminate the nutmeg plants every where except in Banda. They have made the native princes of the surrounding islands to root out the trees; and annually send a fleet to see that the work of destruction has been effected, and that the bribes have not been bestowed in vain. They engage in an illicit trade in spices is dear to an inferior person, and banishment to a noble; and notwithstanding these tremendous penalties, it is supposed that about 60,000 lbs. of nutmegs, and 15,000 lbs. of mace, are clandestinely exported each year. In Banda, the aboriginal inhabitants have been expatriated, and the island parcelled among settlers from Holland, under the name of plantations. These persons, who may be turned out of their farms on the most trifling pretext, have about 100 slaves, who cultivate and prepare the nutmegs. The prices paid to the cultivator are all fixed by government; and it deserves to be mentioned, as affording one of the most striking illustrations of the ruinous effects of monopoly, that the fixed price which the government is now obliged to pay for nutmegs is five times greater than the price at which they bought them when the trade was free! Such a rough outline of that monstrous system, which has reduced what used to be one of the most important branches of Eastern commerce so low, that it is unable to afford employment for the capitalist and the wealthy merchant. We cannot conceive how so enlightened and liberal a government as that of Holland should continue to tolerate such scandalous abuses—abuses destructive alike of the rights of those subjected to its authority in the East, and the commerce and wealth of its subjects at home.—(*Modern Universal History*, vol. x. p. 457—467. 8vo ed.; and *Crawford's Eastern Archipelago*, vol. p. 394—413.)

Mr. Crawford estimates the produce of the Banda Islands at about 600,000 lbs. of nutmegs, and 150,000 lbs. of mace. During the period that the English had possession of the Spice Islands, nutmeg plants were carried to Penang, Bencoolen, and some of the West India Islands. In the latter they have altogether failed, at least as far as respects any useful purpose; but very good nutmegs, and in considerable quantities, are now raised at Penang and Bencoolen. Mr. Crawford, however, alleges that the cost of bringing them to market is there so high, that the restoration of a free culture in the native country of the nutmeg would instantly destroy this unstable and factitious branch of industry.—(*Eastern Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 409.)

The duty on nutmegs was reduced, in 1819, from 5s. 5d. to 2s. 6d. per lb.; and the quantities consumed for home consumption have since rapidly increased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Nutmegs retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, each Year since 1810, the Nett Amount of Duty received thereon, and the Rates of Duty.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.	Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.
1810	39,187	11,706 11 1	4s. 8d. per lb. and 2l. 13s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	1820	90,711 1-4	11,518 8 9	2s. 6d. per lb.
1811	50,980	14,462 14 4	ditto	1821	94,589 1-4	11,721 9 5	ditto
1812	47,158	11,300 9 8	ditto	1822	112,098	14,000 10 6	ditto
1813	Records destroyed.		(From 16 April) 5s. 9 1-2d. per lb. and 2l. 3s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	1823	117,773 3-4	14,728 7 2	ditto
1814	43,180	14,710 8 3	(From 10 April) 5s. 5d. per lb.	1824	129,762	18,178 19 7	ditto
1815	59,839	16,239 11 1	ditto	1825	90,214 1-2	13,496 13 2	ditto
1816	54,877	14,808 2 8	ditto	1826	101,117 1-4	12,628 13 10	ditto
1817	65,717 1-2	17,806 11 8	ditto	1827	128,369	16,767 2 9	ditto
1818	66,261 1-2	17,944 8 6	ditto	1828	140,021 1-2	17,514 0 4	ditto
1819	107,575	17,905 18 6	(From 6 July) 2s. 6d. per lb.	1829	113,273 1-4	14,114 0 9	ditto
				1830	121,380	16,158 0 0	ditto
				1831	152,389	18,025 0 0	ditto
				1832	117,408	14,678 0 0	ditto

[See IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—*Am. Ed.*]

NUTRIA, or NEUTRIA.—*Am. Ed.* The commercial name for the skins of *Myopotamus beavis* (Commerson), the *Coyou* of Molina, and the *Quoia* of D'Azara. In France, the skins were, and perhaps still are, sold under the name of *raconda*; but in England they are imported as *nutria* skins—deriving their appellation, most probably, from some supposed similarity of the animal which produces them, in appearance and habits, to the otter, the Spanish name for which is *nutria*. Indeed, Molina speaks of the *coyoyou* as a species of water rat, of the size and colour of the otter.

Nutria fur is largely used in the hat manufacture; and has become, within the last 15 or 20 years, an article of very considerable commercial importance. The imports fluctuate considerably, but they amounted to 1,370,103 skins; but they have not in any other year been much more than this number. In 1826, they were only 60,871. In 1831 and 1832, the imports were, at an average, 200,000 skins a year. Those entered for home consumption pay a duty of 1½d. a skin. They are principally brought from the Rio de la Plata. Nutria skins are very extensively used on the Continent. *Troy mentions*, that in certain years, a single French furrier (M. Bechem), has received from 100 to 20,000 skins.—(See FUR TRADE.)

The *coyoyou* or *quoia* is a native of South America, very common in the provinces of Chili, Buenos Ayres, and Tucuman, but more rare in Paraguay. In size it is less than the beaver, which it resembles in many points. The head is large and depressed, the ears small and rounded, the neck long and short, the muzzle sharper than that of the beaver, and the whiskers very long and stiff. The teeth are, as in the beaver, 2 incisor teeth, and 8 molar, above and below—20 teeth in all. The hind feet

* *Annales du Muséum*, vol. vi. p. 89. The figure given is, generally speaking, good; but the history, and contradicts the description.

The fore feet have some number of toes; and the little toe being small, long, crooked, and bare are not numerous. The claws are brownish red, which tips and extremity of which like the beaver, the coyoyou of colour, and the same importance in the habits of the coyoyou as the beaver. In a state of nature, they dig, and burrows in the earth to accompany her. The coyoyou is easily domesticated. We are indebted for the name to W. J. Broderip, Esq. **NUX VOMICA** (Fr.) growing in various parts of the East, accompanied with a smooth crust, several orbicular flat seeds, which has a very bitter, acrid, and is considered a violent poison. A strong emetic; but its medicinal uses are in the *Dispensatory*, &c.)

OAK (Ger. *Eiche*; D. *Eiche*; Port. *Roble*, &c.) there are several varieties of oak, which claims precedence prior to that of this species, especially in compactness, and wedgeable and gnarled (from 60 to 70 years), and is used to render, and some of the best qualities in so great demand for a strain, and no other. A fine oak is one of the strongest and most durable does not take, like that of Lebanon, no true spring from the trunk which is stem and white beauty; and the horizontal idea of its sov-

even such a tree as the looks pleasing. T

The oak is raised from the young trees. The colour of oak wood is inclined to red, and in general very distinct. The bark is small, and not very compact and porous in irregular dots, and is particularly polished. It contains

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The fore feet have each 5 fingers not webbed, the thumb being very small: the hind feet have the same number of toes; the great toe and 3 next toes being joined by a web which extends to their sides, and the little toe being free, but edged with a membrane on its inner side. The nails are combed, long, crooked, and sharp. The tail, unlike that of the beaver, is long, round, and hairy; but the hairs are not numerous, and permit the scaly texture of the skin in this part to be seen. The back of a brownish red, which becomes redder on the flanks: the belly is of a dirty red. The edges of the lips not extremely of the muzzle are white.

Like the beaver, the coypou is furnished with 3 kinds of fur; viz. the long ruddy hair which gives it some of colour, and the brownish ash-coloured fur at its base, which, like the down of the beaver, is of much importance in hat making, and the cause of the animal's commercial value.

The habits of the coypou are much like those of most of the other aquatic rodent animals. Its principal food, in a state of nature, is vegetable. It affects the neighbourhood of water, and swims perfectly well, and burrows in the ground. The female brings forth from 5 to 7 at a time; and the young always accompany her.

The coypou is easily domesticated, and its manners in captivity are very mild.

We are indebted for this account of nutria—the first, we believe, that appeared in any English work, to W. J. Broderip, Esq., F. R. S., &c.

NUX VOMICA (Fr. *Noix Vomique*; Hind. *Kaachla*), the fruit of a species of *Strychnos*, growing in various places in the East Indies. The fruit is about the size of an orange, covered with a smooth crustaceous yellow bark, and filled with a fleshy pulp, in which are imbedded several orbicular flattened seeds, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch in diameter. Nux vomica is inodorous, and has a very bitter, acrid taste, which remains long on the palate. It is known as a very violent poison. A suspicion has, however, been entertained, that it has been used in port-wines and breweries; but its introduction into them is prohibited under heavy penalties.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*, &c.)

O.

OAK (Ger. *Eiche*; Du. *Eik*; Da. *Eeg*; Sw. *Ek*; Fr. *Chêne*; It. *Quercia*; Sp. *Roble*, *Arbollo*; Port. *Roble*, *Carbalho*; Rus. *Dub*; Pol. *Dab*; Lat. *Quercus*; Arab. *Baalul*). There are several varieties of this valuable tree; but the common English oak (*Quercus robur*) claims precedence of every other. The oak timber imported from America is very superior to that of this country: the oak from the central parts of Europe is also inferior, especially in compactness and resistance of cleavage. The knotty oak of England, the "unwedgable and gnarled oak," as Shakspeare called it, when cut down at a proper age (from 50 to 70 years), is the best timber known. Some timber is harder, some more difficult to rend, and some less capable of being broken across; but none contains all the best qualities in so great and equal proportions; and thus, for at once supporting a weight, resisting a strain, and not splintering by a cannon shot, the timber of the oak is superior to every other.

A fine oak is one of the most picturesque of trees: it conveys to the mind associations of strength and duration, which are very impressive. The oak stands up against the blast, and does not take, like other trees, a twisted form from the action of the winds. Except the cedar of Lebanon, no tree is so remarkable for the stoutness of its limbs; they do not exactly spring from the trunk, but divide from it; and thus it is sometimes difficult to know which is stem and which is branch. The twisted branches of the oak, too, add greatly to its beauty; and the horizontal direction of its boughs, spreading over a large surface, communicates the idea of its sovereignty over all the trees of the forest. Even a decayed oak,

" ————— dry and dead,
Still clad with reliques of its trophies old,
Lifting to heaven its aged, hoary head,
Whose foot on earth has got but feeble hold,"

Even such a tree as Spencer has thus described, is strikingly beautiful; decay in this looks pleasing. To such an oak Lucan compared Pompey in his decline:—

"Qualls frugifero quercus sublimis in agro
Eruis veteres pupuli, r. — aque gestans
Dona ducum; nec jam v. — adibus herens,
Pondere fixa suo est; nudoque per æra ramos
Effundens, trunco, non frondibus, efficit umbram.
At quamvis primo nutet cesura sub Euro,
Tot circum silvæ firmo se robore tollant,
Sola tamen colitur."—(Lib. i. lin. 130.)

The oak is raised from acorns, sown either where the oak is to stand, or in a nursery whence the young trees are transplanted.

The colour of oak wood is a fine brown, and is familiar to every one: it is of different shades; that inclined to red is the most inferior kind of wood. The larger transverse septa are in general very distinct, producing beautiful flowers when cut obliquely. Where the septa are small, and not very distinct, the wood is much the strongest. The texture is alternately compact and porous; the compact part of the annual ring being of the darkest colour, and in irregular dots, surrounded by open pores, producing beautiful dark veins in some shades, particularly pollard oaks. Oak timber has a particular smell, and the taste is slightly astringent. It contains gallic acid, and is blackened by contact with iron when it is damp.

The young wood of English oak is very tough, and often cross-grained, and difficult to work. Foreign wood, and that of old trees, is more brittle and workable. Oak warps and twists much in drying; and, in seasoning, shrinks about $\frac{1}{3}$ of its width.

Oak of a good quality is more durable than any other wood that attains a like size. Trevius says it is of eternal duration when driven into the earth: it is extremely durable in water; and in a dry state it has been known to last nearly 1,000 years. The more compact it is, and the smaller the pores are, the longer it will last; but the open, porous, and coloured oak, which grows in Lincolnshire and some other places, is not near so durable.

Besides the common British oak (*Quercus robur*), the sessile-fruited bay oak (*Quercus sessiliflora*) is pretty abundant in several parts of England, particularly in the north. The wood of this species is said by Tredgold to be darker, heavier, harder, and more elastic than the common oak; tough, and difficult to work; and very subject to warp and split in seasoning. Mr. Tredgold seems disposed to regard this species as superior to the common oak for ship building. But other, and also very high authorities, are opposed to him on this point; and, on the whole, we should think that it is sufficiently well established, that for the great practical purposes to which oak timber is applied, and especially for ship building, the wood of the common oak deserves to be preferred to every other species. A well-informed writer in the *Quarterly Review* has the following remarks on the point in question:—

"We may here notice a fact long known to botanists, but of which our planters and purveyors of timber appear to have had no suspicion,—that there are two distinct species of oak in England, *Quercus robur*, and the *Quercus sessiliflora*; the former of which affords a close-grained, firm, and durable timber, rarely subject to rot; the other more loose and sappy, very liable to rot, and not half so durable. This difference was noted so early as the time of Ray; and Martyn in his *Flora Rustica*, and James Smith in his *Flora Britannica*, have added their testimonies to the fact. The second species is supposed to have been introduced some 2 or 3 ages ago, from the Continent, where the oak is the wood of this latter species, especially in the German forests, the timber of which is known to be worthless. But what is of more importance to us, is that *de facto* the imposture abounds, and is propagated vigorously, in the New Forest and other parts of Hampshire; in Norfolk, and the western counties, and about London; and there is but too much reason to believe that the numerous complaints that were heard about our ships being infected with what was called, improperly enough, dry rot, were owing to the introduction of this species of oak into the naval dock-yards; where, we understand, the distinction was not even suspected. It may thus be discriminated from the true old English oak:—The acorn stalks of the *robur* are long, and its leaves short; whereas the *sessiliflora* has the acorn stalks short, and the leaves long; the acorns of the former grow singly, or seldom two on the same footstalk; those of the latter, in clusters of 2 or 3 close to the stem of the branch. We believe the Russian ships of the Baltic, that are not of larch or fir, are built of this species of oak; but if it were not the case, their exposure on the stocks, without cover, to the heat of summer, which, though short, is excessive, and the rifts and chinks which fill up with ice and snow in the long winter, are enough to destroy the stoutest oak, and quite sufficient to account for their short-lived duration."

A great deal of inquiry and discussion has taken place at different periods as to the supply and consumption of oak timber; but the results have not been very satisfactory. In a *Report of the Commissioners of Land Revenue*, printed in 1812, it is stated that, taking the tonnage of the navy in 1690, 776,087 tons, it would require, at 14 loads to a ton, 1,104,663 loads to build such a navy; and supposing the average duration of a ship to be 14 years, the annual quantity of timber required would be 78,904 loads, exclusive of repairs, which they calculate would be about 37,000 loads; making the total about 116,000 loads; of which, however, the commissioners reckon may be furnished 31,341 loads; the annual average of the prizes; and of the remaining 84,659 loads, they think it not unnecessary to calculate on 28,659 from other sources than British oak. "This," they observe, "leaves 56,000 loads of such oak, as the quantity which would be sufficient annually to support, at its present unexampled magnitude, the whole British navy, including ships of war of all sorts; but which may be taken as equivalent together to 20 74-gun ships, each of which, one with another, contains 3,000 tons, or would require, at the rate of 14 loads to the ton, 3,000 loads; making just 60,000 loads for 20 such ships."

Now, it has been supposed that not more than 40 oak trees can stand on an acre of ground, so as to grow to a full size fit for ships of the line, or to contain each 14 loads of timber: 50 acres, therefore, would be required to produce a sufficient quantity of timber to build a 74-gun ship, and 1,000 acres to build 20 such ships; and as the oak requires at least 100 years to arrive at maturity, 100,000 acres would be required to keep up a successive supply, for maintaining a navy of 700,000 or 800,000 tons. The commissioners further observe, that as there are 20,000,000 acres of waste lands in the kingdom, a part set aside for planting would at once furnish the whole quantity wanted for the use of the navy.

According to Mr. Barrow, this calculation is over-rated by about a half. "In the first place," he says, "it is supposed a state of perpetual war, during which the tonnage of the whole navy is contained in more than double of what it now actually is; and, in the second place, it reckons the average duration of the navy at 14 years only; which, from the improvements that have taken place in the construction and preservation of ships of war, with the resources of tank ships built by India, we do not hesitate in assuming at an average of twice the number of years; and if so, the quantity of timber required for the navy will be nothing like that which the commissioners have stated."

"The fact, however, is certain, that long before the conclusion of the late war, a scarcity began to be felt, especially of the larger kind of timber fit for ships of the line; and so great was this want, that if Sir Robert Seppings had not contrived the means of substituting straight timber for that of different forms and dimensions, before considered to be indispensable, the building of new ships would have entirely ceased."

"If, however, the growth of oak for ship timber was greatly diminished during the war, so as to threaten an alarming scarcity, there is little doubt that, from the increased attention paid by individuals to their young plantations, and their great extension, as well as from the measure of allocating portions of the royal forests to those who had claims on them, and including the remainder for the use of the public, this country will, in future times, be fully adequate to the production of oak timber to the demand for the naval and mercantile marine."—(*Supp. Ency. Brit. art. Navy.*)

The bark of the oak tree is very valuable. It is preferred to all other substances for the purpose of tanning, and brings a high price.—(See BARK.)

The foreign oak timber imported into Great Britain is principally derived from Canada and France. The latter is the most valuable—its price being to the former in the proportion of about 9 to 6; the

of a load of Prussian oak timber. The quantity imported from each; the greater part quantities imported during

Year	Loads
1887	5,470
1828	5,440

For further details with respect to the work on Timber, see Tredgold's *Principles of Timber*, p. 61.

OATS (*Ger. Hafer; Lat. Avena; Sp. Avena; Po. Avena*): One of the most common of the cereals of botanists. They are indigenous to Britain, and are well adapted to cold northern climates. They can be advantageously cultivated north of Paris; but, however, cultivated in considerable success. In the north of the people, it is far more extensively cultivated in the northern counties, and particularly in the north of Scotland.

There are 4 leading varieties of oats: the brown or red oat, the white oat, the potato oat is at present the most common in the north of England, and is the most common in the London market than any other. The potato oat is in Cumberland, and produces the stock now employed in some places in the north of England, in Derbyshire, and Somersetshire, in Cornwall.—(*Lo. Ency. Brit. art. 47—52.*)

In 1765, Mr. Charles Blount estimated the value of the Oats in Wales at 623,000.—(*Travels in Wales*, p. 100.) They are very extensively cultivated in the greatest consumption of any grain for business and pleasure. The culture of oats has been introduced into Ireland. Perhaps the produce of the ground is foul and exhausted, and the soil, well managed, will yield, at an average, 10 bushels per acre. For information as to the value of their prices, the quantity of the produce, &c. see the article OATS.

ODESSA, a flourishing city, situated on the coast, between the rivers Dnieper and Pruthi. It was founded by order of the Empress Catherine II. for the commerce of the Black Sea, and has in a great measure supplanted the ancient city of Caffa. A great fire, dated the 7th of August, 1792, comprehended the city, and the bottom being fine sand, which renders it less safe than other ports, one of which projects to the sea, and is 2000 ships. It has also the advantage of that of Marcellin, and the inhabitants, which conveys an air of salubrity, which has, in consequence,

A load of Prussian oak timber brought 4l., a load of Canada ditto would not bring more than about 3l. The quantity imported varies; but may, at an average, amount to about 10,000 loads, of 50 cubic feet each; the greater part from Quebec. Oak plank is almost wholly imported from Prussia. The quantities imported during the 6 years ending the 5th of January, 1833, were—

Year.	Loads.	Year.	Loads.	Year.	Loads.
1827	5,470	1829	1,434	1831	2,525
1828	2,449	1830	1,542	1832	1,789

For further details with respect to the importation of oak, its price, duty on, &c., see WOOD.—See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*; art. *Navy*, Supplement to *Encyc. Brit.*; the very interesting work on *Timber, Trees and Fruits*, in the *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*; *Rass's Cyclopaedia*, &c.

OATS (Ger. *Hafcr*; Du. *Havre*; Da. *Havre*; Sw. *Hafre*; Fr. *Avoine*; It. *Vena*, *Avena*; Sp. *Avena*; Port. *Avea*; Russ. *Oves*; Pol. *Owies*), a species of grain, the *Avena sativa* of botanists. There are innumerable varieties of this grain, some of which are said to be indigenous to Britain. It is the hardiest of all the cereal grasses, growing luxuriantly in the cold northern climates, and in coarse mountainous districts, where neither wheat nor barley can be advantageously cultivated. It thrives best, and is, indeed, chiefly raised, in latitudes north of Paris; being, but little cultivated south of France, Spain, or Portugal. It is, however, cultivated in Bengal, so far as the 22d degree of latitude, and, in the East Indies, with considerable success. In Scotland, where it has long formed a principal part of the food of the people, it is far more generally cultivated than any other species of grain. It is also very extensively cultivated in Ireland. In England it is grown principally in the northern counties, and in the fens of Lincoln, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Norfolk; but the oats of Northumberland and Scotland are reckoned superior to those raised farther south.

There are 4 leading varieties of this grain, cultivated in England, viz. white, black, grey, and brown or red oats. The sub-varieties of the white are numerous. That denominated the potato oat is at present almost the only one raised on land in a good state of cultivation in the north of England and the south of Scotland, and usually brings a higher price in the London market than any other variety. It was accidentally discovered growing in a field of potatoes in Cumberland in 1788; and from the produce of that single stalk has been introduced the stock now in general cultivation. Black and grey oats are little cultivated, except in some places in the north of Scotland. The red oat is chiefly confined to Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Staffordshire. A species of naked oat, provincially called *pillar*, is raised in Cornwall.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Brown's Rural Economy*, vol. ii. pp. 47—52.)

In 1765, Mr. Charles Smith estimated the number of consumers of oats in England and Wales at 623,000.—(*Tracts on the Corn Trade*, 2d edit. p. 140.) ; but at present we believe they are very considerably fewer. The feeding of horses has at all times occasioned the greatest consumption of oats in this part of the kingdom; and as the number of horses kept for business and pleasure has been vastly increased within the last 30 or 40 years, the culture of oats has been considerably extended, notwithstanding the increasing imports from Ireland. Perhaps the produce of no species of grain varies more than that of oats. Where the ground is foul and exhausted, not more than 20 bushels an acre are obtained; but on rich soils, well managed, 64, 72, and sometimes 80 bushels and upwards have been reaped. Oats yield, at an average, 8 lbs. meal for 14 lbs. corn.

For information as to the laws regulating the importation and exportation of oats, and their prices, the quantities imported and exported, &c., see **CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADES**.

ODESSA, a flourishing sea-port of Southern Russia, on the north-west coast of the Black Sea, between the rivers Dniester and Bug, in lat. 46° 28' 54" N., lon. 30° 43' 22" E. Population said to amount to 40,000. The foundations of Odessa were laid so lately as 1792, by order of the Empress Catharine, after the peace of Jassy. It was intended to serve as an entrepot for the commerce of the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the sea of Azoff, and has in a great measure answered the expectations of its founders. By an Imperial ukase, dated the 7th of February, 1817, it was declared a free port, and the inhabitants exempted from taxation for 30 years; since which period its increase has been extremely rapid. The bay or roadstead of Odessa is extensive, the water deep, and the anchorage good, the bottom being fine sand and gravel; it is, however, exposed to the south-easterly wind, which renders it less safe in winter. The port, which is artificial, being formed by 2 moles, one of which projects to a considerable distance into the sea, is calculated to contain about 200 ships. It has also the advantage of deep water. There is a convenient iszaretto, on the model of that of Marseilles. The want of fresh water used to be the greatest disadvantage under which the inhabitants laboured; but this has been obviated by the construction of a canal which conveys an abundant supply of water into the town. There are no trees in the vicinity, which has, in consequence, a bleak and arid appearance.

articles which occur on the eastern coast of Spain, at which periods wheat is allowed to be lawfully imported, and, it is said, from the facility of its introduction by contraband, when not legally allowed, Mareilles has been a great depot for the wheat of the Black Sea.

From thence, as also from Gibraltar, where there is generally some in store, it can easily be transported to Spain, to Sardinia, to Corsica, to Tunis, to Tripoli, or wherever scarcity has created a beneficial market.

The coast of Barbary, though often having a surplus of wheat, much of which occasionally assists to feed Portugal, in some seasons have been affected with most deficient harvests. This was recently the case in a remarkable degree. Tripoli and Tunis experienced, in the year 1820, a harvest most miserably short, and were supplied from other countries.

Charges on Shipping Corn.—In 1816, the expense of delivering a chetwert of wheat free on board, including commission, warehouse rent, and shipping charges, amounted to upwards of 5 roubles; but at present (1836) it does not exceed 2 roubles. The duties per chetwert are as follow:—

Export duty	91 3/4 sh. cop.	Other grain 11 cop.
Quarantine	1-4	1-4
Town and harbour duties	7-4	2
Lycium duty	9	2
	98 1-4	24 1-4

The warehouse rent of corn at Odessa is from 8 to 10 copecks per chetwert per month. M. De Hagenmeter supposes that Turkey, and the different ports of the Mediterranean require, at an average, an annual supply of 1,400,000 chetwerts, or about 1,050,000 quarters, of which 1,000,000 chetwerts, or 750,000 quarters, are furnished by Southern Russia, and principally shipped from Odessa. Wallachia and Moldavia are both very fertile in corn; and were tranquilly and good order introduced into them, and the free navigation of the Danube secured, Galatz and Brailoff would be two of the principal European grain shipping ports. (See the excellent report of Hagenmeter on the Trade of the Black Sea, pp. 98—114. Eng. Trans.)

Wheat exported from Odessa pays an export duty of 8 roubles per 10 pods.

Exclusive of corn, the other articles mentioned as being exported from Odessa, find their way to the different markets in the Mediterranean. Those shipped for Turkey are iron, tallow, sail-cloth, cordage, anchors for ships of war, butter, &c. The exports to Italy and other European countries are similar.

The importation of all foreign articles into the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff is confined to Odessa, Theodosia or Kaffa, and Taganrog. The import trade is, however, of inferior importance when compared with the export trade. The principal articles are sugar and coffee; dry woods, wine and brandy, cotton stuffs and yarn, woolen and silk manufactures, spices, cutlery; eggs, lemons, figs, and other fruit; lemon juice oil, tin and tin plates, dried fruits, paper, silk, specks, &c.

Principal Articles imported into Odessa in the following Years:—

Articles.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Coffee, pods	2,582	2,615	2,747	8,024	6,664	6,642	8,005	5,014
Sugar, raw refined	5,183	2,748	653	6,744	4,252	6,753	5,368	10,357
Cotton, raw	27,917	27,649	25,797	12,253	12,230	11,224	22,125	31,158
Oil, olive	6,410	3,801	6,478	3,436	1,110	1,483	4,299	6,194
Wine, French	1,716	8,302	8,036	6,036	3,10	3,10	3,375	2,121
Silk	747	643	2,958	2,755	1,039	107	4,148	1,658
Yarn				222	622	130	600	800
Woolen				945	4,630	2,267	7,643	8,971
Wool					1,131	1,979	1,160	2,652
Iron					3,308	6,127	7,750	14,403
Woolen					12,979	4,544	18,779	16,502
Wool					13,301	6,801	13,022	12,928
Wine	6,485	2,498	3,186	13,424	12,244	8,084	21,423	12,861
Wine	6,341	6,196	1,996	31,035	12,691	9,040	53,413	27,333
Wine	1,179,915	1,317,024	1,138,906	946,102	670,148	1,097,192	1,160,354	1,865,558
Woolen	68,180	118,674	369,446	611,419	599,877	432,321	744,284	
Woolen	42,647	154,906	122,069	226,573	286,719	245,408	354,476	
Woolen				328,061	153,817	207,070	611,796	1,536,306
Silk manufactures	267,934	337,267	256,741	464,428	324,202	948,963	256,830	
Dye woods and colours	473,620	164,708	85,847	102,638	6,867	66,641	125,123	161,661

Principal Articles exported from Odessa in the following Years:—

Articles.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
Wheat chetwerts	1,200,898	26,860	217,683	1,215,189	487,382	807,903	485,559	68,217
Rye	20,540			14,246	6,278	17,153	2,045	In 1833 there was an almost total failure of the harvest in Southern Russia.
Kilby	6,852	977	2,507	62,543	15,029	6,277	2,921	
Oats	6	707	3,030	29,344	33,600	33,152	12,363	
Wheat flour		10,282	23,155	15,358	40	17	35	
Linned	891				19,358	35,785	68,323	18,985
Flax	195,425	13,666	180,024	245,028	267,240	291,173	400,148	769,661
Flax, raw banded	30,968	5,882	18,248	23,705	44,030	26,076	80,906	No returns.
Flax, raw banded	66,430	6,045	39,644	3,462		4,675	8,964	
Flax, raw	3,118		5,019		3,317	3,900	14,612	16,912
Cordage	71,320	11,317	12,848	63,901	21,390	77,516	49,612	29,989
Wax	1,483			1,262		1,262	16,998	8,709
Wax	1,152	49	698	4,379	8,751	12,468	8,378	1,367
Iron	13,040		751	14,805	722	6,428	16,609	20,288
Copper	2,483	184				12,320	6,598	5,233
Wool	73,513	2,432	2,524	17,364	19,000	14,417	34,619	19,654
Salt butter	1,200	1,304	10,357	6,311	5,037	4,545	5,635	No returns.
Cutlery	2,400	2,169	4,942	3,383	1,029	3,204	2,410	
Wool	30,000	6,115	6,412	21,361	85,058	41,568	66,437	66,901
Total value of exports by sea.	18,470,652	1,246,543	7,240,325	27,001,800	20,063,953	99,108,259	24,552,205	17,865,896
Ditto of imports.	10,185,377	6,734,225	7,810,806	16,937,481	12,322,056	11,083,928	14,287,806	14,425,516

Movement of Shipping at the Port of Odessa in the following Years.

Vessels.	1826.		1827.		1828.		1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Arrived.	Sailed.										
Russian	194	111	167	123	50	26	24	30	172	194	163	194
American	189	185	222	278	28	41	21	20	219	114	114	107
Sardinian	712	118	228	235	14	11	48	23	224	221	11	107
English*	104	106	166	143	4	8	65	43	147	169	11	107
French	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Swedish	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Dutch	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Spanish	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Nepolitan	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Turkish	8	10	9	7	1	1	1	1	11	14	8	1
American	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Greek	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Tuscan	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	587	529	852	788	190	99	274	192	572	560	435	411

The previous statements, for which we are indebted partly to the Report of M. De Hagenmeister, and partly to official and private sources, show the effect of the war between Russia and Turkey on the trade of Odessa; but it has again resumed its former activity; and will, doubtless, continue progressively to increase with the improvement of the vast countries of which it is the principal entrepôt. Several American merchantmen appeared, for the first time, in the Black Sea, in 1830.

A tribunal of commerce was established at Odessa in 1824, the jurisdiction of which extends over all disputes connected with trade. There is no appeal from its decision, except to the senate. Its institution is said to have been productive of considerable advantage.

There are 12 sworn brokers, approved and licensed by the Tribunal of Commerce, who have deputies appointed by themselves. They receive 1/2 per cent. from each party as commission. They are bound to register the various transactions in which they are employed.

A discount or loan bank was established at Odessa in 1823, which discounts bills, not having more than 4 months to run, at the rate of 6 per cent. interest; and makes advances upon the security of goods. Two institutions for marine insurance, and one for fire insurance, have been established within the last 4 or 5 years.

Most articles of provision are very cheap. Beef may be bought for 1/2 or 1/3 per lb., a quarter of lamb for 5s.; and poultry at proportionally low prices. Fish costs almost nothing, and is excellent. Water is an expensive article; and firewood is for the most part scarce and dear. Lately, however, the inhabitants have begun to supply themselves with coal from Bakhmut, in the government of Ekaterinoslov. A good deal of English coal has been taken to Odessa as ballast, and sold at a fair price.—(Morton's Travels in Russia, p. 262, &c.)

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

Odessa has a considerable and increasing trade with Redout-kalé, at the mouth of the Phasis, and with Trebisond and several ports on the south coast of the Black Sea. Georgian and Armenian merchants are already considerable purchasers at the Leipsic and other German fairs; and civilisation is beginning to strike its roots throughout all the extensive countries between the Black Sea and the Caspian. It is probable that, at no very remote period, the Phasis will be frequented by British ships; and that our merchants, without any enchantress to aid them, and depending only on the superior cheapness and excellence of their goods, will be hospitably received in the ancient Colchis, and bear away a richer prize than fell to the lot of Jason and his Argonauts.

Account of Imports at Redout-kalé from Odessa, from 1825 to 1830, both inclusive.

Articles.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.
	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>	<i>Roubles.</i>
Sugar, refined	4,600	20,695	40,700	11,500	20,675	2,000
Colon goods	91,000	194,800	100,000	22,500	129,810	71,200
Silk do.	70,228	455,285	255,775	1,474,560	711,515	91,000
Cloth	111,750	222,125	132,500	60,433	109,770	4,770
Woolen goods	25,738	164,235	110,000	320,535	337,100	1,211
Tea	1,900	20,000	44,000	7,400	45,100	1,000
Hardware, earthenware, glass, tobacco, &c.	71,275	66,261	103,587	29,660	103,185	19,921
Total	397,325	1,362,231	918,647	2,001,500	1,668,635	122,632

For some further details as to the trade of the Black Sea, see the article *SINOPE*.

Epochs in the Trade of the Black Sea. Depth of Water. Difficulty of Navigation, &c.—The trade of the Black or Euxine Sea was of great importance in antiquity. The shores of the Crimea, or Taurica Chersonesus, were settled by Milesian adventurers, who founded Panticapsum and Theodosia. The exports thence to Athens were nearly the same as those which are now sent from Odessa and Taganrog to Constantinople, Leghorn, &c.; viz. corn, timber, and naval stores, leather, wax, honey, salt fish, caviare, &c., with great number of slaves, the best and most serviceable that were anywhere to be met with. The Athenians set a very high value upon this trade, which supplied them annually with about 400,000 medimni of corn; and to preserve it, they carefully cultivated the alliance of the Thracian princes, and kept a garrison at Sestus, on the Hellespont.—(See the authorities in Anacharsis's Travels, c. 55.; and in Clarke's Connexion of the Saxon and English Coins, pp. 54–64.) During the middle ages, the Genoese acquired an ascendancy on this sea, and laboured

* Mulsese and Ionians included

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I. VOLATILE OIL often almost as liqu

with pretty considerable success to monopolise its trade. Their principal establishment was at Caffa, which was the centre of a considerable commerce. But the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, was soon after followed by the conquest of Caffa, and the total exclusion of European vessels from the Black Sea, which became in a great measure unknown. This exclusion was maintained for about 300 years, or till it was opened to the ships of Russia by the treaty of Kainardgi in 1774. The Austrians obtained a similar equality of privileges in 1784; and British, French, &c. ships were admitted by the treaty of Amiens. There were, however, some restraints still kept up; but these have been abolished by the late treaty between the Turks and Russians in 1829; and, for commercial purposes at least, the Black Sea is now as free as the Mediterranean.

Notwithstanding the number of English and other European ships that have visited this sea within the last 20 years, its geography is still very imperfectly known. A notion seems to have been long prevalent, that it was not only stormy, but also infested with numerous shoals. Polybius, indeed, contends, that, owing to the vast quantities of alluvial deposits brought down by the Danube and other large rivers that fall into the Black Sea, it was gradually filling up, and would become, at no very remote period, an immense morass! Dr Clarke seems to have espoused the same theory. But, how probable soever it may appear extremely little progress has hitherto been made towards the consummation described by Polybius. Instead of being shallow, the water is for the most part remarkably deep; with a bottom, where soundings have been obtained, of gravel, sand, and shells. A strong current sets from the Black Sea, through the Bosphorus, or Canal of Constantinople, into the Sea of Marmara, and from the latter through the Dardanelles, which it requires a fresh breeze to stem. This current is said to be sensibly felt in the Black Sea, 10 or 12 miles from the Bosphorus; and it may probably carry off some of the mud brought down by the rivers.—(See *Tournefort's Voyage du Levant*, Lett. 15, 16.; Art. 9. in No. I. of the *Journal of the Geographical Society*; *Macgill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. p. 245., &c.)

The navigation of the Black Sea has been represented, by most modern and all ancient writers, as exceedingly dangerous. We believe, however, that there is a good deal of exaggeration in the greater number of the statements on this subject. It is said to be particularly subject to dense fogs, and to currents; but the former are prevalent only at particular seasons, and the influence of the latter is not greater than in many other seas which are not reputed dangerous. Tournefort, one of the best and most accurate of travellers, considers the navigation of the Black Sea as safe as that of the Mediterranean:—"Il n'a rien de noir, pour ainsi dire, que le nom: les vents n'y soufflent pas avec plus de furie, et les orages ne sont gueres plus frequens que sur les autres mers." (Tome ii. p. 164. 4to ed.) Dr. Clarke (*Travels*, vol. ii. p. 387. 8vo ed.) affects to doubt this; but he assigns no grounds for his opinion; and who would think of putting his authority in competition with that of Tournefort! The truth is, that any sea would be dangerous to the Greek and Turkish pilots, by whom the Black Sea is principally navigated. If the progress of navigation were to be estimated by its state amongst them, we should have to conclude that it had been stationary from the era of the Argonauts. They seldom venture to get out of sight of the coasts; they have neither charts nor quadrants; and hardly even know that one of the points of the needle turns towards the North!—(*Tournefort, in loc. cit.*) There is not, certainly, much room for wonder at shipwrecks being frequent among vessels so navigated. On leaving the Black Sea, the greatest difficulty is in making the Bosphorus. "The mountains," says Mr. Macgill, "are all so much alike, that it is difficult to determine which of them is at the entrance, until you are within a very few miles of the coast: then, with a fair wind, you are on a lee shore with a lee current; and if you make a mistake, destruction is almost inevitable. The Turks have two light-houses at the entrance; but unless you see them before sunset, they are of little use: in the forests, on its borders, great quantities of charcoal are made, and the lights from it bewilder, and often mislead, the unhappy mariner."—(Vol. i. p. 245.)

From the vast quantity of fresh water poured into the Black Sea, the saline particles are so much diluted, that, with a slight frost, the surface becomes covered with ice; hence, during a great part of the year, hardly any navigation is attempted. The vessels that resort to Odessa seldom arrive at that port before the latter end of May; and those whose cargoes are not completed before the end of October, more frequently wait the return of spring, than adventure to encounter the dangers of an autumnal or winter voyage.

At Taganrog the frost commences earlier, and continues longer, than at Odessa; so that there are scarcely more than 4 or 5 months in the year, during which the Sea of Azoff can be safely navigated.

OIL (*Fr. Huile*; *Ger. Oel*; *It. Olie*; *Lat. Oleum*; *Rus. Maslo*; *Sp. Aceite*.) The term oil is applied to designate a number of unctuous liquors, which, when dropped upon paper, sink into it and make it semi-transparent, or give it what is called a greasy stain. These bodies are very numerous, and have been in common use from time immemorial. Chemists have divided them into two classes; namely, *volatile* and *fixed* oils. We borrow from Dr. Thomas Thomson the following statement with respect to these bodies:—

1. VOLATILE OILS, called also *essential oils*, are distinguished by the following properties:—1. Liquid, often almost as liquid as water, sometimes viscid; 2. Very combustible; 3. An acrid taste and a strong

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fragrant odour; 4. Volatilised at a temperature not higher than 212°; 5. Soluble in alcohol, and imperfectly in water; 6. Evaporate without leaving any stain on paper.

By this last test it is easy to discover whether they have been adulterated with any of the fixed oils. Let a drop of the volatile oil fall upon a sheet of writing paper, and then apply a gentle heat to it; if it evaporates without leaving any stain upon the paper, the oil is pure; but if it leaves a stain upon the paper, it has been contaminated with some fixed oil or other.

Volatile oils are almost all obtained from vegetables, and they exist in every part of plants—the root, the bark, the wood, the leaves, the flower, and even the fruit; though they are never found in the substance of the cotyledons; whereas the fixed oils, on the contrary, are almost always contained in these bodies.

When the volatile oils are contained in great abundance in plants, they are sometimes obtained by simple expression. This is the case with oil of oranges, of lemons, and bergamotte; but in general they can only be obtained by distillation. The part of the plant containing the oil is put into a still with a quantity of water, which is distilled off by the application of a moderate heat. The oil comes over along with the water, and swims upon its surface in the receiver. By this process are obtained the oil of peppermint, thyme, lavender, and a great many others, which are prepared and employed by the perfumer; others are procured by the distillation of resinous bodies. This is the case in particular with oil of turpentine, which is obtained by distilling a kind of resinous juice, called turpentine, that exudes from the Juniper.

Volatile oils are exceedingly numerous. They have been long known; but as their uses in chemistry is but limited, they have not, hitherto, been subjected to an accurate chemical investigation. They differ greatly in their properties from each other; but it is impossible at present to give a detailed account of each.

1. The greater number of volatile oils are liquid; many, indeed, are as limpid as water, and have none of that appearance which we usually consider oily. This is the case with the following; namely, oil of turpentine, oranges, lemons, bergamotte, roses.—Others have the oily viscosity. It varies in them in all degrees. This is the case with the oils of mace, cardamom, saffron, cloves, cinnamon.—Others have the property of becoming solid. This is the case with the oils of parsley, fennel, aniseed, hair.—Others crystallise by slow evaporation. This is the case with oil of thyme, peppermint, marjoram.—The oil of nutmegs has usually the consistence of butter. This is the case also with the oils of hops and of pepper.

2. The colour of the volatile oils is as various as their other properties. A great number are limpid and colourless; as oil of turpentine, lavender, rosemary, savine, aniseed; some are yellow; as spike, bergamotte; some are brown; as thyme, savory, wormwood; others blue; as camomile, motherwort; others green; as milkfoil, pepper, hops, parsley, wormwood, cajuput, juniper, sage, valerian; others, though at first colourless, become yellow or brown by age; as cloves, cinnamon, saffron.

3. The odours are so various as to defy all description. It is sufficient to say, that all the fragrance of the vegetable kingdom resides in volatile oils. Their taste is acid, hot, and exceedingly unpleasant.

4. Their specific gravity varies very considerably, not only in different oils, but even in the same oil in different circumstances. The following are the specific gravities of several of the volatile oils, as ascertained by Dr. Lewis:—

Oil of Sassafras	1.094	Oil of Tansy	.846
Cinnamon	1.035	Caraway seeds	.823
Cloves	1.034	Oritanium	.840
Fennel	.997	Spike	.936
Hill	.984	Rosemary	.834
Pennyroyal	.978	Juniper berries	.911
Cumin	.975	Orange	.848
Mint	.975	Turpentine	.792
Nutmegs	.948		

When the volatile oils are heated in the open air, they evaporate readily, and without alteration diffuse their peculiar odours all around; but there is a considerable difference between the different oils in this respect. When distilled in close vessels they do not so readily assume the form of vapour. Hence they lose their odour, become darker in colour, and are partly decomposed. Oils do not seem very susceptible of assuming the gaseous form, unless some other substance, as water, be present.

If Fixed Oils are distinguished by the following characters:—1. Liquid, or easily become so when exposed to a gentle heat; 2. An unctuous feel; 3. Very combustible; 4. A mild taste; 5. Boiling point not under 600°; 6. Insoluble in water, and nearly so in alcohol; 7. Leave a greasy stain upon paper.

These oils, which are called fat or expressed oils, are numerous, and are obtained partly from animals and partly from vegetables, by simple expression. As instances, may be mentioned whale oil or train oil, obtained from the blubber of the whale and from cod; olive oil, obtained from the fruit of the olive; linsed oil and almond oil, obtained from linsed and almond kernels. Fixed oils may also be extracted from poppy seeds, hemp seeds, beech mast, and many other vegetable substances.

All these oils differ from each other in several particulars, but have also many particulars in common. 1. Fixed oil is usually a liquid with a certain degree of viscosity, adhering to the sides of the glass vessels in which it is contained, and forming streaks. It is never perfectly transparent; has always a certain degree of colour, most usually yellowish or greenish; its taste is sweet, or nearly insipid. When fresh, it has little or no smell.

There exist also in the vegetable kingdom a considerable number of bodies which, at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, are solid, and have hitherto been considered as fixed oils. Palm oil may be mentioned as an example. The various substances used in India and Africa as substitutes for butter, and as arguments, may likewise be mentioned.

2. All the fixed oils hitherto examined are lighter than water; but they differ greatly from one another in specific gravity. The same difference is observable in different samples of the same oil. The following Table contains the specific gravity of such oils as have been examined:—

Oil of Palm	.908	Oil of Beech nuts	.923
Hazel nuts	.941	Ben	.917
Popples	.960	Olives	.913
Linsed	.938	Rese-seed	.915
Almonds	.938	Cacao	.992
Walnuts	.923 to .947		

Fixed oil, when in the state of vapour, takes fire on the approach of an ignited body, and burns with a yellowish white flame. It is upon this principle that candles and lamps burn. The tallow or oil is first converted into a state of vapour in the wick; it then takes fire, and supplies a sufficient quantity of heat to convert more oil into vapour; and this process goes on while any oil remains. The wick is necessary, to present a sufficiently small quantity of oil at once for the heat to act upon. If the heat were great enough to keep the whole oil at the temperature of 600°, no wick would be necessary, as obvious from oil catching fire spontaneously when it has been raised to that temperature. When oil is used in this manner, either in the open air or in contact with oxygen gas, the only new products obtained are water and carbonic acid.

The drying oils are used as the vehicle of paints and varnishes. Linsed, nut, poppy, and hemp-seed oils, belong to this class. These oils in their natural state possess the property of drying oils, but

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imperfectly. To prepare them for the use of the painter and varnish-maker, they are boiled for some time in an iron pot, and sometimes burnt till they become yield. When they burn for some time, their unctuous quality is much more completely destroyed than by any method that has been practiced. Hence it is followed frequently in preparing the drying oils for varnishes, and always for printers' ink, which requires to be as free as possible from all unctuousity.

Nut oil has been found preferable to all other oils for printers' ink; though the dark colour which it acquires during boiling renders it not so proper for red ink as for black. Linseed oil is considered as next after nut oil in this respect. Other oils cannot be employed, because they cannot be sufficiently freed from their unctuousity. Ink made with them would be apt to come off and smear the paper while in the hands of the bookbinder, or even to spread beyond the mark of the types and stain the paper yellow.

For the regulations with respect to the importation and exportation of train oil, see p. 124.

OLIBANUM (Fr. *Encens*; Ger. *Weiranch*; It. *Olibano*; Arab. *Looban*), a gum-resin, the produce of a large tree (*Libanus thurifera*) growing in Arabia and India. It is imported in chests, containing each about 1 cwt. from the Levant and India; the best comes from the former, and is the produce of Arabia. Good olibanum is in semi-transparent tears, of a pink colour, brittle, and adhesive when warm; when burnt, the colour is very agreeable; its taste is bitterish, and somewhat pungent and aromatic; it flames for a long time with a steady clear light, which is not easily extinguished, leaving behind a black (not, as has been said, a whitish) ash. Olibanum is the frankincense (*thus*) of the ancients; and was extensively used by them in sacrifices.—(*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xii. c. 14.*) It has also been used in the ceremonies of the Greek and Roman churches.—(*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Thomson's Chemistry*; *Kippingii Antig. Rom. lib. i. c. 11.*)

OLIVE, OLIVES (Ger. *Oliven*; Fr. *Olives*; It. *Ulive*, *Olive*; Sp. *Acitunas*; Port. *Azeitonas*; Lat. *Olivæ*), a fruit yielding a large quantity of oil, the produce of the *Olea*, or olive tree. The wild olive is indigenous to Syria, Greece, and Africa, on the lower slopes of Mount Atlas. The cultivated species grows spontaneously in Syria, and is easily reared in Spain, Italy, and the south of France. It has even been raised in the open air in England, but its fruit is said not to have ripened. The fruit is a smooth oval plum, about $\frac{2}{3}$ of an inch in length, and $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch in diameter, of a deep violet colour when ripe, whitish and fleshy within, bitter and nauseous, but replete with a bland oil; covering an oblong, pointed, rough nut. Olives intended for preservation are gathered before they are ripe. In pickling, the object is to remove their bitterness, and to preserve them green, by impregnating them with a brine of aromatised sea salt; for this purpose various methods are employed. The wood of the olive tree is beautifully veined, and has an agreeable smell. It is in great esteem with cabinet-makers, on account of the fine polish of which it is susceptible.

OLIVE OIL (Ger. *Baumöl*; Fr. *Huile d'olives*; It. *Olio d'uliva*; Sp. *Acetite de acitunas*; Lat. *Oleum olivarum*). The olive tree is principally cultivated for the sake of its oil. This is an insipid, inodorous, pale greenish yellow coloured, viscid fluid, unctuous to the feel, inflammable, incapable of combining with water, and nearly insoluble in alcohol. It is the lightest of all the fixed oils; and is largely used, particularly in Greece, Italy, Spain, and France, as an article of food, and in medicine, and the arts. It is also very extensively used in this country, particularly in the woollen manufacture.

The ripe fruit is gathered in November, and immediately bruised in a mill, the stones of which are set so wide as not to crush the kernel. The pulp is then subjected to the press in bags made of rushes; and by means of gentle pressure, the best, or *virgin* oil, flows first; a second, and afterwards a third, quality of oil is obtained by moistening the residuum, breaking the kernel, &c., and increasing the pressure. When the fruit is not sufficiently ripe, the recent oil has a bitterish taste; and when too ripe, it is fatty. After the oil has been drawn, it deposits a white, fibrous, and albuminous matter; but when this deposition has taken place, if it be put into clean glass flasks, it undergoes no further alteration; the common oil cannot, however, be preserved in casks above 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 years. It is sometimes adulterated by the admixture of poppy oil.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The best olive oil is said to be made in the vicinity of Aix, in France. That which is brought from Leghorn, in chests containing 30 bottles, or 4 English gallons, is also very superior; it is known in our markets by the name of Florence oil, and is used mostly for culinary purposes. Olive oil is the principal article of export from the kingdom of Naples.—(See *NAPLES*.) Apulia and Calabria are the provinces most celebrated for its production. The Apulian is the best, and is preferred by the woollen manufacturers, by whom it is extensively used. By far the largest portion of the olive oil brought to England is imported from Italy; principally from Gallipoli, on the east coast of the Gulf of Taranto, in lat. 40° 3' N., lon. 18° 25' 55" E., whence it is commonly known by the name of Gallipoli oil. But, besides Italy, Spain sends us a large quantity; and we derive smaller supplies from Malta, Turkey, the Ionian islands, &c. Thus, of 3,791,057 gallons of olive oil imported in 1830, 2,034,237 were from Italy; 635,485 do. from Spain; 52,004 do. from Malta, partly at second hand; 21,467 from Turkey; 11,300 do. from the Ionian islands; about 30,000 do., at second hand, from the Netherlands and Germany.

The price of olive oil, duty paid, in London, in January, 1834, was as follows:—

		L.	s.	d.
Gallipoli	50 to 60	0	0	0
Spanish Calabria	55	0	0	0
Crete, Greece, and Provence, 1st	75	0	80	0
Barbary	53	0	to 64	0
Lucca, in jars	6	16	0	0
Florence	1	1	0	0

The duty of 8l. 8s. a tun (252 wine gallons) amounts to about 20 per cent., or 1-5th of the price. But as olive oil is an article much used in the household economy, and of essential importance in the arts, particularly the woollen manufacture, such a duty seems to be quite oppressive. Were it reduced to 2l. 8s. a tun, we believe it would be very little, if at all, less productive than at present, while the fall of price consequent upon such a reduction would have many beneficial consequences. Nothing can

larly from the tree on the ground, where they are picked up chiefly by women and children, and carried to the mill.

"The machinery employed in expressing the oil is of the rudest kind, and, no doubt, numerous improvements might be introduced, not only into this branch, but into that of cultivating the olive tree. The peasantry, however, and, in the kingdom of Naples, those who stand higher in the scale of fortune and rank, are too often but bores in intellect, are obstinate in their attachment to old practices, and are apt, when any of these are reprehended, to stop discussion by saying—*Faccio come faceva la mamma di mio padre, e cito basta.* (I do as my father of blessed memory did before me, and that's enough.)"

"The poor people of the country make culinary uses of the same oil that is exported, and which in England is only used in manufactures or burnt in lamps; but in the houses of the gentry I have often tasted oil prepared with more care, which was truly delicious, being equal to that of Sorrento, Vico, and Massa, or even to the best oils of Tuscany or Provence."—(Pp. 200—204.)

The *caricatori* of Bari and Monopoli furnish oils for the consumption of Upper Italy and Germany, through the medium of Venice and Trieste. They also draw supplies from Brindisi and Otranto.

The *caricatori* of Taranto, of Eastern Calabria or Retromarina, and of Western Calabria, the principal of which is Gioje, furnish supplies for Marseilles, &c. But the *caricatori* now mentioned, having no conveniences for clarification, produce only the thick oils used for soap-making.

The oils of Sicily, like those of Tunis, are too thin to be used singly in the making of soap; and being used only for mixing, are less valuable than most others.

The oil trade in the provinces is in the hands of respectable houses, which purchase by retail of the general planters. The oil thus collected is sold in Naples at a profit equal to the difference between the size of the measures by which it is bought and those by which it is sold. To facilitate transactions, orders or *redoles* are circulated, representing quantities of oil deposited in the provincial *caricatori*. These orders are negotiable, like bills of exchange, and are endorsed by the intermediate holder, who receives their value in cash, without, however, becoming liable for their due satisfaction. The only responsible parties are the drawer and drawee. The latter is obliged to deliver the oil at sight of the order, or to hold it, at the bearer's disposal, till the 10th of November for the *caricatori* of Apulia, and till the 31st of December for those of Calabria. If the contract be for time, that is, from one year to another, the oil is usually placed at the purchaser's command on the 1st of March. Purchases for time are effected by means of a contract, wherein the vendor undertakes to deliver the oil by the end of January, on receiving payment of the money; but the oil, as observed above, is not really at the purchaser's disposal before the beginning of March. Hence, in time bargains, the payment of the money precedes the delivery of the oil more than a month; scarce an instance is on record of an engagement of this sort having been broken, and the order is as readily negotiable as any other security.

In purchases of oil at command, payment likewise precedes the delivery of the article; but in this case the advance is confined to the 5 days necessary to transmit the order to the *caricatori* where the oil is kept for delivery.

The oil remains in the *caricatori* under the care and responsibility of the vendor, to be delivered on demand to the bearer of the order, free of all costs and charges whatever for the first year; but for every successive year from 25 to 30 grains per salma are charged for keeping, and for renewal of warranty.—(We are indebted for these details to a brochure of M. Millenet, entitled *Coup d'œil sur le Royaume de Naples.* Naples, 1832.)

(In consequence of petitions and representations from the woollen manufacturers, setting forth the serious injury they sustained from the oppressive duty of 8*l.* 8*s.* a tun laid on olive oil (p. 253), it has been reduced 50 per cent., or to 4*l.* 4*s.* a tun.—(4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89. § 15.) The reduction does not, however, extend to oil brought from Naples or Sicily; but her Majesty is empowered, if she see cause, to reduce the duty on such oil to 4*l.* 4*s.* a tun, by an order in council. This exception is understood to have been made in the view of facilitating the negotiation now in progress with the King of Naples for a reduction of the exorbitant duties laid on pilchards and other British articles imported into his dominions. It is to be hoped that these negotiations may be speedily brought to a satisfactory conclusion; for the largest portion by far of the olive oil made use of here being brought from Naples (Gallipoli, see p. 254.), the continuance of the high duties on it goes far to nullify the measure. Those who take into view the importance of olive oil in the arts, particularly in the woollen manufacture, and are aware that the revenue derived from it has not exceeded 50,000*l.* a year, will probably join with us in opinion, that the duty should either be repealed, or reduced to, at most, 2*l.* 2*s.* a tun.—*Sup.*)

OMNIUM, a term used at the Stock Exchange to express the aggregate value of the different stocks in which a loan is now usually funded.

Thus, in the loan of 38,000,000*l.* contracted for in June, 1815, the omnium consisted of 130*l.* 3 per cent. reduced annuities, 44*l.* 3 per cent. consols, and 10*l.* 4 per cent. annuities, for each 100*l.* subscribed. The loan was contracted for on the 14th of June, when the prices of the above stocks were—3 per cent. reduced, 54; 3 per cent. consols, 55; 4 per cents., 70; hence the parcels of stock given for 100*l.* advanced, were worth—

	£	s.	d.
130 <i>l.</i> reduced, at 54	-	-	-
44 <i>l.</i> consols, at 55	-	-	-
10 <i>l.</i> 4 per cents., at 70	-	-	-
Together,	£101	8	0

which would be the value of the omnium, or 1*l.* 8*s.* per cent. premium, independently of any discount for prompt payment.

ONION (*Ger. Zwiebel; Fr. Oignon; It. Cipolla; Sp. Cebolla; Rus. Luk*), a well known bulbous plant (*Allium Cepa* Lin.) cultivated all over Europe for culinary purposes. The Strasburgh, Spanish, and Portuguese varieties are the most esteemed.

ONYX (*Ger. Onyx; Fr. Onix, Onice; Sp. Onique; Lat. Onyx*). "Any stone exhibiting layers of 2 or more colours strongly contrasted is called an *onyx*; as banded jasper, chalcodony, &c., but more particularly the latter, when it is marked with white, and stratified with opaque and translucent lines. But the Oriental onyx is considered a substance consisting of 2 or more layers or bands of distinct and different colours. A sard, or sardoine, hav

ing a layer of white upon it, would be called an onyx; and according to the number of layers it would be distinguished as an onyx with 3 or more bands. Some of the antique engravings are upon onyxes of 4 bands."—(Mawe's Treatise on Diamonds, &c.)

OPAL, (Ger. *Opal*; Fr. *Opale*; It. *Opalo*; Sp. *Opalo*, *Piedra iris*; Port. *Opala*; Lat. *Opalus*), a stone, of which there are several varieties, found in different parts of Europe, particularly in Hungary, and in the East Indies, &c. When first dug out of the earth it is soft, but it hardens and diminishes in bulk by exposure to the air. The opal is always amorphous; fracture conchoidal; commonly somewhat transparent. Hardness varies considerably. Specific gravity from 1.958 to 2.54. The lowness of its specific gravity in some cases is to be ascribed to accidental cavities which the stone contains. These are sometimes filled with drops of water. Some specimens of opal have the property of emitting various coloured rays, with a particular effulgency, when placed between the eye and the light. The opals which possess this property are distinguished by lapidaries by the epithet *Oriental*; and often, by mineralogists, by the epithet *nobilis*. This property rendered the stone much esteemed by the ancients.—(Thomson's Chemistry; see also *Phil. Hist. Nat. lib. lxxviii. c. 6.*, where there are some very curious details as to this stone.)

Mr. Mawe gives the following statement with respect to the precious opal, or opal nobilis.—"The colour of the opal is white or pearl grey, and when held between the eye and the light is pale red, or wine yellow, with a milky translucency. By reflected light it exhibits, as its position is varied, elegant and most beautiful iridescent colours, particularly emerald green, golden yellow, flame and fire red, violet, purple, and celestial blue, so beautifully blended, and so fascinating, as to captivate the admirer. When the colour is arranged in small spangles, it takes the name of the baricque opal. Sometimes it exhibits only 1 of the above colours, and of these the most esteemed are the vivid emerald green and the orange yellow. When the stone possesses the latter of these colours, it is called the golden opal.

"The precious opal is not quite so hard as rock crystal: it is frequently full of flaws; which greatly contribute to its beauty, as the vivid iridescent colours which it displays are occasioned by the refraction and refraction of light, which is decomposed at these fissures. It is never cut in facets, but always hemispherical. It is generally small, rarely so large as an almond or hazel nut, though I have seen some specimens the size of a small walnut, for which several hundred pounds were demanded. At present, a pretty opal may be bought at from 1 to 3 or 4 guineas, sufficiently large for a pin or ring stone. It requires great care and judgment in the cutting, as it is fragile and easily spoiled.

"The opal, in all ages, has been highly esteemed; the history of the Roman senator, who preferred death rather than give up his opal ring to the Emperor Nero, is familiar to every eye. Among the Eastern nations, the opal ranks higher than in Europe.

"A spurious substance is sometimes sold for black and green opal, and often set in jewellery; it occurs of the size of a small almond, but more commonly not larger than a lentil or pea. This precious gem is nothing more than the cartilage of the hinge of a large shell. Glass, and even acrid, having an iridescent appearance, have also often been sold for opal."—(Treatise on Diamonds, &c. 2d ed. pp. 123—125.)

OPIUM (Ger. *Mohnsaft*; Fr. *Opium*; It. *Oppio*; Sp. and Port. *Opio*; Lat. *Opium*; Arab. *Ufyoon*; Hind. *Ufeem*; Turk. *Madjoon*), the concrete juice of the white poppy (*Papaver somniferum*), which is most probably a native of Asia, though now found growing wild in the southern parts of Europe, and even in England. Opium is chiefly prepared in India, Turkey, and Persia; but the white poppy is extensively cultivated in France, and other parts of Europe, on account of its capsules, and of the useful bland oil obtained from its seeds. It has also been cultivated, and opium made, in England; but there is very little probability of its ever being raised here to any considerable extent.

The poppy is an annual plant, with a stalk rising to the height of 3 or 4 feet; its leaves resemble those of the lettuce, and its flower has the appearance of a tulip. When at its full growth, an incision is made in the top of the plant, from which there issues a white milky juice, which soon hardens, and is scraped off the plants, and wrought into cakes. In India, these are covered with the petals of the plant to prevent their sticking together, and in this situation are dried, and packed in chests lined with hides and covered with gunny, each containing 40 cakes, and weighing 2 maunds or 149½ lbs.; they are exported in this state to the places where the opium is consumed. Turkey opium is in flat pieces, covered with leaves, and the reddish capsules of some species of *rumez*; which is considered an indication of its goodness, as the inferior kinds have none of these capsules adhering to them.

According to Dr. A. T. Thomson, Turkey opium has a peculiar, strong, heavy, narcotic odour, and a bitter taste, accompanied by a sensation of acrid heat, or biting, on the tongue and lips, if it be well chewed. Its colour when good is a reddish brown, or fawn colour; its texture compact and uniform. Its specific gravity is 1.336. When soft, it is tenacious; but when long exposed to the air, it becomes hard, breaks with a uniform shining fracture, is pulverulent, and affords a yellowish brown powder.

East Indian opium has a strong empyreumatic smell; but not much of the peculiar narcotic, heavy odour of the Turkey opium; the taste is more bitter, and equally nauseous, but it has less acrimony. It agrees with the Turkey opium in other sensible qualities, except that its colour is blacker, and its texture less plastic, although it is as tenacious. Good Turkey opium has been found to yield nearly 3 times the quantity of *morphia*, or of the peculiar principle of the drug, that is yielded by East Indian opium.

Opium is regarded as bad, when it is very soft, greasy, light, friable, or of an intensely black colour, or mixed with many impurities. A weak or empyreumatic odour, a slightly

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bitter or acrid, or a sweetish taste, or the power of marking a brown or black continuous streak when drawn across paper, are all symptoms of inferior opium.—(*Dispensatory*.)

The raising of opium is a very hazardous business; the poppy being a delicate plant, peculiarly liable to injury from insects, wind, hail, or unseasonable rain. The product seldom agrees with the true average, but commonly runs in extremes; while one cultivator is disappointed, another reaps immense gain; one season does not pay the labour of the culture; another, peculiarly fortunate, enriches all the cultivators. This circumstance is well suited to allure man, ever confident of good fortune.—(*Cole's Ooke's Husbandry of Bengal*, p. 119.)

In England, opium is little used, except as a medicine. In 1831 and 1832, the quantity entered for home consumption amounted, at an average, to 28,997 lbs. a year. The principal part of our supply is brought from Turkey. Opium from the latter was worth, in the London market, in December, 1833, 16s. to 17s. per lb. The duty is 4s.

Consumption and Trade of Opium in China.—Opium is pretty extensively used, both as a masticatory and in smoking, in Turkey and India; but its great consumption is in China and the surrounding countries, where the habit of smoking it has become almost universal. The Chinese holi or seethe the crude opium; and by this process the impurities, resinous and gummy matter, are separated, and the remaining extract only is reserved for use. Thus prepared, the drug loses its ordinary strong and offensive aromatic odour, and has ever a fragrant and agreeable perfume. A small ball of it inserted in a large wooden pipe with some combustible matter, is lighted, and the amateur proceeds to inhale four or five whiffs, when he lies down and resigns himself to his dreams, which are said to have no considerable resemblance to the sensations produced by inhaling the oxide of azote. Those who do not carry the indulgence to excess, do not, it is said, experience any bad effects from it.

The supplies for the Chinese market are derived from India and Turkey, but principally from the former. The government of China has issued edict upon edict, forbidding the importation and consumption of the drug, but without effect. Most part of the authorities openly connive at the proceedings of the smugglers, while the few who might be desirous to enforce the law are wholly without the power; so that the trade is conducted with the greatest facility, and almost perfect security. It was at first carried on at Whampoa, about 15 miles below Canton; next at Macao, whence it was driven by the exactions of the Portuguese; and now the principal entrepot is in the bay of Lintou. The opium is kept on board ships, commonly called receiving ships, of which there are often 10 or 15 lying together at anchor. The sales are mostly effected by the English and American agents in Canton, who give orders for the delivery of the opium; which, on producing the order, is handed over to the Chinese smuggler, who comes alongside at night to receive it. Frequently, however, the smuggler purchases the opium on his own account, paying for it on the spot in silver; it being a rule of the trade, never departed from, to receive the money before the drug is delivered. When it is landed, the laws are equally set at defiance in its conveyance throughout the country; and public smoking houses are said to be every where established.

The consumption of opium in China is rapidly extending. During the first 10 years of the present century, the exports from India to China were about 2,500 chests (of 100 lbs. each). In 1821-22, after the introduction of Malwa opium into the markets of Calcutta and Bon-hay, the exports increased to 4,685 chests; and, owing, no doubt, to the greatly increased supply and lower price of the article, the exports in 1831-32 exceeded 20,000 chests, worth above 13,000,000 dollars!—(See vol. i. p. 209.) The whole of this immense trade is in the hands of private individuals; the Company not choosing to engage in a business prohibited by the Chinese government. The imports of Turkey opium into China are believed to amount at present to about 1,000 chests. Smyrna is the principal Turkish port for the export of opium.—(See *SMYRNA*.)

Cultivation of Opium in India.—Monopoly.—The cultivation of opium in India is a government monopoly, and is confined to the provinces of Bahar* and Benares, and Malwa in Central India. Every one within the prescribed limits may engage in the opium cultivation; but the drug, when prepared, must all be sold at a fixed price to the Company's agents. The price is very far below the price at which it is afterwards sold for exportation; and the circumstance of its being fixed and inadequate deprives the cultivators of most part of the favourable chances in the lottery previously alluded to by Mr. Colebrooke. Indeed, Mr. C. distinctly tells us (*Hind. Bengal*, p. 118.) that, except in few situations that are peculiarly favourable, its cultivation is unprofitable. The peasants engage in it with reluctance; and are tempted only by the immediate advances the government agents are obliged to make to enable them to carry on the business.

The monopoly has sometimes produced a net revenue of about 1,600,000*l.* a year. Latterly, however, this revenue has been materially diminished. This has been occasioned, partly by the conquest of Malwa, and the impossibility of extending the same sort of monopoly into that province that was established in Bahar and Benares, and partly to the introduction of Turkey opium into the Chinese market by the Americans.

The system under which the Indian opium trade has been conducted, has been the theme of much enquiry, and has been supposed to afford the only example of an *unexceptionable monopoly*. By confining the cultivation of the plant to particular districts, and taking care that the whole produce raised there shall be exported, we prevent, it is said, the use of this detestable drug from gaining ground in India; while the high price at which it is sold produces a large revenue to the Company's treasury. It is affirmed, too, that even the interests of the Chinese are consulted by the system; that they obtain the drug in a state of purity, which would otherwise be adulterated; and that the high price they are obliged to pay for it merely acts as a wholesome restraint on their vicious propensity to indulge in what is so very injurious. We doubt, however, whether there be much foundation for these enquiries. There can be no question that opium is a very excellent subject for taxation; and the higher the duty can be raised on it, without encouraging smuggling, the better. It is not, however, so clear, that the monopoly system be the best way of accomplishing this; and, though the system had been originally a good one, it is no longer possible to enforce it. To imagine, indeed, that the illicit cultivation of, and traffic in, opium can be prevented, now that it is raised in most parts of the extensive country of Malwa, is altogether ludicrous. As to the supposed influence of the monopoly in insuring the purity of the drug, it is sufficient to observe that Malwa opium, which is produced under a comparatively free system, has been rapidly improving in its quality, and now very often fetches a higher price than the opium of Bahar and Benares, where the strictest surveillance is kept up. The latter, indeed, has sometimes been nearly unobtainable, from the careless way in which it has been prepared, and the extent to which it was adulterated.—(Crawford on the *Monopoly of the East India Company*, p. 55.) It is needless, however, to say more on this point, than that Turkish opium maintains, in respect of purity and careful preparation, a decidedly higher reputation than any produced in India.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

* The opium of Bahar is known in commerce by the name of Patna opium.

We doubt, too, whether the use of opium, when taken in moderate quantities, be really so injurious as has been represented. That it may, like spirits and wine, be abused, is abundantly certain; but it has not been shown that it is more liable to abuse than either of these articles. No one doubts that the Chinese, by whom it is principally consumed, are a highly industrious, sober, frugal people; but though it were otherwise, we really do not see that the East India Company are warranted in subjecting a profitable article of cultivation in India to the fetters of monopoly, that the morals of the Chinese may be preserved! It is unnecessary, however, to dwell upon this view of the matter. The Turks and Americans have no scruples of this sort; and the only effect of the Company's attempting to force up the price of opium to an extravagant height, would be to throw a still greater proportion of the trade into the hands of their active competitors, to the great injury of the Indian cultivators.

Neither must the interests of the cultivators in India be lost sight of, who are materially injured by the existing system. Even were it in other respects proper, their allowances are far too small.

Upon the whole, therefore, we do not see any solid grounds for supposing that this monopoly forms an exception to the common rule; and we agree with those who think that the better way would be to establish the same system, as to the trade in opium, that is established with respect to the spirit trade in this country; that is, to allow every one to cultivate it upon taking out a license, and to lay an excise duty on the prepared article. Such a plan would put an end to some most oppressive regulations; and while it would open a new source of wealth to the cultivators, the revenue derived by government would be materially augmented.

Besides the works previously referred to, we have consulted, in compiling this article, *Asiatick's Mat. Indica; Milburn's Orient. Com.; Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal; Evidence on East Indian Affairs, before the Parliamentary Committee, in 1830 and 1831, &c. &c.*

(Account of the Quantity and Value of the different Sorts of Indian Opium imported into China during the Nine Years ending with 1835-36.

Season.	Patna.		Benares.		Malwa.		Total.	
	Chests.	Value.	C. chests.	Value.	Chests.	Value.	Chests.	Value.
	Doll.		Doll.		Doll.		Doll.	
1827-28	4,006	4,019,350	1,123	1,104,805	4,401	5,290,970	9,530	10,425,125
1828-29	4,831	4,574,950	1,179	1,029,586	7,171	5,248,980	13,181	10,853,516
1829-30	5,554	4,920,443	1,571	1,929,129	6,857	5,907,580	14,082	12,757,152
1830-31	5,066	4,454,809	1,575	1,331,955	12,100	7,114,059	19,741	12,800,823
1831-32	4,449	4,234,515	1,573	1,448,194	8,265	6,211,574	14,287	11,894,283
1832-33	4,410	5,115,112	1,880	1,458,503	15,403	5,781,700	21,693	12,355,315
1833-34	7,563	5,025,175	1,549	1,066,459	11,715	7,916,871	20,827	14,008,505
1834-35	7,553	4,368,346	2,549	1,427,904	9,983	5,962,390	20,085	11,758,640
1835-36	9,511	6,719,195	2,005	1,407,510	15,002	6,966,198	26,518	15,092,903

[In March, 1839, a special commissioner was appointed by the Emperor to cause the laws prohibiting the importation of opium into China to be rigidly enforced. By means of stopping for a time the whole commerce of Canton with foreigners, as well as by imposing restraints on the personal liberty of the foreign merchants then in that city, the latter were obliged to deliver up to the commissioner, it is said, no less than 20,283 chests of opium, valued at £3,000,000, or near \$15,000,000. And the opium trade has, in consequence, been entirely discontinued.

Much stress has been laid by the Chinese government on the injurious and even destructive effects on the human system of the use of opium, in justification of the course which has been pursued by it in relation to this article. But

"The export of sycee silver," we quote the words of a petition of certain British merchants resident at Calcutta, in the East Indies, to the Queen's Privy Council in England, "is also prohibited in China, and as bullion was always received in payment for opium, it is to this fact that the recent violent proceedings of that government may be chiefly attributed. The export of silver, by the law of China, is death. Like other half civilized nations, which understand not the principles of political economy, the Chinese consider the export of bullion as injurious to their well-being, and thunder edicts against the 'leakage of sycee' and 'the oning out of dollars,' although such exports were actually a loss to the State. It is necessary to say but little in proof of this fallacy. China possesses silver mines of immense value, but which are worked only to a limited extent, and the circulation of whose products the government would find restricted exclusively to the imperial domains. These mines are inexhaustible, save in the fear of their government, whose proceedings in prohibiting the export of bullion are truly lamentable. As reasonable would be for the British government to prohibit railroads and steam vans, because the one might exhaust the iron, and the other the coal mines, of Great Britain. The export of opium from India, which has thus defeated the restrictive policy of the Chinese government, and which has caused the mines of that empire to be wrought far more extensively than would otherwise have been the case, in order to replace the vacuum in circulation created by the continued export of sycee from China, has thus been of essential benefit to commerce; for it has drawn forth the resources of the most fertile and populous empire in the world, and the bullion thus brought back in exchange for opium, has covered vast tracts of British India with smiling fields and flourishing population; it has enormously extended the import of British manufactures throughout Hindoostan; has increased largely the shipping and general commerce of these seas; has brought into the British Indian Treasury a revenue exceeding the land revenue of an entire Presidency—that of Bombay; and has thus paid in London the dividends of the proprietors of India Stock, amounting to 830,000l. per annum, if not indeed the whole surplus of 2,000,000l. sterling, required for the expenses of the home government of India."

"The extent to which the trade had been carried on will be understood from the undermentioned extract from the custom-house books of Calcutta, where the proportion of opium shipped to China direct, and that sent to all other places whatever, is separately specified.

Year.	China.	All other places.	Total.
1832-33	7,598	1,810	9,408
1833-34	10,216	1,790	12,006
1834-35	9,485	1,530	10,993
1835-36	13,094	1,757	14,851
1836-37	10,393	2,213	12,606
1837-38	16,297	3,303	19,600
Total	67,083	13,208	80,291

It appears from this table, that of an aggregate of 79,446 chests actually despatched from Calcutta in 6 years, 67,083 chests were exported to China direct."

The following Table is
Value of Opium delivered

Season.	Chests.	Value.
1816 to 1817	2,610	2,610
1817 to 1818	2,530	2,530
1818 to 1819	3,050	3,050
1819 to 1820	2,970	2,970
1820 to 1821	3,050	3,050
1821 to 1822	2,910	2,910
1822 to 1823	2,822	2,822
1823 to 1824	2,910	2,910
1824 to 1825	2,655	2,655
1825 to 1826	3,449	3,449
1826 to 1827	3,661	3,661
1827 to 1828	5,134	5,134
1828 to 1829	5,965	5,965
1829 to 1830	7,143	7,143
1830 to 1831	6,660	6,660
1831 to 1832	6,472	6,472
1832 to 1833	6,267	6,267
1833 to 1834	8,672	8,672
1834 to 1835	7,787	7,787
1835 to 1836	6,173	6,173
1836 to 1837	8,078	8,078
1837 to 1838	6,165	6,165

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is a native of the south
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flows from them, which
lumps of a reddish yellow
specific gravity 1.623.

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is a native of the south
feet, with a thick brar
flows from them, which
lumps of a reddish yellow
specific gravity 1.623.

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England 22,121 pipes a
quantity of red wine is

The following Table is from the New York Journal of Commerce:—
 Value of Opium delivered at Lintin in China during the Seasons from 1816 to 1818, ending 31st March of each year; exclusive of Turkey.

Seasons.	Fatsa and Benares.			Malwa.			Total.	
	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Value in Dollars.
April 1st to 31st March.								
1816 to 1817	2,610	1,500	\$3,152,000	600	675	\$235,000	3,210	3,657,000
1817 to 1818	2,530	1,365	3,200,450	1,150	612	703,500	3,680	3,904,250
1818 to 1819	3,050	1,000	3,050,000	1,530	725	1,109,250	4,580	4,159,250
1819 to 1820	2,970	1,235	3,667,950	1,630	1,175	1,915,250	4,600	5,583,200
1820 to 1821	3,050	1,900	5,795,000	1,720	1,515	1,605,500	4,770	8,400,500
1821 to 1822	2,910	2,075	6,036,250	1,715	1,325	2,276,350	4,625	8,314,600
1822 to 1823	1,522	1,552	2,359,900	4,000	1,200	5,160,000	5,522	7,969,900
1823 to 1824	2,910	1,800	4,656,000	4,172	925	3,859,100	7,082	8,515,100
1824 to 1825	3,655	1,175	3,119,225	6,000	750	4,500,000	9,655	7,629,225
1825 to 1826	3,442	913	3,141,755	6,179	730	4,466,450	9,621	7,608,205
1826 to 1827	3,561	1,002	3,566,568	6,308	942	5,941,520	9,969	9,508,088
1827 to 1828	5,134	998	5,125,155	4,401	1,204	5,289,920	9,535	10,425,075
1828 to 1829	5,965	940	5,604,235	7,771	966	6,928,880	13,732	12,535,115
1829 to 1830	7,143	860	6,149,577	6,857	862	5,907,560	14,000	12,057,137
1830 to 1831	6,660	870	5,790,204	12,100	686	7,114,059	18,760	11,904,263
1831 to 1832	5,672	967	5,464,340	7,621	695	5,447,355	13,293	10,911,695
1832 to 1833	5,227	792	6,551,059	15,403	670	8,791,700	23,670	15,322,759
1833 to 1834	8,672	639	5,545,845	11,114	676	7,510,685	19,786	13,056,540
1834 to 1835	7,797	572	4,451,845	6,747	695	5,223,125	14,544	9,675,010
1835 to 1836	6,172	698	4,292,900	10,612	580	6,146,975	16,785	10,539,875
1836 to 1837	6,078	724	5,548,236	13,430	628	8,439,694	21,509	14,287,330
1837 to 1838	6,165	633	3,908,129	13,875	602	6,980,028	20,040	10,888,157

The opium trade upon the coast of China east of Canton began to be of importance in the years 1822-3, since then it has rapidly increased, and bids fair to exceed that carried on at the Lintin station. Fractions of chests and of dollars in fine are rejected, which would make the table appear incorrect if critically examined.—*Am. Ed.*

OPOBALSAM. See BALSAM.

OPOPONAX (Ger. *Opoponax*; Fr. *Opopanax*; It. *Opoponasso*; Sp. *Opoponaca*; Arab. *Jawsheer*), a gum-resin, obtained from the *Pastinaca Opoponax*, a species of paraneop. It is a native of the south of Europe and Asia Minor. The stem rises to the height of 4 or 5 feet, with a thick branched yellow-coloured root. The roots being wounded, a milky juice flows from them, which, being dried in the sun, is the opoponax of the shops. It is in clumps of a reddish yellow colour, and white within. Smell peculiar. Taste bitter and acrid. Specific gravity 1.62. It is imported from Turkey. Being used only to a small extent in medicine, the consumption is inconsiderable.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Ainslie's Mat. Medica*.)

OPORTO, or PORTO, a large city and sea-port of Portugal, situated on the north bank of the river Douro, about 2 miles from its mouth, in lat. 41° 10' 30" N., lon. 8° 37' 18" W. It is a beautifully situated, well-built city; and is supposed to have contained, before the late calamities, 70,000 inhabitants.

Harbour.—The harbour of Oporto is a bar harbour, and can only be entered, at least by vessels of considerable burden, at high water; and it is seldom at any time practicable for vessels drawing more than 16 feet. On the north side of the entrance is the castle of St. Jago de Foz, whence a ledge of rocks, some of which are at all times above water, extends in a south-west direction. The outermost of these rocks, named Figueira, which is always visible, is left on the left or larboard side on entering. Cabedelo Point, forming the southern extremity of the entrance, is low and sandy. The bar being liable, from the action of the tides, and of sudden swellings or freshes in the river, to perpetual variations, it is exceedingly dangerous for any vessel to attempt crossing it without a pilot. Pilots are always on the alert, and ready to offer their services when a vessel comes in sight, unless the weather be so bad that they cannot go off. On some few occasions of this sort, vessels have been detained for 3 weeks off the port, without having an opportunity of entering. The channel of St. Catherine in a line with that of St. Michael leads over the bar. The ordinary rise of spring tides is from 10 to 12 feet, and of neaps from 6 to 8 feet. A light-house with a fixed light is erected on a hill about 600 yards N. N. W. of St. Jago de Foz.

The swellings of the river, or freshes, as they are called, most commonly occur in spring, and are caused by heavy rains, and by the melting of the snow on the mountains. The rise of water at such times is frequently as much as 40 feet; and the rapidity and force of the current are so very great, that no dependence can be placed on anchors in the stream. Fortunately, a fresh never occurs without previous warning; and it is then the practice to moor with a cable made fast to trees, or stone pillars erected on the shore for that purpose.—(For further information as to the harbour of Oporto, see Mr. Purdy's valuable *Sailing Directions for the Bay of Biscay*.)

Trade.—Oporto is the emporium of a large portion of the kingdom of Portugal, and enjoys a pretty considerable foreign commerce. The well known red wine, denominated port, from its being exclusively shipped at that city, forms by far the largest article of export. The exports vary in different years, from about 16,500 to above 40,000 pipes. England is the largest consumer of port. The high discriminating duties on French wine originally obtained for it a preference in the British market, to which, though an excellent wine, it had no natural claim; and its long continued use has so confirmed the taste for it, that it is probable it will maintain its ascendancy notwithstanding the late equalisation of the duties. At an average of the 10 years ending with 1833, there were shipped from Oporto for England 22,121 pipes a year; but exclusive of the port shipped from Oporto, a considerable quantity of red wine is now brought from Figueira. Next to England, Brazil, Russia, and

the north of Europe in general, are the principal consumers of port. The other exports are oil, oranges, and other fruits, wool, refined sugar, cream of tartar, shumac, leather, cork, &c. The imports are corn, rice, beef, salt fish, and other articles of provision; sugar, coffee, &c. from Brazil; cotton, and woollen goods, hardware, tin plates, &c. from England; hemp, flax, and deals, from the Baltic, &c.

Besides the British manufactured goods imported into Portugal for the use of the natives, a considerable quantity is destined for the consumption of Spain; being smuggled into that country through Braganza and other towns on the frontier.

Monies, Weights, and Measures same as those of Lisbon; which see.

We subjoin an account, obtained from the Portuguese Custom-houses, of the wine shipped from Oporto during the 10 years ending with 1833.

Account of the Quantities of Wine exported from Oporto during the Ten Years down to 1833 inclusive, specifying the Countries to which they were sent, and the Quantities sent to each.

Countries.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Brazil - - - pipes	181	434	284	3,563	6,212	9,565	7,410	61	33		
Denmark	29	100	63	68	68	57	63				
U. S. of America	418										
Oibritar and Spain	87				10	8	16				
Hamburg	248	771	1,448	376	266	1,600	1,523	12	30		
Holland	61	43	54	12	53	91	123		41		
The Azores	1	4	2	1	1	26	2		3		
Great Britain	18,482	13,673	20,171	18,333	17,538	27,932	24,207	18,310	40,277		
Italy	3	3	3	4	4	42	13		5		
Porto in Portugal	3	306									
Russia	54	209	145	88	32	129	62		1		
Newfoundland	24	13	85	76	170	130	21		32		
Sweden		226	433	911	300	225	93				
Porto in the Baltic		6	3								
India											
Cape Verd Islands						1	39				
France			1	2	4	7	5				
Angola						13	71				
South America		858	306	327	361	1,347	237		143		
Guernsey and Jersey						79	99		39		
Bremen							31		8		
Ship's stores						4					
Total	20,495	16,650	23,430	24,165	25,871	41,227	24,237	18,507	40,447	36,111	

N. B.—It was not till 1826, that the exclusive privilege possessed by the Oporto Wine Company, of shipping wine for Brazil, was put an end to, previously to which period the shipments for that country were not given.

It is hardly possible to form any estimate of the value of the wine shipped from Oporto; the price varying from 5*l.* to 50*l.* per hoghead. The export duty on wine approved for exportation, (*crata d'embargo*), is about 6*0* 500*rs.* per pipe, or, at the present (January 1834) rate of exchange, *li. 9*s.** per pipe. Separated wine (*vinho separado*) is not generally allowed to be exported; but at present it may be shipped on paying 16*0* 500*rs.* more, or 5*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* a pipe. The other expenses are trifling. Freight to this country varies from *li.* to *li. 1*l.** 6*d.* per pipe.—(For an account of the Oporto Wine Company, see *WINE*.)

Sometimes wine is purchased from the farmer in the wine country. In this case, the casks are sent about 60 miles up the river, in boats, to be filled. Owing to the miserable state of the roads, the expense of carriage is very considerable; the carriage from and to the river side frequently costing from *li.* to 2*l.* per pipe. The freight from the upper country down the river to Oporto is about equal to that from the latter to England. There is also an internal duty of about *li. 2*s.** per pipe on all wine brought down the river. Inasmuch, however, as these charges are perpetually varying, it is not possible to lay before the reader any *pro forma* account of the cost of wine bought in the Upper Douro. The Oporto Wine Company have the monopoly of the brandy as well as of the wine trade of the Douro. The consequence is, that brandy costs at this moment, at Oporto, about 36*l.* per pipe; while equally good brandy may be bought in Lisbon, and much better in Cognac, for about 15*l.* per pipe. The abolition of this company would certainly be one of the most desirable reforms that could be accomplished, even in Portugal.—(*Private information*.)

ORANGES (*Ger. Pomeranzen; Du. Orangen; Fr. Oranges; It. Melaarance; Sp. Naranjas; Rus. Pomeranzii; Hind. Narunge; Malay. Simao-manis*), the fruit of the orange tree. The common, or sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*, or *Citrus nobilis*), and the Seville, or bitter orange (*Citrus aurantium*), are natives of China; and the Portuguese are entitled to the honour of having transferred the plant to other countries. Particular species of *Citrus* seem to be indigenous to various Eastern countries; but the birth-place of the proper orange may be distinctly traced to China. It is now to be found in our green-houses. Oranges are imported in chests and boxes, packed separately in paper. The best come from the Azores and Spain; very good ones are also brought from Portugal, Italy, Malia, and other places.

The orange trade carried on by this country is of considerable value and importance. Oranges are not much more expensive than most of our superior domestic fruits, while they are, perhaps, the most refreshing and wholesome of those of warmer climates. The entries for home consumption in 1823 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 270,000 boxes a year; and assuming each box to contain 20 oranges and lemons, the number entered for consumption will have been 189,424,000! The duty produced, at an average of the above years, 61,030*l.* a year. The number of persons employed in the importation and sale of oranges must be very considerable. The policy of charging any duty on oranges seems questionable. They are very apt to spoil; and as no abatement is made from the duty on account of any damage, its influence on their price is much more considerable than might at first be supposed.

ORCHILLA WEED, ORCHELLA, OR ARCHIL (*Ger. Orseille; Fr. Orseille; It. Oricello, Orcella; Sp. Orchilla*), a whitish lichen (*Lichen orcella*) found in the Isle of Portland; but that which is used, is imported from the Canary and Cape de Verd Islands, Barbary, and the Levant. From it is obtained the archil, or orchal, of commerce, which

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yields a rich purple tincture, fugitive, indeed, but extremely beautiful. The preparation of orchilla was long a secret, known only to the Florentines and Hollanders; but it is now extensively manufactured in this country. Archil is generally sold in the form of cakes, but sometimes in that of moist pulp; it is extensively used by dyers; and in times of scarcity, the weed or lichen has sold as high as 1,000*l.* per ton!—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) At this moment (January, 1834), Canary orchilla fetches, in the London market, 320*l.* a ton, while that which is brought from Madeira fetches only 200*l.*, and Barbary not more than from 10*l.* to 25*l.* The total quantity imported in 1829 amounted to 1,813 cwt., or 90½ tons.

ORGOL. See **ARSOL.**
ORPIMENT (Ger. *Operment*; Fr. *Orpiment*; It. *Orpimento*; Sp. *Oropimente*; Lat. *Auripigmentum*), the name usually given to sulphuret of arsenic. When artificially prepared, it is in the form of a fine yellow-coloured powder; but it is found native in many parts of the world, particularly in Bohemia, Turkey, China, and Ava. It is exported from the last two in considerable quantities; and is known in the East by the name of hartal. Native orpiment is composed of thin plates of a lively gold colour, intermixed with pieces of a vermilion red, of a shattery foliaceous texture, flexible, soft to the touch like talc, and sparkling when broken. Specific gravity 3.45. The inferior kinds are of a dead yellow, inclining to green, and want the bright appearance of the best specimens. Its principal use is as a colouring drug among painters, bookbinders, &c.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Mitchell's Orient. Com.*)

ORSEVAD, ORSIDUE, MANHEIM OR DUTCH GOLD (Ger. *Flittergold*; Du. *Klatergoud*; Fr. *Oripeau, Oliquant*; It. *Orpello*; Sp. *Oropel*), an inferior sort of gold leaf, prepared of copper and zinc. It is sometimes called *leaf brass*. It is principally manufactured in Manheim.

OSTRICH FEATHERS. See **FEATHERS.**
OWNERS OF SHIPS. Property in ships is acquired, like other personal property, by fabricating them, or by inheritance, purchase, &c.

No ship is entitled to any of the privileges of a British ship until she be duly registered as such, and all the provisions in the Registry Act (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55.) be complied with.—(See **REGISTRY.**)

A British ship may belong either to one individual or to several individuals. It is ordered by the act just cited, that the property of every vessel of which there are more owners than one, shall be divided into 64th shares; and that no person shall be entitled to be registered as an owner who does not, at least, hold one 64th share. It is further provided by the same statute, that not more than *thirty-two* persons shall be owners of any one ship at any one time. Companies or associations holding property in ships, may choose *three* of their members to act as trustees for them.

Neither the property of an entire ship, nor any share or shares in such ship, can be transferred from one individual to another, except by bill of sale or other instrument in writing; and before the sale is valid, such bill or instrument must be produced to the collector and comptroller, who are to enter the names, residences, &c. of the seller and buyer, the number of shares sold, &c. in the book of registry of such vessel, and to indorse the particulars on the certificate of registry.—(See the clause in the statute, art. **REGISTRY.**)

But, though compliance with the directions in the statute accomplishes a complete transference of the property, when the transaction is not in its nature illegal, it gives no sort of security to a transference that is otherwise bad. The purchaser should in all cases endeavour to get possession of the ship, or of his share in her, as soon as his title to her or it is acquired, by the registration of the particulars of the bill of sale; for though all the formalities of sale have been completed, yet, if the sellers continue as apparent owners in possession of the ship, their creditors may, in the event of their becoming bankrupt, acquire a right to it, to the exclusion of the purchasers. In the case of a sale or agreement for a part only, it is enough if, the sale being completed, the seller ceases to act as a part owner.—(*Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping, part i. c. 1.*)

Property in ships is sometimes acquired by capture. During war, his Majesty's ships, and private ships having letters of marque, are entitled to make prizes. But before the captors acquire a legal title to such prizes, it is necessary that they should be condemned in the Admiralty or other court constituted for that purpose. When this is done, the captors are considered to be in the same situation, with respect to them, as if they had built or purchased them.

The act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. has ruled, that no person having the transfer of a ship, or a share of a ship, made over to him as a security for a debt, shall be deemed an owner, or part owner, of such ship. And when such transfer has been duly registered according to the provisions of the act, the right and interest of the mortgagee are not to be affected by the bankruptcy of the mortgagor, though he be the reputed owner, or part owner, of such ship.—(See **REGISTRY.**)

In the article **MASTERS OF SHIPS** is given an account of the liabilities incurred by the

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owners of ships for the acts of the masters. But it has been attempted to encourage navigation by limiting the responsibility of the owners, without, however, depriving the freighter of a ship of an adequate security for the faithful performance of the contract. To effect this desirable object, it has been enacted, that the owner or owners shall not be liable to make good any loss or damage happening *without their fault or privity*, to any goods put on board any ship or vessel belonging to such owner or owners, further than the value of such ship or vessel, with all its appurtenances, and the freight due, or growing due, during the voyage that may be in prosecution, or contracted for, at the time when the loss or damage has taken place.—(53 Geo. 3. c. 159.)

This limitation was first introduced into our law by the 7 Geo. 2. c. 15. But it had previously been adopted in the law of Holland, and in the justly celebrated French Ordinance of 1681. In the Ordinance of Rotterdam, issued in 1721, it is expressly declared, that "the owners shall not be answerable for any act of the master, done without their order, any further than their part of the ship amounts to." Independently, however, of this general agreement, the expediency of the limitation appears, for the reasons already stated, sufficiently obvious.

It was also enacted in 1786 (26 Geo. 3. c. 60.), that neither the master nor owners of any ship or vessel shall be liable to answer for or make good any gold or silver, diamonds, watches, jewels, or precious stones, lost or embezzled during the course of the voyage, unless the shipper thereof insert in his bill of lading, or declare in writing to the master or owners, the true nature, quality, and value of such articles.

The responsibility, at common law, of a *master* or *mariner* is not affected by the first mentioned limitation, even though such master or mariner be owner or part owner of the vessel; neither does the limitation extend to the owner or owners of any lighter, barge, boat, &c. used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any ship or vessel not duly registered according to law.

When several freighters sustain losses exceeding in the whole the value of the ship and freight, they are to receive compensation thereout in proportion to their respective losses; and any one freighter, on behalf of himself and the other freighters, or any part owner, on behalf of himself and the other part owners, may file a bill in a court of equity for the discovery of the total amount of the losses, and of the value of the ship, and for an equal distribution and payment. If the bill be filed by or on behalf of the part owners, the plaintiff must make affidavit that he does not collude with the defendants, and must offer to pay the value of the ship and freight, as the court shall direct.

It is usual in most countries, where the part owners of a ship disagree as to her employment, to give those possessed of the greater number of shares power to bind the whole. But in this country, while the majority of the owners in value have authority to employ the ship as they please, the interests of the minority are secured from being prejudiced by having their property engaged in an adventure of which they disapprove. For this purpose the Court of Admiralty has been in the practice of taking a stipulation from those who desire to send the ship on a voyage, in a sum equal to the value of the shares of those who object to it, either to bring back and restore to them the ship, or to pay them the value of their shares. When this is done, the dissentient part owners bear no portion of the expenses of the outfit, are not entitled to a share in the profits of the voyage; the ship sails wholly at the charge and risk and for the profit, of the others.—(Abbott, part i. c. 3.)

For the statutory enactments as to the sale and transfer of ships, see REGISTER.

OYSTER, OYSTERS (Ger. *Austern*; Fr. *Huitres*; It. *Ostriche*; Sp. *Ostras*; Lat. *Ostræa*). This well known shell-fish is very generally diffused, and is particularly plentiful on the British coasts, which were ransacked for the supply of ancient Rome with oysters. They differ in quality according to the different nature of the soil or bed. The best British oysters are found at Purfleet; the worst, near Liverpool. The nursing and feeding of oysters is almost exclusively carried on at Colchester, and other places in Essex. The oysters are brought from the coast of Hampshire, Dorset, and other maritime counties, even as far as Scotland, and laid on beds or layings in creeks along the shore, where they grow, in 2 or 3 years, to a considerable size, and have their flavour improved. There are said to be about 200 vessels, from 12 to 40 or 50 tons burden, immediately employed in dredging for oysters, having from 400 to 500 men and boys attached to them. The quantity of oysters bred and taken in Essex, and consumed mostly in London, is supposed to amount to 14,000 or 15,000 bushels a year.—(Supp. to Ency. Brit. art. Fisheries.)

The imports of oysters fluctuate very much. From 1824 to 1828, both inclusive, none were imported. But, at an average of 1831 and 1832, the imports amounted to 52,665 bushels a year.

The stealing of oysters, or oyster brood, from any oyster bed, laying, or fishery, is larceny, and the offender, being convicted thereof, shall be punished accordingly; and if any person shall unlawfully and wilfully use any dredge, net, &c. for the purpose of taking oysters, or oyster brood, within the limits of an oyster bed or fishery, every such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and, upon being convicted thereof, shall be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both, as the court may award; such fine not to exceed 20*l.*, and such imprisonment not to exceed 3 calendar months. It is provided, that nothing in the act shall be construed as preventing any one from catching oysters within the limits of any oyster fishery, with any net, instrument, or engine adapted to the catching of such fish.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29. § 36.)

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P.

PACKAGE, SCAVAGE, BAILLAGE, AND PORTAGE, were duties charged in the port of London, on the goods imported and exported by aliens, or by denizens being the sons of aliens.

During the dark ages, it was usual to lay higher duties upon the goods imported or exported by aliens, whether in British or foreign ships, than were laid on similar goods when imported or exported by natives. But according as sounder and more enlarged principles prevailed, this illiberal distinction was gradually modified, and was at length wholly abolished, in so far at least as it was of a public character, by the 24 Geo. 3. c. 16. This act, after reciting that "the several duties and restrictions imposed by various acts of parliament upon merchandise are, by the alterations of the trade now carried on between this kingdom and foreign states, in some cases become an unnecessary burden upon commerce, without producing any real advantage to the public revenue, and that it is expedient they should no longer continue," enacts, that the duty commonly called "the petty customs," imposed by the 12 Car. 2., and all other additional duties imposed by any act upon the goods of aliens above those payable by natural-born subjects, should be no longer payable. The act then goes on to provide, that nothing contained in it shall "alter the duties due and payable upon goods imported into or exported from this kingdom in any foreign ship, nor the duties of *package*, and *scavage*, or any duties granted by charter to the city of London;" and then follow provisions to prevent the city being defrauded of such duties by false entries of aliens' goods in the name of a British subject.—(*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. i. p. 160.)

The duties thus preserved to the city were not very heavy: but the principle on which they were imposed was exceedingly objectionable, and their collection was attended with a great deal of trouble and inconvenience. Not being levied in other places, they operated to the prejudice of the trade of the metropolis. For these reasons, we observed, in the former edition of this work, that "if the funds of the corporation will not admit of their following the liberal example of the legislature, by voluntarily abandoning this vexatious impost, it would be good policy to give them a compensation for relinquishing it." And we are glad to have to state this suggestion has since been carried into effect. The act 3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 66, authorized the Lords of the Treasury to purchase up the duties in question from the city. This has been done, at an expense of about 140,000*l.*, and the duties are now abolished. There is a Table of the duties in the former edition of this work.

PACKETS. See **NEW YORK, PASSENGERS, AND POST-OFFICE.**

PALERMO (anciently **PAΛΕΡΜΟΣ**), a large city and sea-port, the capital of the noble island of Sicily, on the north coast of which it is situated, the light-house being in lat. 38° 8' 15" N., lon. 13° 21' 56" E. Population, 170,000.

The bay of Palermo is about 5 miles in depth, the city being situated on its south-west shore. A fine mole, fully 3 of a mile in length, having a light-house and battery at its extremity, projects in a southerly direction from the arsenal into 9 or 10 fathoms water, forming a convenient port, capable of containing a great number of vessels. This immense work cost about 1,000,000*l.* sterling in its construction; but the light-house, though a splendid structure, is said to be very ill lighted. There is an inner port, which is reserved for the use of the arsenal. Ships that do not mean to go within the mole may anchor about 3 miles from it, in from 16 to 23 fathoms, the mole light bearing N.W. $\frac{3}{4}$ W. A heavy sea sometimes rolls into the bay, but no danger need be apprehended by ships properly found in anchors and chain cables. In going into the bay, it is necessary to keep clear of the nets of the tunny fishery, for these are so strong and well moored, as to be capable of arresting a ship under sail.—(*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 70. and *Appen.* p. 4.)

Since 1818, the coins of Sicily have been the same as those of Naples, their names only differing.—(See **NAPLES**.) The *ducat*, = 3*s.* 5*d.* sterling, is subdivided into 100 *bajocchi* and 10 *piccioli*: but accounts are still generally kept in *oncie*, *tari*, and *grani*: 20 *grani* = 1 *taro*; 30 *tari* = 1 *uncia*. The *oncia* = 3 *ducats*; and 1 *carlino* of Naples = 1 *taro* of Sicily. The Spanish dollar is current at 12 *tari* 6 *grani*.

Weights.—These are the *cantaro grosso*, subdivided into 100 *rotoli grossi* of 33 ounce, or into 110 *rotoli sottili* of 30 ounce; and the *cantaro sottile*, subdivided into 100 *rotoli sottili* of 30 ounce, or 250 *lib.* of 12 ounce. The *rotolo* of 33 ounces = 1*q* 3 *lb.* avoirdupois = 2*q* 34 *lb.* Troy = 8*q* 73 hectogrammes = 17 *lb.* of Amsterdam = 1*q* 8 *lb.* of Hamburg. The *rotolo* of 30 ounces = 1*q* 73 *lb.* avoirdupois = 2*q* 13 *lb.* Troy = 7*q* 94 hectogrammes = 1*q* 6 *lb.* of Amsterdam = 1*q* 61 *lb.* of Hamburg. 100 Sicilian pounds of 12 ounces = 70 *lb.* avoirdupois = 85*½* *lb.* Troy = 31*q* 76 *kg.* = 64*q* 23 *lb.* of Amsterdam = 65*q* 58 *lb.* of Hamburg.

Measures.—The *salma grossa* = 9*q* 48 Winch. bush; the *salma generale* = 7*q* 62 Winch. bush. The principal liquid measure is the *tonna*, divided into 4 *barili*, each equivalent to 91 of wine gallons. 1 *barile* = 2 *quartara*; 1 *quartara* = 20 *quartucci*. The *caffaso* of oil = 4*q* 3 Eng. gallons.

The *yard* or *canna* = 8 *palmi*; 2*½* *palmi* = 1 yard Eng.—(*Nelkenbrecher*; *Smyth*, p. 62 App.)

Duties.—Coffee, indigo, pepper, and dye woods, 3 per cent. and weight of package. Cinnamon, 6 rotoli per scro, with 1 wrapper, or 6 rotoli, with 2 wrappers; cocoa, 2 per cent. weight of package, and 3 per cent. for duty; cod-fish, 3 per cent.; herrings, 12 per cent.; tin, 13 rotoli per barrel; wax, weight of package, and 3 to 4 per cent. extra allowance; Havannah sugars, 16 per cent.; Brazil do. in short cases, 18 per cent., and in long cases, 20 per cent.; crushed sugar, weight of cask, and 3 per cent., or 13 per cent. in all, at the option of the buyer; East India do., in bags, 8 rot. to 10 rot. per bag. *Trolo* taken as weight of bag, for coffee and cocoa in bags.

Charges on Goods.—The regular charges on the sale of goods consigned to Palermo, are—commission, 3 per cent.; brokerage, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; warehouse rent, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and portorage and boat hire, with 2 per cent. *del credere*,—imports being almost always sold on credit. The charges may occasion-

ally very $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 per cent., and imports are frequently sold duty paid; the prices, however, so obtained, fully compensate for the trifling increase of charges.

The charges on goods exported are—3 per cent. commission; brokerage, so much per *centena salina*, &c., generally amounting to about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., except on fruit, on which it is equivalent to from 2 to 3 per cent.

Imports and Exports.—The great articles of export from Sicily are—grain, particularly wheat and barley; beans, wine, brandy, oil, barilla, lemons and oranges, lemon juice, almonds, salt, shumac, salt-fish, cheese, with brimstone, argol, manna, liquorice, pumice stone, rags, skins, honey, cotton-wool, nuts, linseed, saffron, &c. Wheat is largely exported. It is of a mixed quality, hard, and is generally sold from the public magazines, or *caricatori* (see post), by measure, without weight. But the best hard wheat, grown in the neighbourhood of Palermo, is sold by the *salina* of 872 rotoli = 436 lbs. Eng.; the difference between weight and measure being made good by the seller or buyer, as the case may be. Wine is principally shipped from Marsala; lemons, oranges, and lemon juice, from Messina; salt, from Trapani; and barilla, from the southern coast. But all the articles to be found on the coast may, for the most part, be had at Palermo; unless, however, the quantity required be small, it is usually best to ship them from the outports, the expense of their conveyance to Palermo being very heavy. The crops of barilla and shumac come to market in August; but brimstone, salt, oil, wine, rags, &c. may generally be had all the year round. The first shipments of lemons and oranges may be made in the beginning of November. Purchases of produce are always paid for in cash, generally $\frac{1}{2}$ on making the purchase, and the other $\frac{1}{2}$ on delivery, when in Palermo, and on receiving order for delivery, on the coast.

The imports consist of sugar, coffee, cocons, indigo, dye woods, spices, iron, tin, hides, Newfoundland cod, cotton and woollen stuffs, timber for building, &c. We have no means of forming any estimate either of the quantity or the value of the principal articles of import and export. Silk is a staple produce of the island; but its exportation in an unwrought state, except to Naples, is prohibited. (We have gleaned these details principally from private communications. The best account of the trade of Sicily, though now a little antiquated, that we have met with in any English work, is contained in *Seisburne's Travels in the Two Sicilies*, 4to ed. vol. ii. pp. 401—413. See also the article NAPLES in this work.)

Remarks on the Trade, &c. of Sicily.—This noble island contains about 10,500 square miles, being the largest in the Mediterranean, and one of the most fertile and best situated in the world. Its population is about 1,900,000. In ancient times, Sicily was celebrated for the number, magnitude, and opulence of its cities; and, notwithstanding its population was then, at least, treble its present amount, it obtained, from its furnishing vast supplies of corn and other articles of provision for the use of Rome, the appropriate epithet of *horreum Romanorum*. When the Roman power had been overthrown, Sicily was occupied, first by the Saracens, then by the Normans, and after them by the French. The Sicilian Vespers put a fatal period to the dominion of the latter; and a prince of the house of Aragon having been called to the Sicilian throne, the island became, in course of time, a dependency, first of the crown of Spain, and more recently of that of Naples.

It is to this dependence that we are induced to ascribe the backward state of Sicily. The multiplied abuses which grew up in Spain, under Ferdinand the Catholic, and his successors of the Austrian line, flourished with equal luxuriance in Sicily, and have produced no less destructive of the industry and civilisation of its inhabitants than those of Spain. The Bourbon or Neapolitan régime has been equally pernicious. "The government of this island," says a recent and most intelligent observer, "seems to unite in itself nearly all the defects, both theoretical and practical, of which political institutions are susceptible. It is a model in its way. We find here a system of laws quite barbarous, and the administration of them notoriously corrupt; high taxes, levied arbitrarily and unequally; and the land generally held on such a tenure as makes it unalienable, so that few can ever be proprietors; and farming leases, for church land at least, are binding on the farmer only, and not on his landlord. For want of roads, produce cannot be exported from one part of the island to another; the consequence of which is, that a scarcity and a glut may and frequently do exist at the same time in different parts of the island, without the means of timely and effectual communication."—(*Simond's Italy and Sicily*, p. 529.) But the grand curse of Sicilian, as well as of Sardinian, industry—(see *CARLIARI*)—is the restriction on the exportation of corn. It is true that the difficulties in this respect are not so great now as formerly, but they are still such as to oppose an invincible obstacle to the spread of improvement, and to the development of the national resources. No exportation of corn can take place without leave of the *real patrimonio*—a tribunal that pretends to take a yearly account of the crop, and of the supply required to meet the home demand. When this body has determined that an exportation may take place, it issues (or rather, we believe, sells) its licences to export certain specific quantities, to a few favoured individuals*, who, in consequence, are able to regulate the price; so that they, and not the corn growers, reap all the advantage! Thus, says M. Simond, "neither scanty nor plentiful crops affording a chance of gain, farmers are discouraged, and corn is frequently scarce in a country once the granary of Imperial Rome, although its own population be now reduced to 1-6th of what it was at that period.† Such is the system of minute and vexatious regulations, that a man cannot go in or out of town with a loaf of bread or a joint of meat without special permission. The revenue laws in England are sufficiently vexatious, but they at least answer their fiscal purpose. Here the

* The late Queen is said to have been a great dealer in corn on her own account!

† We cannot help looking upon this as an exaggeration. There do not seem to be any good grounds for thinking that Sicily ever contained more than 6,000,000 inhabitants,—that is, a little more than 1-3rd as many as at present.

vention is gratuitous of revenue are, in the There are only cere to the establishment till an opportunity of profitable), and provided it is warehoused free being sufficient to defray, is negotiable like exchange at Palermo. The depositor of a quantity accounted for. The calcareous rocks, or proof, containing each of the bottle is hermetically preserved for an indefinite after the lapse of a century of the oil *caricatori* of Hemp grows very abundantly supplied with are now, of course, extensively cultivated estate.

Were the bounty of she would undoubtedly require is security of a few years will develop to a very high rank as PALM OIL (Ger. *Sp. Acide de palma*) from that of the *Elaeis* mando Po, and in Brazil yellowish colour, and its colour, which fades imitated with hog's lard inhabitants of the coast.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

Account of the Quantity Amount of D

Year.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.
1801	100,000
1812	80,837
1818	73,045
1824	74,224
1825	84,286
1826	84,208

The price of palm oil

Almost all the palm Africa, south of the F PAMPHLET, a

It is enacted by 10 Ar out the name and place written or printed there

It is enacted by the 53 sheets, in 8vo, or any deemed a pamphlet. T published. The duty, 1,000, or 1,100, a year.

PAPER (Ger. and Lat. *Charta*; Arab. knows, thin, flexible, and printing upon, reduced to a sort of post), the leaves of sheets, quires, and re Historical Sketch often been a subject Vol. II.—Z

vention is gratuitous; for little or nothing comes of it ultimately, drained as the little sources of revenue are, in their way to the treasury, by malpractices of all sorts."—(p. 530.)

There are only certain ports from which corn can be exported. This limitation has given rise to the establishment of public magazines or *caricatori*, where the corn may be deposited till an opportunity occurs of shipping it off. Provided it be of good quality (*mercantibile* or *recevibile*), and provided it be brought in immediately after harvest, or, at farthest, in August, it is warehoused free of expense; what it gains in bulk after that period (about 5 per cent.) being sufficient to defray all expenses. The receipt of the *caricator*, or keeper of the magazine, is negotiable like a bill of exchange, and is the object of speculative purchases on the exchange at Palermo, Messina, &c. according to the expected rise or fall in the price of corn. The depositor of a quantity sells it in such portions as he pleases, the whole being faithfully accounted for. The public magazines, in some parts of the island, are either excavations into calcareous rocks, or holes in the ground shaped like a bottle, walled up, and made waterproof, containing each about 200 salme of corn, or about 1,600 English bushels. The neck of the bottle is hermetically closed with a stone fastened with gypsum. Corn may be thus preserved for an indefinite length of time; at least, it has been found in perfectly good order after the lapse of a century.—(*Simond*, p. 540.; *Swinburne*, vol. ii. p. 405. For an account of the oil *caricatori* of Naples, see *OLIVZ ORL.*)

Hemp grows very well in Sicily; and when the English were there, their ships were abundantly supplied with that article; but its exportation being no longer permitted, its culture is now, of course, neglected.—(*Simond*, p. 539.) Sugar canes were, at one time, pretty extensively cultivated in Sicily; but their culture has been long declining, and is now nearly extinct.

Were the bounty of nature towards Sicily not counteracted by vicious laws and institutions, she would undoubtedly be one of the richest and finest of European countries. All that she requires is security of property and freedom of industry. Let but these be given to her, and a few years will develop her gigantic resources, and elevate Girgenti, Termini, and Sciacca, to a very high rank among corn-shipping ports.

PALM OIL. (*Ger. Palmol*; *Fr. Huile de palme, Huile de Senegal*; *It. Olio di palma*; *Sp. Aceite de palma*) is obtained from the fruit of several species of palms, but especially from that of the *Elais Guineensis*, growing on the west coast of Africa, to the south of Fernando Po, and in Brazil. When imported, the oil is about the consistence of butter, of a yellowish colour, and scarcely any particular taste: by long keeping it becomes rancid; loses its colour, which fades to a dirty white; and in this state is to be rejected. It is sometimes imitated with hog's lard, coloured with turmeric, and scented with Florentine iris root. The inhabitants of the coast of Guinea employ palm oil for the same purposes that we do butter.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Account of the Quantities of Palm Oil entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, the Amount of Duty received thereon, and the Rate of Duty, each Year since 1831.

Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Amount of Duty received thereon.				Rates of Duty charged.	Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Amount of Duty received thereon.				Rates of Duty charged.
		£.	s.	d.	Per Cent.				£.	s.	d.	Per Cent.	
1831	Cust. 100,000	12,289	11	8	12 1/2	1837	Cust. 98,070	12,256	10	4	12 1/2		
1832	80,837	8,449	9	8	ditto	1838	130,569	16,074	15	8	ditto		
1833	73,696	8,045	9	1	ditto	1839	175,398	21,852	0	5	ditto		
1834	74,024	9,273	2	0	ditto	1840	178,658	22,488	5	1	ditto		
1835	84,998	10,632	17	4	ditto	1841	175,452	21,532	0	0	ditto		
1836	84,368	11,763	10	3	ditto	1842	220,326	27,540	0	0	ditto		

The price of palm oil (duty paid) varies from 33*l.* to 34*l.* a ton.

Almost all the palm oil made use of in this country is brought from the western coast of Africa, south of the Rio Volta.

PAMPHLET, a small book, usually printed in the octavo form, and stitched.

It is enacted by 10 Ann. c. 19. § 113., that no person shall sell, or expose to sale, any pamphlet, without the name and place of abode of some known person, by or for whom it was printed or published, written or printed thereon, under penalty of 20*l.* and costs.

It is enacted by 55 Geo. 3. c. 185., that every book containing 1 whole sheet, and not exceeding 8 sheets, in 8vo, or any lesser size; or not exceeding 12 sheets in 4to, or 20 sheets in folio, shall be deemed a pamphlet. The same act imposed a duty of 3*s.* upon each sheet of one copy of all pamphlets published. This duty, which was at once vexatious and unproductive, hardly ever yielding more than 1,000*l.* or 1,100*l.* a year, was repealed in 1833.

PAPER (*Ger. und Du. Papier*; *Fr. Papier*; *It. Carta*; *Sp. Papel*; *Rus. Bumaga*; *Lat. Charta*; *Arab. Kartus*; *Pers. Kaghas*). This highly useful substance is, as every one knows, thin, flexible, of different colours, but most commonly white, being used for writing and printing upon, and for various other purposes. It is manufactured of vegetable matter reduced to a sort of pulp. The term paper is derived from the Greek *πάπυρος* (*papyrus*, see *post*), the leaves of a plant on which the ancients used to write. Paper is made up into sheets, quires, and reams; each quire consisting of 24 sheets, and each ream of 20 quires.

Historical Sketch of Paper. Difference between ancient and modern Paper.—It has often been a subject of wonder with those learned and ingenious persons who have written
Vol. II.—Z

concerning the arts of the ancient world, that the Greeks and Romans, although they possessed a prodigious number of books, and approached very near to printing in the stamping words and letters, and similar devices, should not have fallen upon the art; the first rude attempts at typography being sufficiently obvious, though much time and contrivance have been required to bring the process to the perfection in which it now prevails. They ought rather, perhaps, to have wondered that the more civilised nations of antiquity did not invent paper, which must precede the invention of printing, as may be easily shown. The rocks, pillars of stone or of marble, and especially the walls of edifices, supply fixed surfaces, upon which, were we unprovided with more convenient tablets, much valuable information might be preserved; and were all our public and many of our private buildings thickly covered with inscriptions, the memory of divers historical facts, and other matters of importance, might be handed down to posterity. Men wrote thus in very remote ages; and the old usage is still retained in many instances, particularly in our churches and cemeteries. In very remote ages, also, we read that they were accustomed to write upon portable surfaces of various kinds: and if it were possible to deprive us of our ordinary means of fixing and communicating our thoughts, modern ingenuity would speedily reinvent numerous expedients which have long been superseded; and we should have recourse to plates of metal of various dimensions, sometimes, probably, as thin as foil; to slices of soft, light wood, not thicker than those of which band-boxes are sometimes made; to cloth, leather, and the like. These materials would often be primed like the canvass of painters, that they might more readily receive, and more plainly show, the ink or paint that formed the characters. It is evident that, in the course of time, large libraries might be gradually composed of books constructed in this manner; and the whole amount of human learning might still be very considerable. The substances which we have enumerated are all somewhat costly: it would be desirable, therefore, to find one that was cheaper; and we should doubtless direct our attention very early to that which has served the office of paper in all times, and is used as such in some countries of the East at this day,—we mean the leaves of trees. Some of the palms, and other vegetables, that are natives of hot countries, furnish the Orientals with books that are not incommodious: the leaves of the indigenous plants of Great Britain are not so well suited for the purpose; but by care in the selection and skill in the preparation, some might certainly be chosen, which would, in some degree, be fit to receive writing. Leaves, when they are dry, are apt to split in the direction of the fibres; it has commonly been found expedient, therefore, to glue others at the back in an opposite direction; and by thus crossing the fibres at right angles, the texture is strengthened; and when it has been pressed and polished, the page is less unseemly and inconvenient than might have been supposed. Such, in the main, was the structure of the ancient paper. In Sicily, and in other countries on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, but principally in Egypt and in the Nile, or rather in the ponds and ditches that communicate with that river, grows, in the nineteenth century after the death of the last of the Ptolemies, as of old under that illustrious dynasty, and under their predecessors the Pharaohs, a lofty and most stately reed or rush, the *Cyperus Papyrus* of modern botanists. It has been introduced into the hot-houses of some of our botanical gardens, where it may be seen conspicuous with its long, drooping, and graceful plume. A description of the various purposes to which the ancients applied this useful plant, would fill a volume; we shall speak of that only from which it has earned an immortality of renown. The inner bark was divided with a needle into very thin coats; these were placed side by side longitudinally, and the edges were glued together; similar layers were glued across these behind, at right angles, to give the page the requisite strength; and the sheets were pressed, dried, polished, and otherwise prepared for use. Ancient writers have described the process, and especially Pliny, (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xiii. c. 11, 12, 13.). From that naturalist, and the notes of Hardouin and his other commentators, it may be fully traced; and Mr. Bruce has collected the authorities, and has added his own observations, in the 7th vol. of the 8vo edition of his *Travels*. That remarkable person even attempted to make paper from the papyrus; in which, however, he was not very successful; and he imputes his failure to the erroneous directions of Pliny; for it seems not to have occurred to him, that, had he endeavoured, trusting to written directions, without experience and traditional art, to make modern paper, or even a pair of shoes, he would, most probably, have been equally inefficient. Alexandria was the chief seat of this valuable manufacture; but in later periods much was also made at Rome, where an article of superior beauty was produced. Pliny enumerates the various kinds of paper that were composed, from the coarsest, which was used, like our brown paper, for packing, to the most expensive and finest. The consumption of paper was very considerable; it seems to have been tolerably cheap; and since the principal part was made at Alexandria, it was an important article in the commerce of that city—furnishing employment for many workmen and much capital. Flavius Vopiscus relates, that in the 3d century, the tyrant Firmus used to say there was so much paper there, and so large a quantity of the glue or size used in preparing it, that he could maintain an army with it:—“*Tantum habuisse de chartis, ut publicè sæpe diceret, exercitum se alere posse papyro et glutinò*.” We may doubt whether the value of the paper which any single city now contains would be

the like. Learned men have probably concluded that in a poem of that time, and not to compare ancient paper was white was not suited for the ink from the type, that it would have paper in its structure: (*“viscera nivea videra”*) across them behind; extraordinary of humors with lime or clay, and draw off gently, and represent faithfully throughout; for an troubled water over water is turbid with ferred to subside slowly, and is raised general passage of the water by it, and, remaining between felts, to each and undergoes various show that the result of sediment at the bottom nothing in common with. The application of rot results been less astonishing the cistern of turbid vessel, receives the deposit transfers it uninjured, thus an endless web water charged with putresting; for we desire is constructed. It is could not subsist with its toughness resistable circumstances, it true that legal documents, or injured by rumpressions of a splend the ancients: but these of the best penmanstruck presses, and to unless we possessed

We owe the introduction uncertainty as to the gin of the precious cannot conceive how paste into a large body. The labour of beating and severe. It is true than linen rags, which pieces by a powerful in large heaps in a water remain undisturbed decayed, it might be a mystery. The Chinese not how long they had them. The illiterate pose a species of paper. The basis of paper straw, as well as of

* We are indebted for the anecdote to the reader on it in *Rees's Cyclopædia*.

the like. Learned men have discussed the antiquity of this manufacture. It is not improbable that an earlier date ought to be assigned to it than is commonly given: nor ought we readily to conclude that it was unknown at a particular period, because it is not mentioned in a poem of that time; for the poet sought to celebrate the achievements of gods and heroes, and not to compose an Encyclopædia, or a Dictionary of the Arts and Sciences. Ancient paper was white, smooth, durable, and well adapted in all respects for writing; but it was not suited for the printer: by reason of the closeness of the grain, it would not receive the ink from the types more kindly than shavings of wood, &c.; and so brittle was its texture, that it would have shivered into pieces under the press. Nor did it resemble modern paper in its structure: it was, in truth, an artificial mass; leaves, or rather strips of bark ("*Nidæra nivea virentium herbarum*"), being pasted together by the edges, others were laid across them behind; whereas the paper which we now use is, perhaps, the most subtle and extraordinary of human inventions. If a cistern or other vessel be filled with water turbid with lime or clay, and the earth allowed to subside slowly, the water being evaporated, or drawn off gently, and the sediment left to dry, the calcareous or argillaceous deposit will represent faithfully the formation of paper; and it will be smooth, and of an equal thickness throughout; for an equal portion of the earth of which it is formed was suspended in the troubled water over each point in the bottom where it finally lodged. In making paper, the water is turbid with the pulp or paste of triturated rags, and the suspended pulp is not suffered to subside slowly; but a sieve or frame of wire gauze is dipped equally into the cistern, and is raised gently to the surface, and agitated in a level position, which facilitates the passage of the water through the wires, while the fibres of rag are in some degree interwoven by it, and, remaining on the surface of the sieve, form the sheet of paper. This is pressed between felts, to exclude the water, and to render its texture closer; it is dried and sized, and undergoes various operations, which it is unnecessary to enumerate, as we seek only to show that the result of this wonderful invention is as much an aqueous deposit as the earthy sediment at the bottom of a cistern, although it is obtained more rapidly. Modern paper has nothing in common with the ancient, save the vegetable fibre which is the basis of both. The application of rotary motion has effected wonders in many of the arts; nor have the results been less astonishing in the paper-mill: instead of dipping the sieves or frames into the cistern of turbid water, a circular web, a round towel of woven wire, revolves under the vessel, receives the deposit, conveys it away, and, by an adjustment of marvellous delicacy, transfers it uninjured, although as frail as a wet cobweb, to a similar revolving towel of felt: thus an endless web of paper is spun, as long as the machine continues to move, and the water charged with pulp is supplied. We are unable to pursue the process, however interesting; for we desire merely to explain the general principle according to which our paper is constructed. It is to this admirable material that we owe the invention of printing, which could not subsist without it: its pervious and spongy texture imbibes and retains the ink, and its toughness resists the most violent pressure; and, in a well-bound book, under favourable circumstances, its duration is indefinite, and, for all practical purposes, eternal! It is true that legal documents are sometimes printed on parchment, which is less liable to be torn, or injured by rubbing; and the luxury of typography occasionally exhibits a few impressions of a splendid work upon vellum; and that these two substances were known to the ancients: but they are necessarily expensive, and the cost of either far exceeds the price of the best penmanship; so that it would be altogether unprofitable to cast types, to construct presses, and to incur the various and heavy charges of an establishment for printing, unless we possessed a cheaper material.

We owe the introduction of paper into Europe to the Arabians or Moors. There is some uncertainty as to the precise era of its first appearance; and we are unable to trace the origin of the precious invention, or even to imagine by what steps men were led to it. We cannot conceive how any one could be tempted to pound wet rags in a mortar, to stir the paste into a large body of water, to receive the deposit upon a sieve, to press and to dry it. The labour of beating rags into pulp by the hand would be as hopeless as it would be tedious and severe. It is true that paper was originally made of cotton,—a substance less obstinate than linen rags, which are now commonly used. At present, the fresh rags are torn in pieces by a powerful mill: formerly, it was the practice to suffer them to rot; to place them in large heaps in a warm and damp situation, and to allow them to heat and ferment, and to remain undisturbed until mushrooms began to grow upon them; so that, being partially decayed, it might be less difficult to triturate them. Nevertheless, the invention of paper is a mystery. The Chinese possess the arts of making paper and of printing; but we know not how long they have had them, nor whether the Mohammedans learned the former from them. The illiterate inhabitants of some of the islands in the South Seas were able to compose a species of paper, which they used in fine weather for raiment, of the bark of trees. The basis of paper being the vegetable fibre, it has been made of various substances, as straw, as well as of rags.*

* We are indebted for this valuable historical sketch to our learned friend, T. J. Hogg, Esq., barrister-at-law. The reader may resort, for farther information as to the history of paper, to the article on it in *Rees's Cyclopædia*.

Manufacture of Paper in England.—The application of paper to the purposes of writing and printing, and the fact of its being indispensable to the prosecution of the latter, render its manufacture of the highest utility and importance. But, even in a commercial point of view, its value is very considerable. France, Holland, and Genoa had, for a lengthened period, a decided superiority in this department. The finest and best paper being made of linen rags, its quality may be supposed to depend, in a considerable degree, on the sort of linen usually worn in the country where it is manufactured; and this circumstance is said to account for the greater whiteness of the Dutch and Belgian papers, as compared with those of the French and Italians, and still more the Germans. The rags used in the manufacture of writing paper in Great Britain, are collected at home; but those used in the manufacture of the best printing paper are imported, principally, from Italy, Hamburg, and the Austrian States, by way of Trieste.—(See RAOS.) We believe, however, that it was owing rather to the want of skill, than, as has sometimes been supposed, to the inferior quality of the linen of this country, that the manufacture of paper was not carried on with much success in England till a comparatively recent period. During the 17th century, most part of our supply was imported from the Continent, especially from France. The manufacture is said to have been considerably improved by the French Refugees who fled to this country in 1685. But it is distinctly stated in *The British Merchant* (vol. ii. p. 266.), that hardly any sort of paper, except brown, was made here previously to the Revolution. In 1680, however, the manufacture of white paper was attempted; and within a few years, most branches were much improved. In 1721, it is supposed that there were about 300,000 reams of paper annually produced in Great Britain, which was equal to about two thirds of the whole consumption. In 1783, the value of the paper annually manufactured was estimated at 780,000*l.* At present, besides making a sufficient quantity of most sorts of paper for our own use, we annually export about 100,000*l.* worth of books. We still, however, continue to import certain descriptions of paper for engraving from France, and a small supply of paper hangings. The duty on both amounts to about 2,800*l.* a year.

In 1813, Dr. Colquhoun estimated the value of paper annually produced in Great Britain at 2,000,000*l.*; but Mr. Stevenson, an incomparably better authority upon such subjects, estimated it at only half this sum. From information obtained from those engaged in the trade, we incline to think that the total annual value of the paper manufacture in the United Kingdom, exclusive of the duty, may at present amount to about 1,200,000*l.* or 1,300,000*l.* There are about 700 paper-mills in England, and from 70 to 80 in Scotland. The number in Ireland is but inconsiderable. Of these mills, we believe very few have lately been employed. About 27,000 individuals are supposed to be directly engaged in the trade; and, besides the workmen employed in the mills, the paper manufacture creates a considerable demand for the labour of millwrights, machinists, smiths, carpenters, iron and brass founders, wire-workers, woollen manufacturers, and others, in the machinery and apparatus of the mills. Some parts of these are very powerful, and subject to severe strain; and other parts are complicated and delicate, and require continual renovation. Owing to this, the manufacture is much greater in importance, as a source of employment, than might at first be supposed, or than it would seem to be considered by government, who have loaded it with an excise duty amounting to more than *three times as much as the total wages of the work-people employed!*

The modern discoveries in chemical science have not only materially facilitated the manufacture, but have greatly enlarged the supply of materials from which paper may be made. Until within these few years, the sweepings of cotton mills, owing to the grease and dirt with which they are mixed up, were of no value whatever, except as manure. But means having been discovered of rendering them white, they are now made into very good paper; and the neighbourhood of Manchester has, in consequence, become a principal seat of the manufacture.

During the present century, so remarkable for improvements in the arts, this manufacture has been signally promoted, notwithstanding the excise regulations, by the application of machinery to the conversion of pulp into paper. The first idea of this originated in France: a model of the machinery was brought to this country by a M. Didot, which, though very far from giving assurance of success, was yet sufficient to induce English capitalists and engineers, particularly Mr. Donkin, to follow up the scheme; and in the course of a few years they have brought it to a high degree of perfection. Mr. Dickinson, of Hertfordshire, one of the most intelligent mechanists and extensive paper manufacturers in England, has invented a machine of a different construction for the same purpose, and has also introduced various subsidiary improvements into the manufacture. The result is all but miraculous. By the agency of a great deal of complicated machinery, so admirably contrived as to produce the intended effect with unerring precision and in the very best manner, a process, which in the old system of paper-making occupied about *three weeks*, is performed in us many minutes! A continuous stream of fluid pulp is, within this brief space of time, and the short distance of 30 feet, not only made into paper, but actually dried, polished, and every separate sheet cut round the edges, and rendered completely ready for use! The paper manufactured by

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this wonderful combination of intelligence and power is, at once, moderate in price, and for most purposes superior in quality to that which was formerly made by hand. The sample before the reader, though not the finest that is made, will warrant what is now stated. Mr. Dickinson has very recently made an important improvement in the paper manufacture, on the principle of veneering in cabinet work. He makes two webs of paper, each by a separate process; and by laying them together while in an early stage, they are rendered inseparable by the pressure to which they are subjected. This paper is used in copperplate printing; and by adopting a peculiar method of preparing the pulp, and selecting a finer rag for the web which forms the face of the paper, it is much better calculated for taking a fine impression. This admirable invention has put nearly a total stop to the importation of French paper, which was formerly used in considerable quantities by copperplate printers.

Duty on Paper. Excise Regulations.—It is difficult to say whether the duty on paper, or the regulations under which that duty is collected, be the more objectionable. All writing, coloured, or wrapping paper, card-boards, and pasteboards, are denominated 1st class paper, and pay 3d. per lb. duty (2s. a cwt.); unless manufactured wholly of tarred ropes, without the tar being previously extracted, in which case the paper is denominated 2d class, and pays 1½d. per lb. (1s. a cwt.). Millboards and scale-boards, made of the same materials as 2d class paper, pay 2½d. per lb. (2½s. a cwt.) duty.

The duty on the various descriptions of 1st class paper varies from about 25 or 30 per cent. on the sheet, to about 200 per cent. on the coarsest! A duty so oppressive has led to the commission of very great frauds, which all the vigilance of the officers, and the endless multiplication of checks and penalties, have been unable to prevent; the real effect of such miserable devices being to injure the honest manufacturer, and to give those of a different character greater facilities for carrying on their fraudulent schemes.

But, laying out of view for a moment the oppressiveness of the duty, can any thing be more preposterously absurd, than to interdict the manufacturer of wrapping paper (for it is to him that the regulation applies) from using any other material than tarred ropes? If there must be a duty on paper, let it be assessed upon the finished article on an *ad valorem* principle; but do not let the plans and combinations of the manufacturer be interfered with. Were it not for the existing regulation, wrapping paper of equal strength and better appearance than what is now manufactured, might be made of much less costly materials. Since the peace, and the very general introduction of iron cables, tarred ropes have advanced considerably in price; but as the use of any other material whatever would occasion an increase of 14s. a cwt. of duty, advantage cannot be taken of this circumstance; so that the excise regulation, without putting one shilling into the pockets of government, obliges the public to pay an increased price for an inferior article! Neither is this its only effect: a good deal of the refuse thrown out in sorting rags, which might be used in the manufacture of coarse wrapping paper, is at present sold by the manufacturers for about 3s. a cwt.; while a good deal that might be used in the same way cannot be sold at all, but is absolutely lost. It is plain, therefore, that this regulation has a two-fold operation: first, in adding to the cost of wrapping paper, by compelling it to be made from a comparatively expensive article; and, secondly, in adding to the expense of fine paper, by preventing the refuse of the rags used in its manufacture from being beneficially employed.

The other regulations in the excise acts (43 Geo. 3. c. 20, and 42 Geo. 3. c. 94.) as to paper, are of a piece with that now brought under the reader's notice. Every step of the manufacture must be conducted under the surveillance of the excise; and the provisions as to entries, folding, weighing, sorting, labelling, removing, &c. are not only exceedingly numerous, but are in the last degree vexatious, at the same time that compliance with them is enforced under ruinous penalties. That this is not an exaggerated statement will be obvious from the following extracts from the statements of manufacturers, given in Mr. Poulett Thomson's admirable speech on the taxation of the empire, 26th of March, 1820.

"We are bound," says a manufacturer on whose accuracy and honour I (Mr. P. Thomson) can rely, "to give 24 or 48 hours' notice (according to the distance the excisemen live), before we can change any paper, and to keep it in our mills for 24 hours afterwards before we send it to market, unless it has been reviewed by the supervisor; to have the different rooms in our manufactories lettered; to have our engines, vats, chests, and presses numbered; and labels pasted on each ream: should we lose one label, the penalty is 200l. I generally write a request for 500 labels to the excise at one time; and should any person get into my mill, and steal or destroy them, the penalty would be 100,000l. I believe there is not any kind of paper pays more than 20s. per ream duty. If the penalty were 40s. it would be quite sufficient to answer every purpose for the security of the revenue. We are obliged, also, to take out a yearly licence; and a mill with 1 vat pays as much as one that has 10."

Another says,—"It is no slight aggravation of the evil, that the laws are so scattered and confused as to render it almost impossible for any body to have a knowledge of them; and frequently, what is a great annoyance to an honest man, is no check to a rogue. It is true, the excise laws are seldom, or perhaps never, acted upon to their utmost rigour; but still they confer almost unlimited power on those who have the administering of them, over the property of all who come under their influence; and I am persuaded that they never could have existed, if they had effected the whole of the community."

It is singular that nothing should hitherto have been done to amend regulations so justly complained of. In point of fact, they are good for nothing but the oppression of the trade. It has not been shown that their maintenance is indispensable to enable the duty to be assessed and collected; but if such be the case, it is, of itself, a sufficient ground for the repeal of the duty. Our condition is not, fortunately, such as to require that one of the most important manufactures carried on in the empire should be subjected to a system of oppressive regulations for the sake of 700,000l. a year.

But, though it were possible to assess and collect the duty so as to prevent fraud, without interfering with the manufacture, we should very much doubt, considering the purposes to which paper is applied, the policy of subjecting it to any duty whatever. Printers, stationers, bookbinders, type-founders, artists, copperplate and lithographic printers, card-makers, paper-stainers and paper-hangers, &c. are all injured by the duty on paper. But the greatest evil of all is its influence in increasing the price, and hindering the publication of books. "This places a great obstacle in the way of the progress of knowledge, of useful and necessary arts, and of sober, industrious habits. Books carry the production of the human mind over the whole world, and may be truly called the raw materials of every kind of science and art, and of all social improvement."—(See the admirable work of Sir H. Paollet, on *Financial Reform*, 3d ed. p. 30.)

At all events, the existing duties, varying as they do from 30 to 200 per cent. *ad valorem*, are quite exorbitant; nor can there be a doubt that they would be more productive were they adequately reduced, and assessed on reasonable principles. But, as we have shown in the art. Books, it is not possible to lay a duty on the paper intended to be used in printing, without committing injustice. No one can foresee, with any thing approaching to certainty, whether a new book, or even a new edition of an old book, will sell; and the fact is, that one third of the books, and nineteen twentieths of the pam-

phlets published, do not pay their expenses. Now, we ask whether, under such circumstances, any thing can be more obviously unjust, more utterly subversive of every fair principle, than the imposition of the same heavy taxes upon all publications,—upon those that do not sell, as well as upon those that do? Upon a successful work, the duty may only be a reasonable deduction from the profits of the author and publisher; but when (as is the case with 1 out of 3 books, and 19 out of 20 pamphlets) the work does not sell, there are no profits from which to defray the duty, which has, of course, to be paid entirely out of the capital of the author or publisher! Such is the encouragement given to literature, such the facilities afforded to the diffusion of useful information, by the popular government of England! All other businesses meet with very different treatment. Dealers in gin or brandy, for example, may lodge their goods in bonded warehouses, and are not obliged to pay any duty upon them until they are sold for home consumption; but such privilege is denied to the bookseller, though the article in which he deals be a thousand times more capricious. He must pay the duty on the whole impression of every book, before bringing a single copy of it to market; so that he not infrequently pays duty upon 1,000 volumes, though unable to sell above 150 or 200, except as waste paper! Even this is not the whole injury done him; for upon an advertisement announcing the sale of a 6d. pamphlet, as heavy a duty is charged as if it announced the sale of an estate worth 100,000*l*.

There are but two ways of putting an end to this scandalous injustice; viz. either by entirely repealing the paper duty, or by putting publishers under the surveillance of the excise, and assessing the duty on works according to the number sold at the publication price. The former would be the simple method; but if the state of the finances will not allow of the sacrifice of the paper duty, there are no insuperable difficulties in the way of the latter alternative. And were it adopted, and the duties reduced and simplified, justice would be done to authors and publishers, and a very great stimulus given to the paper manufacture, without any loss of revenue.

An Account of the Quantities of the different Sorts of Paper charged with Duties in each of the 2 Years ended the 5th of January, 1835; the Rates of Duty on such Paper; the Gross and Net Produce of the Duties; the Drawbacks on Paper exported, and the Cost per Cent. at which the Net Revenue is collected, separating the Accounts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Quantities charged with Duty.																				
	First Class Paper.		Sec'd Class Paper.		Millboard, Glazed Paper, &c.		Pasteboard.		Gross Produce.			Net Produce.			Drawbacks on Paper exported.		Allowances to the Universities, King's Arms, &c.			
	Lbs.	d.	Lbs.	d.	Cwt.	q.	Cwt.	q.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
England	39,520,561	3	19,908,475	4	1,887,288	28	9,018,233	23	620,508	10	9	1,539	4	8	21,832	0	9	14,137	6	4
Scotland	7,130,121	-	1,468,362	-	4,236	21	1,718,928	14	106,568	15	5	98,589	17	6	6,513	3	11	1,465	13	3
Ireland	1,287,344	-	566,972	-	314	-	50	35	20,037	8	8	18,730	17	2	1,123	5	0	193	4	1
Year ended 5th Jan. 1831.	47,938,026	-	14,943,804	-	84,070	-	15,908	-	747,114	14	5	701,849	19	7	29,468	9	1	15,796	3	1
England	38,629,254	3	13,268,737	11	1,788,288	28	8,778,233	23	607,452	8	8	571,040	9	4	22,414	12	6	13,997	4	11
Scotland	6,775,032	-	1,579,478	-	3,876	21	1,518,233	14	101,963	12	3	92,833	5	9	7,031	10	3	2,618	14	3
Ireland	1,302,185	-	469,642	-	252	-	20	39	19,506	15	5	18,514	3	5	879	19	10	112	11	1
Year ended 5th Jan. 1832.	46,706,471	-	15,317,857	-	30,015	-	14,193	-	723,952	16	5	882,707	18	6	30,625	16	0	16,128	10	1
England	40,492,131	3	13,457,233	11	1,573,288	28	8,887,233	23	649,238	6	0	591,669	10	11	23,290	3	5	13,978	11	3
Scotland	7,203,033	-	1,803,745	-	4,031	21	1,819,233	14	108,391	9	0	99,778	2	7	6,069	12	8	2,484	0	3
Ireland	1,709,222	-	470,081	-	470	-	25	14	34,834	8	11	34,395	11	10	383	1	4	55	15	9
Year ended 5th Jan. 1833.	49,404,406	-	15,531,060	-	28,225	-	15,148	-	763,104	8	11	715,743	5	4	31,741	17	5	15,819	1	1

Note.—The cost per cent. at which the duty on paper is collected, cannot be stated with any degree of accuracy, the officers being employed in charging excise duties generally; but the sum which would probably be saved to the revenue, under the head of "Salaries to Officers," if the duties on paper should be repealed, may be estimated at 5,500*l*; and for stationery supplied by the revenues for purposes connected with the paper duties, a further saving of 750*l*., making altogether 6,250*l*., which is about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the net revenue of the last year.

(In the edition of this Supplement issued in October, 1835, we stated, "The Commissioners of Excise Inquiry have made a very important suggestion with respect to the duty on paper. They recommend that the existing distinction between first class and second class paper should be put an end to; and that a duty of 1*½*d. per lb. be charged indiscriminately on all descriptions of paper. Were this recommendation adopted, a half would be deducted from the duty now charged on all paper used for writing and printing; and the manufacturer of inferior or wrapping paper, would be allowed to make use of whatever materials he pleased. This judicious suggestion will, no doubt, be adopted. The stimulus to consumption that would be given by the fall in the price of paper consequent to a reduction of this sort, makes it abundantly certain that the revenue would lose little or nothing by the change; at the same time that the manufacturer would be relieved from several vexatious regulations, and that the gross injustice inflicted on authors and publishers by the paper duties (see vol. i. p. 197.) would be materially mitigated. To suppose that, under such circumstances, the duty should not be reduced, would be to suppose that government was not anxious to encourage, but to discourage, the manufacture; and that it preferred dealing unjustly by authors and publishers!"—(See 14th Report of Commissioners of Excise Inquiry.)

We are glad to be able to say, that we have not been disappointed in this anticipation. The duty on all writing and printing paper has been reduced a half or from 3*d*. to 1*½*d. per lb., which is now the rate charged on all paper, millboard, pasteboard, &c. The oppressive

duty of 1*½*d. the square ordinary duty on such a measure, in reduction. The abolition of such a larger class of productive, not only of cleanliness.—Sup

PARCEL, a term goods. In this latter single lot, are denominated PARCELS, BILLS, PARCHEMENT (of the skin of sheep or goats covering books, &c. exported, the home country where it is said

PARTIAL LOSS. PARTNERSHIP, loss or undertaking in corresponding share of

The term partnership personally conduct the business conducted by them; the latter having

(See COMPANIES) The advantages of carried on without a capital sufficient to un-

in any of its details, of what it might be for

them to be without required in prosecuting derive all the assistance each partner usually con-

each has the most pow- indeed, to be denied, the consequences. The bound by the acts of o-

may detail very sear: this is not an evil of f- and public point of vi-

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in every respect to be necessary to constitute agreement, or by a m-

The contract of copy- space of time the po- proportion in whic- ness is to be conducte- partnership, together

For case. To constitute a pa- and the true criterion: virtual making the ac- the premium or pro- the accidents of trad- der. The mere part- tion in the losses, co-

duty of 13d. the square yard, charged on paper, when printed or stained, over and above the ordinary duty on such paper, has been wholly repealed. The effect of this wise and judicious measure, in reducing the price of paper used in printing, has already been very sensibly felt. The abolition of the discriminating duty on stained or printed paper promises, also, to be of very material importance. The reduction of price it has occasioned, has enabled a much larger class of persons to get their apartments papered; and it will in this way be productive, not only of a great additional demand for paper, but of a great increase of comfort and cleanliness.—*Sup.*)

PARCEL, a term indifferently applied to small packages of wares, and to large lots of goods. In this latter sense, 20 hogsheads of sugar or more, if bought at one price, or in a single lot, are denominated "a parcel of sugar."

PARCELS, BILL OF, an account of the items composing a parcel.
PARCHMENT (Ger. *Pergament*; Fr. *Parchemin*; It. *Cartapeccora*; Sp. *Pergamino*), the skin of sheep or goats prepared in such a manner as to render it proper for writing upon, covering books, &c. It is an important article in French commerce; besides being largely exported, the home consumption is very considerable. The name is derived from Pergamus, the city where it is said to have been first manufactured.

PARTIAL LOSS. See INSURANCE (MARINE).
PARTNERSHIP, the association of two or more individuals for carrying on some business or undertaking in common; each deriving a certain share of the profits, and bearing a corresponding share of the loss arising therefrom.

The term partnership is usually applied to those smaller associations in which the partners personally conduct their joint affairs: the term company being applied to those great associations conducted by directors and servants appointed by the body of the partners to act for them; the latter having no direct concern in the management of the affairs of the company. —(See COMPANIES)

The advantages of partnerships are obvious. Many businesses could not be successfully carried on without a larger command of capital than usually belongs to an individual; and most of them require the combination of various species of talent. An individual may have capital sufficient to undertake a particular business; but he may not be thoroughly versed in any of its details, or he may be familiar with certain parts of it and not with others; so that it might be for his advantage to assume one or more individuals as his partners, supposing them to be without capital, provided they possessed the skill and other qualifications required in prosecuting the business. Associations of this sort enable capital and talent to derive all the assistance that each is capable of lending to the other. And as the gains of each partner usually consist of a certain proportion of the total profits made by the company, each has the most powerful motive to exert himself for the benefit of the concern. It is not, indeed, to be denied, that associations of this sort are occasionally productive of mischievous consequences. The public interest requires that the whole partners in a firm should be bound by the acts of any one of their number; so that the folly or fraud of a single partner may detail very serious consequences upon those associated with him. Generally, however, this is not an evil of frequent occurrence; and there can be no question that, both in a private and public point of view, partnerships are highly beneficial.

To enter into any thing like a full discussion of the law of partnership would very far exceed our limits. We shall, therefore, merely state a few of those leading principles with respect to it, as to which it is of importance that mercantile men, and the public generally, should be well acquainted.

Formation of Partnerships.—The mere consent of the partners, fixed and certified by acts or contracts, is quite sufficient to constitute a private copartnership, so that if two or more merchants, or other persons, join together in trade, or in any sort of business, with a mutual, though it may be unequal, participation in the profit and loss of the concern, they are in every respect to be considered as partners. No particular form or words of proceeding is necessary to constitute a partnership. It may be entered into either by an express written agreement, or by a merely verbal one. The former ought in almost all cases to be preferred. The contract of copartnership should state the parties to it, the business to be carried on, the space of time the partnership is to continue, the capital each is to bring into the business, the proportion in which the profit and loss are to be divided, the manner in which the business is to be conducted, the mode agreed upon for settling accounts at the dissolution of the partnership, together with the special covenants adapted to the circumstances of each particular case.

To constitute a partnership, there must be a participation in uncertain profits and losses; and the true criterion to determine, when money is advanced to a trader, whether the individual making the advance is to be looked upon as a partner or not, is to ascertain whether the premium or profit be certain and defined, or casual, indefinite, and depending upon the accidents of trade. In the former case he is a lender merely; in the latter he is a partner. The mere participation in the profits of any business or adventure, without a participation in the losses, constitutes a partnership, so far as to render the individual so participating

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partnership is formed for a single dealing or transaction, the moment that is completed it is at an end. Partnerships may also be dissolved by death, agreement, bankruptcy, outlawry, &c. A court of equity will interfere to dissolve a partnership, in cases where a partner so misconducts himself as to be injurious to the firm, or to defeat the object for which the partnership was formed; or when a partner becomes insane, or is in such a state of mind as to render him permanently incapable of transacting the peculiar business of the firm; or where the partnership is formed for an impracticable purpose. Indeed, in all cases, where even a partnership may be dissolved without the interference of a court of equity, it may be most prudent, if the dissolution be opposed by one of the partners, to file a bill, praying a dissolution and account, and an injunction against using the partnership name.

When a partnership is dissolved by agreement, or one of the partners withdraws from it, public notice of the dissolution must be given in the *London Gazette*; and a specific intimation of the circumstance must be sent to ALL individuals accustomed to deal with the firm. Where such intimation has not been sent, the individual withdrawing from the firm may be made liable to third parties after he has ceased to have any thing to do with it. A dormant partner, whose name has never been announced, may withdraw from a firm without making the dissolution of partnership publicly known.

When the joint debts of the firm are paid, and the property duly distributed among the partners, the dissolution may be said, in a general sense, to be accomplished. If any one of the firm be guilty of a breach of duty, in misapplying the effects before the concern is finally wound up, the proper course is to apply to the Court of Chancery to appoint a manager.

Within a reasonable time after the death of one partner, the survivors must account to the representatives of the deceased; and if not willing to do so, a court of equity will compel them. In taking partnership accounts at the death of a partner, they must commence with the last stated account; or, if there be none such, with the commencement of the partnership; and they must end with the state of the stock at the time of the partner's death, and the proceeds thereof until it be got in.

No notice is necessary to third parties of the death of a partner; the partnership is dissolved, and all liabilities for subsequent acts cease. The surviving parties are to be sued alone for the partnership liabilities and obligations, for which they are liable to the full extent. But they are not liable for the separate debts of the deceased partner, unless, after payment of all the joint debts, they have a surplus of the partnership effects in their hands.

Upon a dissolution by death, if the joint effects be insufficient to pay the partnership debts, the separate estate of the deceased partner, if he have any, is liable for the deficiency.

The statements now made will, probably, be sufficient to give our readers a tolerably distinct notion of the formation of partnerships; and of the more important rights, duties, liabilities, &c. arising out of such institutions. Those who wish to go deeper into the subject, may consult the treatises of *Watson and Montague on the Law of Partnership*; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. pp. 225—269.; *Woolrych on Commercial Law*, pp. 298—317, &c.

[See *Ken's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 43.—*Am. Ed.*]

PASSENGERS, in commercial navigation, are individuals conveyed for hire from one place to another on board ship. **Passage ships** are those peculiarly appropriated to the conveyance of passengers.

Regulations as to the Conveyance of Passengers.—The conveyance of passengers between Great Britain and Ireland is regulated by the act 4 Geo. 4. c. 68, which provides, that no vessel employed in the conveyance of passengers, of less than 200 tons burden, shall carry more than 20 persons as passengers, unless a license to that effect has been obtained from the Custom-house. A licensed vessel is not to take, exclusive of the crew, more than 5 adult persons, or 10 children under 14, or 15 children under 7 years of age, for every 4 tons burden; and if such vessel be partly laden with goods or wares, not to take more than the above proportion of passengers for every 4 tons that remain unladen, namely for carrying more than twenty without license, 50L; and for a licensed vessel carrying more than the above proportion for each 4 tons burden, 5L for each passenger. Merchant vessels of not more than 100 tons, not to carry more than 10 persons, or of not more than 200 tons, not more than 15 persons; under a penalty of 5L each person.

The conveyance of passengers to North America is regulated by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 21. This act provides, that no ship shall sail from the United Kingdom for any port or place in His Majesty's possessions on the continent or islands of North America, with more than three persons on board for every ton of the registered burden of such ship, the master and crew being included; and no ship to carry passengers, unless of the height of 5½ feet, at least, between decks: 2 children under 14, or 3 under 9, or 1 child under 12 months with its mother, to be reckoned as one person. Good and wholesome provisions to be provided, at the rate of 50 gallons of pure water for every person on board, and 50lbs. of bread, biscuit, oatmeal, or bread-stuffs for every passenger. Ships that have their full complement of passengers are prohibited from carrying any part of their cargo or stores between decks. Before starting out, the master is to deliver to the collector a list of the passengers, specifying as accurately as may be their names, ages, professions or occupations, and the name of the port or place at which the ship is contracted to be landed. Masters of ships compelling passengers to land at any other place than that agreed upon, shall forfeit to every such passenger so landed a sum of 20L. Masters who carry a greater number of passengers than allowed by law, or do not provide the requisite quantity of water and provisions, or stow them or any part of the cargo between decks, or furnish false bills to the collector, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour. A bond for 1,000L, with one good and sufficient surety, shall be given by the master of every ship clearing out for British North America with passengers on board, that such ship is seaworthy, and that all and every the rules and regulations of this act shall be well and truly performed. Such bond may be without a stamp. This act does not extend to Post-office ships, nor to the Bahama Islands, nor to the West Indies.

It is enacted by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 47., that the master of any packet or vessel employed in carrying passengers from one part of the United Kingdom to another is to be licensed by the commissioners of excise to retail foreign wine, strong beer, cider, perry, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. Such licence to be annually renewed, and to be transferable by endorsement. Duty to be paid by the owners on obtaining such a licence, &c. Penalty for selling wines, &c. without a licence, for every offence, &c.

It is enacted by 9 Geo. 4. c. 76., that every steam vessel which is of the registered tonnage of 100 tons, shall be deemed to be a vessel of 300 tons at least.

The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 115., which regulated the conveyance of passengers to foreign parts, was repealed by 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 19.

In some respects, passengers may be considered as a portion of the crew. They may be called on by the master or commander of the ship, in case of imminent danger either from tempest or enemies, to lend their assistance for the general safety; and in the event of their declining, may be punished for disobedience. This principle has been recognised in several cases; but, as the authority arises out of the necessity of the case, it must be exercised strictly within the limits of that necessity.—(*Boyce v. Bacliffe*, 1 Campbell, 58.) A passenger is not, however, bound to remain on board the ship in the hour of danger, but may quit it if he have an opportunity; and he is not required to take upon himself any responsibility as to the conduct of the ship. If he incur any responsibility, and perform extraordinary services in relieving a vessel in distress, he is entitled to a corresponding reward. The goods of passengers contribute to a general average.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 10.)

Return of the Number of Persons who have emigrated from the United Kingdom to any of the Colonies of Great Britain in each Year since 1820, and to the United States of America since 1825; distinguishing the Colonies to which they have emigrated.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 650. Sess. 1830, and No. 696. Sess. 1833.)

Years.	British North America Colonies.	British West Indies.	Cape of Good Hope.	New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River.	United States.
	No. of Persons.	No. of Persons.	No. of Persons.	No. of Persons.	No. of Persons.
1821	12,470	1,772	404	320	
1822	11,282	1,423	192	875	
1823	8,133	1,911	184	543	
1824	7,211	1,353	119	780	
1825	8,741	1,082	114	485	5,531
1826	12,618	1,913	110	903	7,093
1827	12,618	1,156	114	715	14,506
1828	12,084	1,211	135	1,056	12,817
1829	13,307	1,251	197	2,016	15,673
1830	30,574	-	204	1,212	24,887
1831	58,067	-	114	1,561	23,418
1832	66,330	-	196	3,733	32,572

The foregoing statement, founded upon special returns transmitted from the various ports of the United Kingdom by the local officers of customs, exhibits the number of persons of both sexes, and of all ages, who have emigrated to the colonies in each of the last 10 years, as far as the same can be ascertained. The officers report that they have not the means of distinguishing males from females, or adults from children, in these returns; and in some cases they state that the distinction cannot be drawn with accuracy between emigrants and passengers of other descriptions.

For the regulations as to the landing of passengers in New York, see New York.

PATENT, a privilege from the Crown granted by letters patent (whence the name), conveying to the individual or individuals specified therein, the sole right to make, use, or dispose of some new invention or discovery, for a certain specified period.

The power to grant patents seems to exist at common law; but it is limited and defined by the famous statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 3., which enacts, "That any declaration before-mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent or grants of privilege for the term of 14 years or under, thereafter to be made, of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm, to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law, nor mischievous to the state, by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient. The said 14 years to be accounted from the date of the first letters patent, or grant of such privilege therewith made; but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if that act had never been made, nor none other."

Policy of Patents.—The law with respect to patents is unavoidably encumbered with several difficulties. The expediency of granting patents has been disputed; though, as would seem, without any sufficient reason. Were they refused, the inducement to new discoveries would, in many cases, be very much weakened; at the same time that it would plainly be for the interest of every one who made a discovery, to endeavour, if possible, to conceal it. And notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of concealment, they are not insuperable; and it is believed that several important inventions have been lost from their secret dying with their authors. On the other hand, it is not easy to decide as to the term for which the patent, or exclusive privilege, should be granted. Some have proposed that it should be made perpetual; but this would be a very great obstacle to the progress of improvement, and would lead to the most pernicious results. Perhaps the term of 14 years to which the duration of a patent is limited in England, is as proper a one as could be suggested. It may be too short for some inventions, and too long for others; but, on the whole, it seems a pretty fair average.

Specification.—Previously to the reign of Queen Anne, it was customary to grant patents

without any condition was then introduced, by an instrument describe and ascertain performed, and also rally a month), the shall utterly cease an invention from being profit by it.

Mode of Granting the Crown, setting to gain discovery, which that he is the first who is separately attain their projects the inventions of two It would seem, that stated in applications cation of mechanical knowledge is not deemed to what patents should be no responsibility parchment, indictment were established. All enrolled.

Considering the number that have been have given rise?

Expense of Patent Ireland, if it be interest stamps, fees, &c. is invention, the opposition it may be estimated at his valuable evidence

Conditions as to Patent patent; if it can be shown utility, it will be void. "by the hands of man."—nor capable of being so, and which, till applied to inventors, be applied to words of Lord Tenterden by man from the matter practically his art and skill had been ruled that "having suggested that "to be carried on by knowledge producing some other known been adopted.

A patent for a machine different parts is new, no specification must clearly explain) and not lay claim to

A patent may be granted condition or improvement, the patent include the give no right to the thing

A void patent may be previously practised in a A patent is void: if it be The specification must be exactly. The terms need not what is unnecessary proceed state known to the will be void. Any inaccurate constitute the whole.

Copy.—It is not necessary who are afraid lest they which general; that is, enters it, whenever any a general terms. The entry mention is nearly complete preference may be given An injunction may be obtained the copyright acts. Patents have been some round that that term was

without any condition, except that they should be for really new inventions. But a condition was then introduced into all patents, and is still retained, declaring that if the inventor do not, by an instrument under his hand and seal, denominated a specification, *particularly describe* and ascertain the nature of his invention, and in what manner the same is to be performed, and also cause the same to be enrolled in Chancery within a certain time (generally a month), the letters patent, and all liberties and advantages whatever thereby granted, shall utterly cease and become void. This was a very judicious regulation. It secures the invention from being lost; and the moment the patent expires, every one is in a situation to profit by it.

Made of Granting a Patent.—Letters patent are obtained upon petition and affidavit to the Crown, setting forth, that the petitioner has, after great labour and expense, made a certain discovery, which he describes, and which he believes will be of great public utility, and that he is the first inventor. The petition is referred to the attorney or solicitor general, who is separately attended by the applicant and all competitors, if there be any. They explain their projects to him, and he decides on granting or withholding the patent. When the inventions of two or more conflicting applicants coincide, he rejects all the applications. It would seem, that to decide upon such difficult questions in mechanics as are often agitated in applications for patents, a familiar knowledge of the principles and practical application of mechanical science would be indispensable. But by the law, as it now stands, such knowledge is not deemed necessary. The legal officers of the Crown are the sole judges as to what patents should or should not be granted; their award is *final*, and they are subject to no responsibility, other than the common remedies against public officers by impeachment, indictment, &c.—none of which would be entertained, unless a corrupt motive were established. After approval by the law officers, the grant is made out, sealed, and enrolled.

Considering the authority under which patents are granted, can any one wonder at the number that have been overturned in the courts of justice? or at the litigation to which they have given rise?

Expense of Patents.—Separate patents have to be taken out for England, Scotland, and Ireland, if it be intended to secure the privilege in the three kingdoms. The expense of stamps, fees, &c. is in all cases very heavy. It varies according to the intricacy of the invention, the opposition (if any) to the patent being granted, &c. According to Mr. Farcy, it may be estimated at 120*l.* for England, 100*l.* for Scotland, and 125*l.* for Ireland.—(See his valuable evidence in the *Commons' Report on Patents*, p. 17.)

Conditions as to Patents.—The novelty and utility of the invention are essential to the validity of a patent; if it can be shown to have been in use previously to the grant of the patent, or to be of no utility, it will be void. It must also be for something vendible—something "material and useful made by the hands of man."—(*Lord Kenyon*, 8 T. R. 99.) A philosophical principle only, neither organized, nor capable of being so, is no ground for a patent; because it is an element and rudiment of science, and which, till applied to some new production from these elements, cannot, with justice to other inventors, be applied to the exclusive use of any one of them. In all patents there is required, in the words of Lord Tenterden, "something of a *corporeal* or *substantial* nature, something that can be made by man from the matters subjected to his art and skill, or at the least some *new mode of employing* practically his art and skill."—(*Godson on the Law of Patents*, p. 81.) Previously to Lord Tenterden, it had been ruled that a new process or method was not the subject of a patent. But his Lordship having suggested that "the word manufacture (in the statute) may, perhaps, extend to a *new process* to be carried on by known implements, or elements acting upon known substances, and ultimately producing some other known substance, &c."—(*Godson*, p. 83)—this principle of interpretation has now been adopted.

A patent for a machine, each part of which was in use before, but in which the combination of the different parts is new, and a new result is obtained, is valid. But, in order to its being valid, the specification must clearly express that it is in respect of such new combination or application, and of that only; and not lay claim to original invention in the use of the materials.

A patent may be granted for an addition to an old invention. But the patent must be confined to the addition or improvement, that the public may purchase it without being encumbered with other things. If the patent include the whole, it will be void; for the property in the addition or improvement: can we not right to the thing that has been improved.—(*Godson*, p. 71.)

A valid patent may be obtained for an invention, "*new in this realm*," though it may have been previously practised in a foreign country.

A patent is void, if it be for several distinct inventions, and any one of them fall of originality.

The specification must be prepared with *great care*. It should set forth the invention fully and completely. The terms used must be clear and unambiguous; no necessary description must be omitted, nor what is unnecessary be introduced; and the invention must be described in the *best and most improved state* known to the inventor. If any one of these conditions be not complied with, the patent will be void. Any inaccurate or defective statement, *were it even inserted through inadvertency*, will vitiate the whole.

Caveat.—It is not unusual for inventors who have not brought their inventions to perfection, and who are afraid lest they be anticipated by others, to lodge a caveat at the offices of the attorney and solicitor general; that is, an instrument by which notice is requested to be given to the person who enters it, whenever any application is made for a patent for a certain invention therein described in general terms. The entry of a caveat is, therefore, nothing more than giving information that an invention is nearly completed; so that, if any other person should apply for a patent for the same thing, the preference may be given to him who entered it.

An injunction may be obtained for the infringement of a patent, in the same way as for a violation of the copyright acts.

Patents have been sometimes extended by act of parliament beyond the term of 14 years, on the ground that that term was too short properly to reward the inventor.

United States.	
No. of Patents.	
5,551	
7,453	
14,526	
19,517	
15,678	
23,887	
23,415	
24,271	

Account of the Number of Patents granted in the Eight Years ending with 1826.			
1821	104	1824	151
1822	113	1825	248
1823	138	1826	131

Total number of patents in force in May, 1829, 1,855.

The reader will find a great deal of curious and instructive information with respect to patents, in the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons* on that subject (No. 332, Sess. 1829), particularly in the evidence and papers laid before the Committee by Mr. Farey. The treatise on the *Law of Patents and Copyrights*, by Mr. Godson, is clear and able.

(The reader will find in the article *PATENTS*, in the *Dictionary*, some remarks on the grounds on which they are granted, and on the difficulty of legislating on the subject. The object in giving a patent is twofold. In the first place, it is intended to stimulate and reward invention; and, in the second place, it is intended to prevent an invention from being lost, by obliging the inventor, when he takes out a patent, to describe it accurately. The difficulty in legislating on the subject is to hinder real *bona fide* inventors from being harassed by unfounded actions, and at the same time to prevent quacks and pretenders from appropriating discoveries already made, to the injury of the public. To be useful, any law on such a subject must be drawn up with great care and circumspection. But such certainly has not been the case with the act as to patents (5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 77), passed in 1833, of which a copious abstract is subjoined. It is altogether one of the crudest and most bungling attempts at legislation that has ever come under our notice. It gives to the patentee a right to make constant alterations in his specification; so that it will be next to impossible to learn from it what the invention really is for which the patent is granted. Under the old law, a patentee, who made any material improvements on his invention, was entitled to get a new patent for the improvements, so that no injury was done him by obliging him to make his specification quite accurate, at the same time that the public interests were secured. But every one naturally wishes to conceal his inventions; and, instead of counteracting this principle, the new law really offers a bonus on inaccurate specifications, by enabling the patentee to disclaim some parts and to amend others; and he may do this over and over again, provided he obtain leave from the attorney or solicitor general, to whose "good pleasure" the most important interests would thus seem to be left! It is not easy to imagine any thing more absurd. But we have little doubt, that the inconveniences that will result from it will lead to its speedy repeal or amendment. Some of the other clauses seem also to be highly questionable.

Any person having obtained Letters Patent for any Invention may enter a Disclaimer.—Any person who hath obtained or shall hereafter obtain letters patent, for the sole making, exercising, &c. of any invention, may, if he think fit, enter with the clerk of the patents of England, Scotland, or Ireland, respectively, as the case may be, having first obtained the leave of the attorney-general, or solicitor-general in case of an English patent, of the lord advocate or solicitor-general of Scotland in the case of a Scotch patent, or of the attorney-general or solicitor-general for Ireland in the case of an Irish patent, a disclaimer of any part of either the title of the invention or of the specification, stating the reason for such disclaimer, or may, with such leave as aforesaid, enter a memorandum of any alteration in the said title or specification, not being such disclaimer or such alteration as shall extend the exclusive right granted by the said letters patent; and such disclaimer or memorandum of alteration, being filed by the said clerk of the patents, and enrolled with the specification, shall be taken to be part of such letters patent or such specification in all courts whatever: provided that any person may enter a caveat, or caveats are now entered, against such disclaimer or alteration; which caveat shall give the party entering a right to have notice of the application being heard by the attorney-general, solicitor-general or lord advocate respectively; provided also, that no such disclaimer or alteration shall be receivable in evidence in any action or suit (except in any proceeding by *scire facias*) pending at the time when it was enrolled, but in every such action or suit the original title and specification alone shall be given in evidence, and taken to be the title and specification of the invention for which the letters patent have been granted; provided also, that it shall be lawful for the attorney-general, solicitor-general or lord advocate, before granting such fiat, to require the party applying for the same to advertise his disclaimer or alteration, as to the said attorney-general, &c. shall seem right, and shall, if he require such advertisement, certify in his fiat that the same has been duly made.—(21.)

Mode of Proceeding where Patentee is proved not to be the real Inventor.—If in any suit or action it shall be proved or found by the verdict of a jury that a person who has obtained letters patent for any invention, or supposed invention, was not the first inventor thereof, or of some part thereof, by reason of some other person or persons having invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, or if such patentee or his assigns shall discover that some other person had, unknown to such patentee, invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, it shall be lawful for such patentee or his assigns to petition II. M. in council to confirm the said letters patent or to grant new letters patent, the matter of which petition shall be heard before the judicial committee of the privy council; and such committee, upon examining the said matter, and being satisfied that such patentee believed himself to be the first and original inventor, and being satisfied that such invention or part thereof had not been publicly and generally used before the date of such first letters patent, may report to II. M. their opinion that the prayer of such petition ought to be complied with, whereupon II. M. may, if he thinks fit, grant such prayer; and the said letters patent shall be available to give to such petitioner the sole right of using, making, or vending such invention; provided that any person opposing such petition shall be entitled to be heard before the said judicial committee; provided also, that any person party to any former suit or action touching such first letters patent, shall be entitled to have notice of such petition before presenting the same.—(22.)

If in any Action or Suit a Verdict pass for the Patentee, the Judge may certify, &c.—If any action at law or suit in equity shall be brought in respect of any alleged infringement of such letters patent heretofore or hereafter granted, or any *scire facias* to repeal such letters patent, and if a verdict pass for the patentee, or if a final decree or order be made for him, upon the merits of the suit, it shall be lawful for the judge who tried such action or certify on the record, or the judge who shall make such order to give a certificate under his hand, that the validity of the patent came in question before him, which record or certificate being given in evidence in any other suit or action touching such patent, if a verdict pass, or order be made, in favour of such patentee, he shall receive treble costs in such

or action, to be taxed order, or trying such *Mode of Proceeding* or shall hereafter obtain papers, and 3 times in any manufacture of a case be carried on no factory, or where he to apply to II. M. in council office; and if shall first be by him by his counsel and heard by their counsel further extension of H. M. is hereby authorized for a term of extension shall be the expiration of the *In case of Action, &c.* defendant on pleading patent the plaintiff shall at the trial of such action plaintiff at such trial, shall be lawful for the plaintiff or defendant whereof notice shall him shall seem fit.—(23.)

Costs in Actions for in taxing the costs the be certified by the judge has succeeded or failed the declaration, and *Penalty for using, &c.* or mould, cast, or making or selling of of any other person without leave in writing having been purchased license in writing of the words "letters patent" or import, with a patentee, he shall for debt, bill, &c. in any court, one half to II. M. herein contained shall in or in any way manner of which a patent before

[See *Kent's Com*

PATRAS, or P

tance of the Gulf variously estimated,

The port lies a little to heavy seas, particularly in a mole or quay, and any other part of Greece wool, skins, wax, &c. from sand and gravel, but, as the weight of heavier and stronger land; but here the currents from Patras a year, worth about 3

The value of the exports The imports at Patras colonial products; plate, ware, cordage, hemp, Malta, Venice, Leghorn quite impossible for Greece part.—

Shipping.—The arrivals at

Flag.	1830	
	Vessels.	Tons.
British	10	
Greek	254	
Roman	146	
Austrian	38	
Sardinian	10	
Turkish	2	
Napollitan	6	
Papal	3	
French	6	
Dutch	1	
Russian	8	
Others	4	

The *Thurif* establishments may be imported and or native flag. The reports

of action, to be taxed at three times the taxed costs, unless the Judge making such second or other order, or trying such second or other action, certify that he ought not to have treble costs.—(Q 3.)

Mode of Proceeding in case of Application for the Prolongation of the Term.—If any person who hath or shall hereafter obtain letters patent shall advertise in the London Gazette 3 times, and in 3 London papers, and 3 times in some country paper published in the town where or near to which he carried on any manufacture of any thing made according to his specification, or near to or in which he resides in case he carried on no such manufacture, or published in the county where he carries on such manufacture, or where he lives in case there shall not be any paper published in such town, that he intends to apply to H. M. in council for a prolongation of his term of sole using and vending his invention, and shall petition H. M. in council to that effect, it shall be lawful for any person to enter a caveat at the council office; and if H. M. refer such petition to the judicial committee of the privy council, and notice shall first be by him given to any person who has entered such caveat, the petitioner shall be heard by his counsel and witnesses to prove his case, and the persons entering caveat shall likewise be heard by their counsel and witnesses; whereupon the judicial committee may report to H. M. that a further extension of the term in the said letters patent shall be granted, not exceeding 7 years; and H. M. is hereby authorised and empowered, if he think fit, to grant new letters patent for the said invention for a term not exceeding 7 years after the expiration of the first term: provided that no such extension shall be granted if the application by petition be not made and prosecuted with effect before the expiration of the original term in such letters patent.—(Q 4.)

As case of Action, &c.—Notice to be given.—In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, the defendant on pleading thereto shall give to the plaintiff, and in any scire facias to repeal such letters patent the plaintiff shall file with his declaration a notice of any objections on which he means to rely at the trial of such action, and no objection shall be allowed to be made in behalf of such defendant or plaintiff at such trial, unless he prove the objections stated in such notice: provided always, that it shall be lawful for any judge at chambers, on summons served by such defendant or plaintiff on such plaintiff or defendant respectively to show cause why he should not be allowed to offer other objections whereof notice shall not have been given, to give leave to offer such objections, on such terms as to him shall seem fit.—(Q 5.)

Costs in Actions for infringing Letters Patent.—In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, in taxing the costs thereof regard shall be had to the part of such case proved at the trial, which shall be certified by the Judge, and the costs of each part of the case shall be given according as either party has succeeded or failed therein, regard being had to the notice of objections, as well as the counts in the declaration, and without regard to the general result of the trial.—(Q 6.)

Penalty for using, unauthorised, the Name of a Patente, &c.—If any person shall write, paint, or print, or mould, cast, or carve, or engrave or stamp upon, any thing made, used, or sold by him, for the sole making or selling of which he hath not obtained letters patent, the name or any imitation of the name of any other person who hath obtained letters patent, for the sole making and vending of such thing, without leave in writing of such patentee or his assigns, or if any person shall upon such thing, not having been purchased from the patentee or some person who purchased it from him, or not having the license in writing of such patentee or his assigns, write, paint, or otherwise mark the word "patent," the words "letters patent," or the words "by the king's patent," or any words of the like kind, meaning, or import, with a view of imitating or counterfeiting the stamp, mark, or other device of the patentee, he shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty of 50*l.*, to be recovered by action of debt, bill, &c. in any court of record at Westminster or in Ireland, or in the court of session in Scotland, one half to H. M. and the other to any person who shall sue for the same: provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to subject any person to any penalty in respect of stamping or in any way marking the word "patent" upon any thing made, for the sole making or vending of which a patent before obtained has expired.—(Q 7.)—*Sup.*

[See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 34.—*Am. Ed.*]

PATRAS, or PETRASSO, a sea-port in the N. W. corner of the Morea, near the entrance of the Gulf of Lepanto, in lat. 38° 14' 25" N., lon. 21° 46' 20" E. Population variously estimated, from 5,000 to 10,000.

The port lies a little to the northward of the town; but the part fronting it is unsafe, and exposed to heavy seas, particularly in winter. Vessels, therefore, go a little further up the gulf, where there is a mole or quay, and where they can lie close to the wharf. Patras has a more extensive trade than any other part of Greece. The principal exports are currants, oil, valonia, wine, raw silk, raw cotton, wool, skins, wax, &c. Of these, currants are by far the most important. The fruit is superior, and free from sand and gravel, than that of the Ionian Islands. They are shipped in casks of various sizes; but, as the weight of the cask is included in that of the fruit, it is said to be, for the most part, made heavier and stronger than necessary. Morea currants are preferred in most countries, except England; but here the currants of Zante are held in equal, or perhaps greater, estimation. The exports of currants from Patras, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, amounted to about 50,000 cwt. a year, worth about 33,000*l.* More than half the quantity shipped in 1830 and 1831 was for England. The value of the exports of valonia and oil may, together, amount to from 7,000*l.* to 10,000*l.* a year. The imports at Patras, as at the other Greek ports, consist principally of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; plain and printed cotton stuffs, woollen goods, salted fish, iron, tin plates, hardware, cordage, hemp, deals, &c. Imported articles are brought principally from the Ionian Islands, Malta, Venice, Leghorn, Marseilles, and Trieste; but, from the unsettled state of the country, it is quite impossible to form any accurate estimate of their amount, either as respects Patras, or any other Greek port:—

Shipping.—The arrivals at Patras in 1830 and 1831 have been

Flag.	1830.		1831.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	10	1,417	8	1,105
Greek	254	9,017	301	10,628
Franco	148	5,281	79	2,148
Austrian	36	3,757	40	7,541
Sardinian	10	469	4	620
Tuscan	2	188	1	97
Neapolitan	6	181	5	164
Papal	3	181	2	177
French	5	459	3	316
Barb.	1	130	1	170
Rouan	1	688	11	1,849
Uttman	4	481	3	355

Port Charges.—Foreign and Greek vessels pay as follows:—

	Greek.			Foreign.		
	Ph. L.	L. s. d.		Ph. L.	L. s. d.	
Anchorage	8	23	0	18	74	0
Port dues	0	5	10	0	9	0
Health office	0	0	0	0	0	0
Additional when cargo or ballast is landed or loaded	18	0	0	25	0	0
Total Greek	L. 0	18	6	Foreign	L. 1	9

The **Tarif** established by the government, in March, 1830, is in force, according to which all articles may be imported and exported on payment of the duties therein fixed, without distinction of foreign or native flag. The rate of duty is 10 per cent. *ad valorem* for imports, and 6 per cent. *ad valorem* for exports.

Money.—Since the revolution, the Greeks have established a system of coinage in imitation of that of France. The phoenix is a silver coin, that should contain 9-10ths of pure metal, and 1-10th of alloy, or 4.029 grammes of the former, and .448 do. of the latter, being worth about 81d. sterling. The lepta is a copper coin, being 1-100th part of the phoenix. But the silver coins are already in much disuse, that they have been refused even by the officers of government.

Weights and Measures.—The quintal is divided into 44 okes, or 132 lbs. Hence, 100 lbs. of Patras = 80 lbs. avoirdupois. Silk weight is 1-3rd heavier.

A sack of currants weighs 140 lbs. of the common weight, or about 123 lbs. avoirdupois.

The stero, corn measure, = $\frac{1}{2}$ Winch. bushels.

The long pic, or plik, used in measuring linens and woollens, = 27 English inches. The short pic, used in measuring silks, = 25 ditto.

We have derived these details, partly from the *Answers* made by the Consul at Patras to the *Circular Queries*; partly from the *Archives du Commerce*, tome ii. pp. 236-242; and partly from other sources.

Commerce of Greece.—Considering the favourable situation of Greece, the number and excellence of her ports, the hardy enterprising character of the people, and the progress they have already made in navigation, nothing seems to be required to insure her rapid advancement in commercial industry, but the establishment of good order and internal tranquillity. We trust that this *sine qua non* of prosperity will now be realised; and that the newly constituted government will be strong enough to curb the factions into which the population has been split, and to put down and punish every species of outrage. If they succeed in this, and abstain from all attempts, by prohibition or otherwise, to force manufactures and commerce, we have no doubt that the progress of Greece will be all that her most sanguine friends could wish. It appears from a report presented to the congress at Napoli, in January, 1832, that Greece was at that time possessed of 2,941 vessels of all sorts, of which 614 were of the 1st class, that is, of more than 150 tons burden. The value of the imports into Greece, in 1831, are estimated in the same document at about 1,100,000*l.* sterling. It must, however, be observed, that a large proportion of these imports is carried to Syra, which has now become an important *entrepôt*, merely that they may be sent at convenient opportunities to the Turkish provinces in Europe, Asia Minor, &c.—(See *Archives du Commerce*, tome ii. p. 239.)

It is deeply to be regretted, that Candia, or Crete, was not either added to the new kingdom of Greece, or made independent. We cannot help considering it as disgraceful to the Christian nations of Europe, that this famous island, where European civilisation first struck its roots, should be consigned to the barbarians by whom it is now laid waste. It is as well entitled to the favourable consideration of England, France, and Russia, as any part of Continental Greece; and we do hope that measures may yet be devised for rescuing it from the atrocious despotism by which it has been so long weighed down.—(See *GREECE*.)

PATTERNS, are specimens or samples of commodities, transmitted by manufacturers to their correspondents, or carried from town to town by travellers, in search of orders. Patterns, if not exceeding 1 ounce weight, shall be charged with only an additional penny of postage, provided they be sent under cover, open at the sides, and without any letter or writing, except the name of the person sending the same, the place of his abode, and the price of the article or articles.—(52 *Geo.* 3. c. 88.)

PAWNBROKERS AND PAWNBROKING. A pawnbroker is a species of banker, who advances money, at a certain rate of interest, upon security of goods deposited in his hands; having power to sell the goods, if the principal sum, and the interest thereon, be not paid within a specified time.

1. **Advantages and Disadvantages of Pawnbroking.**—The practice of impledging or pawning goods, in order to raise loans, is one that must necessarily always exist in civilized societies, and is, in many cases, productive of advantage to the parties. But it is a practice that is extremely liable to abuse. By far the largest proportion of the *bona fide* borrowers of money on pawn consist of the lowest and most indigent classes; and were the lenders not subjected to any species of regulation, advantage might be taken (as, indeed, it is frequently taken, in spite of every precaution) of their necessities, to subject them to the most grievous extortion. But, besides those whose wants compel them to resort to pawnbrokers, there is another class, who have recourse to them in order to get rid of the property they have unlawfully acquired. Not only, therefore, are pawnbrokers instrumental in relieving the pressing and urgent necessities of the poor, but they may also, even without intending it, become the most efficient allies of thieves and swindlers, by affording them ready and convenient outlets for the disposal of their ill-gotten gains. The policy of giving legislative protection to a business so liable to abuse, has been doubted by many. But though it were suppressed by law, it would always really exist. An individual possessed of property which he may neither be able nor willing to dispose of, may be reduced to a state of extreme difficulty; and in such case, what can be more convenient or advantageous for him than to get a loan upon a deposit of such property, under condition that if he repay the loan, and the interest upon it, within a certain period, the property will be returned? It is said, indeed, that the facilities of raising money in this way foster habits of imprudence; that the first resort for aid to a pawnbroker almost always leads to a second; and that it is impossible so to regulate the business, as to prevent the ignorant and the necessitous from being plundered. That this statement, though exaggerated, is to a certain extent true, no one can deny. On the other

hand, however, means of measuring the security of property to one of the must be born poor and uni great sacrifice less chance of by a private veniences, wit to no purpos property will money upon persons from property nor to abolish wh from abuse, by ignorant and of stolen prop

2. **Obligations.** Obligations indispensable be obliged to before selling in such a way that the excess and expenses pawnbrokers for making ad which he bec should at all to describe an

3. **Law as** have been nan enacted by th ed; and that within two ye fixed. This 89. contains th

Every person esse a loan, renewable year, for which, he shou and the stan sin, 2*l.* No per fines; but person 1 loan. All person the repayment of m less 3 per cent., to be if you may pledg owing 2*l.* 6*d.* late moor.

L	s	d
0	5	0
0	7	6
0	10	0
0	18	0
0	15	0
0	17	6
1	0	0
8	0	0
9	8	0

and for every sum of 5*l.* or more, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the first calendar month from the time of the pawn being made, and if the pawn is not repaid within that time, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the second month. When goods are put into pawn, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the first calendar month from the time of the pawn being made, and if the pawn is not repaid within that time, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the second month. When goods are put into pawn, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the first calendar month from the time of the pawn being made, and if the pawn is not repaid within that time, the pawnbroker shall be bound to receive the money for the same within 14 days after the expiration of the second month.

hand, however, the capacity of obtaining supplies on deposits of goods, by affording the means of meeting pressing exigencies, in so far tends to prevent crime, and to promote the security of property; and it would seem as if the desire to redeem property in pawn would be one of the most powerful motives to industry and economy. At the same time, too, it must be borne in mind, that it is not possible, do what you will, to prevent those who are poor and uneducated from borrowing; and that they must, in all cases, obtain loans at a great sacrifice, and be liable to be imposed upon. But the fair presumption is, that there is less chance of any improper advantage being taken of them by a licensed pawnbroker, than by a private and irresponsible individual. Although, however, the business had all the inconveniences, without any portion whatever of the good which really belongs to it, it would be no purpose to attempt its suppression. It is visionary to imagine that those who have property will submit to be reduced to the extremity of want, without endeavouring to raise money upon it. Any attempt to put down pawnbroking would merely drive respectable persons from the trade, and throw it entirely into the hands of those who have neither property nor character to lose. And hence the object of a wise legislature ought not to be to abolish what must always exist, but to endeavour, so far at least as is possible, to free it from abuse, by enacting such regulations as may appear to be best calculated to protect the ignorant and the unwary from becoming the prey of swindlers, and to facilitate the discovery of stolen property.

2. *Obligations under which Pawnbrokers should be placed.*—For this purpose it seems indispensable that the interest charged by pawnbrokers should be limited, that they should be obliged to give a receipt for the articles pledged, and to retain them a reasonable time before selling them; that the sale, when it does take place, should be by public auction, or in such a way as may give the articles the best chance for being sold at a fair price; and that the excess of price, if there be any, after deducting the amount advanced, and the interest and expenses of sale, should be paid over to the original owner of the goods. To prevent pawnbrokers from becoming the receivers of stolen goods, they should be liable to penalties for making advances to any individual unable to give a satisfactory account of the mode in which he became possessed of the property he is desirous to pawn; the officers of police should at all times have free access to their premises; and they should be obliged carefully to describe and advertise the property they offer for sale.

3. *Law as to Pawnbrokers.*—It may appear singular that pawnbrokers should hardly have been named in any legislative enactment till after the middle of last century. It was enacted by the 30 Geo. 2. c. 24., that a duplicate or receipt should be given for goods pawned; and that such as were pawned for any sum less than 10*l.* might be recovered any time within two years, on payment of the principal and interest; but the rate of interest was not fixed. This defect was supplied by the 25 Geo. 3. c. 48.; but the act 39 & 40 Geo. 3. c. 99. contains the latest and most complete regulations on the subject.

Every person exercising the trade of a pawnbroker must take out a license, renewable annually, 10 days at least before the end of the year, for which he shall pay, within the cities of London and Westminster, and the limits of the two petty parishes, 1*l.*; and everywhere else, 5*s.* 10*d.* No person shall keep more than 1 house by virtue of 1 license; but persons in partnership need only take out 1 license for 1 house. All persons receiving goods by way of pawn or pledge for the enjoyment of money lent thereon, at a higher rate of interest than 5 per cent., to be deemed pawnbrokers.

<i>L. s. d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>L. s. d.</i>	<i>s.</i>	per month.
10	0	0	0	1-2
0	7	6	0	0
0	10	0	0	0
0	18	0	0	3-4
0	15	0	0	3-4
0	0	0	0	4
8	0	0	0	and not exceeding
8	0	0	0	8

And for every sum exceeding 40*l.*, and not exceeding 10*l.*, at the rate of 5*l.* in the pound, by the calendar month, including the current month, and so on in proportion for any fractional sum.

Pawnbrokers are to give receipts in exchange. Persons applying to redeem goods pawned within 7 days after the first calendar month after the same shall have been pledged, may redeem the same without paying any thing for the first 7 days; and, upon applying before the expiration of 14 days of the second calendar month, shall be at liberty to redeem such goods, upon paying the price payable for 1 calendar month and the half of another; and in all cases where the parties are entitled, and applying as aforesaid, after the expiration of the first fourteen days, and before the expiration of the second month, the pawnbroker is allowed to take the interest of the whole second month and the same regulations and restrictions shall take place in every subsequent month. When goods are pawned for more than 5*l.*, the pawnbroker, before advancing the money, shall immediately enter in his books a description of the pawn, the money lent thereon, the day of the month and year, the name of the person pawning, and the name of the street, and number of the house, if the person be a lodger, and the letters H K, if a housekeeper; and also the name and abode of the owner of the property making such pledge; and if the money lent shall exceed 5*l.*, such entry shall be made within 4 hours after the goods shall have been pawned; and the pawnbroker shall, at the time of taking the pawn, give to the person so pawning a duplicate, corresponding with the entry in the book, which the party pawning

shall take in all cases; and the pawnbroker shall not receive any pledge, unless the party so pawning shall receive such duplicate.

Rates payable for Duplicates.

	<i>L. s. d.</i>
If under 5 <i>l.</i>	0 0 0
5 <i>l.</i> and under 10 <i>l.</i>	0 0 1
10 <i>l.</i> and under 20 <i>l.</i>	0 0 1
20 <i>l.</i> and under 50 <i>l.</i>	0 0 2
50 <i>l.</i> and upwards	0 0 4

The duplicate to be produced to the pawnbroker before he shall be compelled to redeliver the respective goods and chattels, except as herein after excepted. The amount of profits on duplicates shall be added on pledges redeemed, and such duplicates shall be kept by the pawnbroker for 1 year.

Persons pawning other people's goods without their consent, may be apprehended by the warrant of 1 justice, and convicted in a penalty not exceeding 5*l.*, nor less than 20*s.*, and the full value of the goods pawned; and if the forfeiture be not immediately paid, the justice shall commit the party to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for 3 calendar months; and if within 3 days before the expiration of the commitment the forfeiture shall not be paid, the justice may order the person to be publicly whipped, and the forfeitures shall be applied towards making satisfaction to the party injured, and defraying the costs; but if the party injured shall decline to accept such satisfaction and costs, or if there be any overplus, such forfeitures or overplus shall be paid to the poor of the parish.

Persons forging or counterfeiting duplicates may be seized and delivered to a constable, who shall convey them before a justice; and, upon conviction, such persons shall be committed to the house of correction for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons offering pledges, not giving a satisfactory account of themselves, or of the means by which they became possessed of such goods, or wilfully giving any false information, or if there shall be reason to suspect that such goods are stolen, or illegally obtained, or if any person not entitled to redeem goods in pawn shall endeavour to redeem the same, they may be seized and delivered to a constable, to be carried before a justice; and if there should appear ground for a second examination, they shall be committed in the common goal or house of correction, to be dealt with according to laws or where such proceedings are not authorized by the nature of the offence, the party shall be committed for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons buying or taking in pledge unfinished goods, linen, or apparel, intended to others to wash or mend, shall forfeit double the sum lent, and restore the goods, or restore the goods to the owner. Peace officers are empowered to search for unfinished goods which shall be come by unlawfully.



1.4
1.6
1.8
2.0
2.2
2.5

10
11
12

When goods are unlawfully pawned, the pawnbroker is to restore them; and their houses may be searched during the hours of business, by a warrant from a magistrate for the discovery of such property.

Persons producing notes or memorandums are to be deemed the owners of the property.

Where duplicates are lost, the pawnbroker, upon affidavit made by the owner of such loss before a magistrate, shall deliver another duplicate.

Goods pawned are deemed forfeited at the end of a year; but, on notice from persons having goods in pledge, 3 months further are to be allowed beyond the year for redemption; such notice to be given before the twelfth month is expired.

All goods pawned may be sold at the expiration of one whole year; and all goods so forfeited, on which above 10s. and not exceeding 100s. shall have been lent, shall be sold by public auction, and not otherwise; notice of such sale being first given, at least 3 days before the auction, in a public newspaper, upon pain of forfeiting to the owner of the goods not more than 5s. nor less than 2s.

All pictures, prints, books, brooms, stanzas, busts, carvings in ivory and marble, canoes, statigions, musical, mathematical, and philosophical instruments, and shims, shall be sold by themselves, and without other goods, 4 times only in every year; viz. on the 1st Monday in January, April, July, and October, in every year.

Pawnbrokers are not to purchase goods while in their custody, nor take in pledges from persons under 12 years of age, or intoxicated; nor take in any goods before 9 in the forenoon, or after 7 in the evening between Michaelmas-day and Lady-day, or before 7 in the forenoon or after 7 in the evening during the remainder of the year, excepting only until 11 on the evenings of Saturday, and the evenings preceding Good Friday and Christmas-day and every fast or thanksgiving day.

Such is the present state of the law with respect to pawnbrokers. On the whole, the regulations seem to be judiciously devised. Perhaps, however, the rate of interest on small deposits might be advantageously lowered. The law allows interest at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per month to be charged on loans of 2s. 6d., which is at the rate of 20 per cent.; but the same sum of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per month is exigible from all smaller loans; and as very many do not exceed 1s. 6d., and even 6d., the interest on them is exceedingly oppressive. No doubt there is a great deal of trouble with respect to such loans; but still, considering the vast number of advances under 2s. 6d. it would seem that the interest on them might be somewhat reduced. Perhaps, too, it might be advisable, still better to secure compliance with the statute, to enact that no one should be licensed as a pawnbroker without producing sufficient security for a certain sum to be forfeited in the event of his knowingly or wilfully breking or evading any of its provisions. This would prevent (what Dr. Colquhoun says is not an uncommon practice) swindlers from becoming pawnbrokers, in order to get the means of selling stolen goods.—(*Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis*, 2d ed. p. 156.)

It would be a useful regulation to oblige pawnbrokers to insure against losses by fire. Much mischief has been occasioned by the neglect of this precaution.

An Account of the Number of Pawnbrokers licensed in the Metropolis, and in the Country, with the Rate respectively charged on their Licences, and the Duty received on the same, in each of the Five Years ending the 5th of January, 1830.—(*Part. Paper*, No. 681. Sess. 1830.)

Years ending	Taken out at the Head Office, London.			Taken out in the Country.		
	Rate of Duty.	Number.	Duty.	Rate of Duty.	Number.	Duty.
5th January 1826	L. s.			L. s.		L. s.
	15 0	281	3,015 0	15 0	-	7,010 0
	7 10	6	60 0	15 0	-	7,228 0
— 1827	15 0	267	4,005 0	15 0	-	7,228 0
	7 10	5	37 10	15 0	-	7,244 0
— 1828	15 0	274	4,110 0	15 0	-	7,244 0
	7 10	7	53 10	15 0	16	240 0
— 1829	15 0	411	5,155 0	15 0	1,598	11,278 0
	7 10	6	75 0	15 0	47	708 0
— 1830	15 0	295	4,425 0	15 0	1,238	7,183 0
	7 10	7	52 10	15 0	-	-

The produce of each rate of duty not being distinguished in the distributors' accounts until the year ending the 5th of January, 1829, the number of licences cannot be given prior to that date for the country.

4. *Notices of Pawnbroking in Italy, France, &c.*—The practice of advancing money to the poor, either with or without interest, seems to have been occasionally followed in antiquity.—(*Beckmann*, vol. iii. p. 14. 1st Eng. ed.) But the first public establishments of this sort were founded in Italy, under the name of *Monti di Pietà*, in the 14th and 15th centuries. As it was soon found to be impossible to procure the means of supporting such establishments from voluntary contributions, a bull for allowing interest to be charged upon the loans made to the poor was issued by Leo X. in 1521. These establishments, though differing in many respects, have universally for their object to protect the needy from the risk of being plundered by the irresponsible individuals to whom their necessities might oblige them to resort, by accommodating them with loans on comparatively reasonable terms. And though their practice has not, in all instances, corresponded with the professions they have made, there seems no reason to doubt that they have been, speaking generally, of essential service to the poor.

From Italy these establishments have gradually spread over the Continent. The *Monte di Pietà*, in Paris, was established by a royal ordinance in 1777; and after being destroyed by the Revolution, was again opened in 1797. In 1804, it obtained a monopoly of the business of pawnbroking in the capital. Loans are made, by this establishment, upon deposits of such

An account of the sale of pledges for more than 10s. to be carried by pawnbrokers in a book, and the surplus is to be paid to the owner of the goods pawned, if demanded within three years of the sale, under penalty of 10s. and treble the sum lent.

Pawnbrokers are to place in view the table of profits; and their name and business is to be placed over the door, or nearby it.

Pawnbrokers injuring goods, or selling them before the rate specified, shall, upon application to a magistrate, be compelled to make satisfaction for the same; and if the satisfaction awarded shall be equal to or exceed the principal and profits the pawnbroker shall deliver the goods pledged to the owners without being paid any thing for principal or profit.

Pawnbrokers shall produce their books before a magistrate; or, refusing so to do, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 10s. nor more than 2s.

Pawnbrokers offending against the act shall forfeit for every offence not less than 40s. nor more than 100s.

It has been held by the Court of King's Bench, that a pawnbroker has no right to sell unredemmed pledges, after the expiration of a year from the time the goods were pledged, if, while they are in his possession, the original owner tender him the principal and interest due.—(*Waller v. Smith*, 22d of January, 1805.) On a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said, "I am of opinion, that if the pledge be not redeemed at the expiration of a year and a day, [and in every case] 3 months further are to be allowed for its redemption; the pawnbroker has a right to expose it to sale so soon as he can consistently with the provisions of the act; but if at any time before the sale he actually repays the owner of the goods the principal and interest, and expenses incurred, he has a right to his own, and the pawnbroker is not injured; for the power of sale is allowed him merely to secure to him the money which he has advanced, together with the high rate of interest which the law allows to him as his character of pawnbroker."

goods as can be procured other than gold and silver, more than 3 francs (2s. 6d.) the engagement.

The *Mont de Piété* at Paris has a capital of 20,000,000 to be at the disposal of the poor.

The *Mont de Piété* at Lyons has a capital of 280,000 francs, of which 125,000 being the principal is pawned.

The articles in pawn are continued in part.

Money, so preserved, are sold, subject to the law.

There are no means possible to make it much greater.

In some respect, vigilance exercised to advantage over the pawnshop, whether it is, on the whole, to 3 francs would be France; nor is to be ready to assist poor individuals anxious in Paris only, but in confined to a few already suggested by PEARL-ASH.

PEARLS (Du.) *Stemtschug, Perle* known globular compound of pearl oyster (*Conchostrea*) translucent silvery largest are of course pear; and when the pearls are most esteemed.

Value, &c. of Pearls bore an enormous extent.—*Plin. Hist.*

partly, no doubt, from rable imitations of pearl, a handsome nurn; and one of p 3000; no doubt, a former sell at the g dwindles to the size

They are mostly seen authentic account of days of Pliny, for the bluish. The diam

Much difference of pearls in the oyster and is formed in the successive coats spr

throw into a species very minute mother found covered with *Orient. Com.*; *As*

Pearl Fisheries.—The coast of Ceylon; at Maldiva Islands, in the Indian, or Pearl Islands of Panama, in the South Sea, and in other places.

goods as can be preserved, to the amount of *two thirds* of the estimated value of all goods other than gold and silver, and to *four fifths* of the value of the latter. No loan is for less than 3 francs (2s. 6d.). The advances are made for a year, but the borrower may renew the engagement. Interest is fixed at the rate of *one per cent.* per month.

The *Mont de Piété*, receives annually about 1,200,000 articles, upon which it advances from 20,000,000 to 21,000,000 francs; it has generally from 600,000 to 650,000 articles in its possession. The expense of management amounts to from 60 to 65 *centimes* for each article; so that a loan of 3 francs never defrays the expenses it occasions, and the profits are wholly derived from those that exceed 5 francs. At an average, the profits amount to about 280,000 francs, of which only about 155,000 are derived from loans upon deposit, about 125,000 being the produce of other funds at the disposal of the company.

The articles in pawn are returned in the proportion of $\frac{1}{3}$ in number and $\frac{1}{3}$ in value.
 Are retained in pawn by a prolongation of the loan $\frac{2}{3}$ $\frac{2}{3}$ —

Items are preserved to their proprietors of articles pawned $\frac{2}{3}$ in number and $\frac{2}{3}$ in value.
 Are sold, subject (as in England) to a claim for surplus any time during 3 years $\frac{1}{3}$ $\frac{1}{3}$ —

$\frac{2}{3}$ $\frac{2}{3}$
 (Bulletin des Sciences Géographiques, Avril, 1830.)

There are no means of making a statement of this sort with respect to London; but, were it possible to make it, the proportion of forfeited pledges would be found, we have no doubt, much greater.

In some respect, particularly the lowness of interest upon small loans, and the greater vigilance exercised with respect to the reception of stolen goods, the *Mont de Piété* has an advantage over the pawnbroking establishments in this country. It may be doubted, however, whether it is, on the whole, so well fitted to attain its objects. The limitation of the loans to 3 francs would be felt to be a serious grievance here, and it can hardly be otherwise in France; nor is it to be supposed, that the servants of a great public establishment will be so ready to assist poor persons, having none but inferior articles to offer in security, as private individuals anxious to get business. And such, in point of fact, is found to be the case, not in Paris only, but in all those parts of the Continent where the business of pawnbroking is confined to a few establishments. And hence it would seem that, were the modifications already suggested adopted, our system would be the best of any.

PEARL-ASH. See POTASH.

PEARLS (Du. *Paarlen*; Fr. *Perles*; Ger. *Perlen*; It. *Perle*; Lat. *Margaritæ*; Rus. *Shemtechug, Perli*; Sp. *Perlas*; Arab. *Looloo*; Cyng. *Mootoo*; Hind. *Mootie*.) are well known globular concretions found in several species of shell-fish, but particularly the mother-of-pearl oyster (*Concha margaritifera* Lin.). Pearls should be chosen round, of a bright translucent silvery whiteness, free from stains and roughness. Having these qualities, the largest are of course the most valuable. The larger ones have frequently the shape of a pear; and when these are otherwise perfect, they are in great demand for ear-rings. Ceylon pearls are most esteemed in England.

Value, &c. of Pearls.—Pearls were in the highest possible estimation in ancient Rome, and bore an enormous price.—(*Principium culmenque omnium rerum pretii, margaritæ tent.*—Plin. *Hist. Nat.* lib. ix. c. 35.) Their price in modern times has very much declined; partly, no doubt, from changes of manners and fashions; but more probably, from the admirable imitations of pearls that may be obtained at a very low price. According to Mr. Milburn, a handsome necklace of Ceylon pearls, smaller than a large pea, costs from 170l. to 300l.; but one of pearls about the size of peppercorns may be had for 15l.: the pearls in the former sell at a guinea each, and those in the latter at about 1s. 6d. When the pearls dwindle to the size of a small shot, they are denominated *seed* pearls, and are of little value. They are mostly sent to China. One of the most remarkable pearls of which we have any authentic account was bought by Taveruier, at Catifa, in Arabia, a fishery famous in the days of Pliny, for the enormous sum of 110,000l.! It is pear-shaped, regular, and without blemish. The diameter is .63 inch at the largest part, and the length from 2 to 3 inches.

Much difference of opinion has existed among naturalists with respect to the production of pearls in the oyster; but it seems now to be generally believed that it is the result of disease, and is formed in the same manner as bezoar—(see *BEZOAR*)—pearls, like it, consisting of successive coats spread with perfect regularity round a foreign nucleus. In fact, the Chinese throw into a species of shell-fish (*mytilus cygneus*, or swan muscle), when it opens, 5 or 6 very minute mother-of-pearl beads strung on a thread; and in the course of a year they are found covered with a pearly crust, which perfectly resembles the real pearl.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Ainslie's Nat. Indica*, &c.)

Pearl Fisheries.—The pearl oyster is fished in various parts of the world, particularly on the west coast of Ceylon; at Tutulcoren, in the province of Thinnevelly, on the coast of Coromandel; at the Bahrein Islands, in the Gulf of Persia; at the Soolon Islands, off the coast of Algiers; off St. Margarin, off Pearl Islands, in the West Indies, and other places on the coast of Colombia; and in the Bay of Panama, in the South Sea. Pearls have sometimes been found on the Scotch coast, and in various other places.

The pearl fishery of Tuticoreen is monopolized by the East India Company, and that of Ceylon by government. But these monopolies are of no value; as in neither case does the sum for which the fishery is let equal the expenses incurred in guarding, surveying, and managing the banks. It is therefore, sufficiently obvious that this system ought to be abolished, and every one allowed to fish on paying a moderate licence duty. The fear of exhausting the banks is quite ludicrous. The fishery would be abandoned as unprofitable long before the breed of oysters had been injuriously diminished; and in a few years it would be as productive as ever. Besides giving fresh life to the fishery, the abolition of the monopoly would put an end to some very oppressive regulations, enacted by the Dutch more than a century ago.

Persian Gulf.—The most extensive pearl fisheries are those on the several banks not far distant from the island of Bahrain, on the west side of the Persian Gulf, in lat. 26° 50' N., lon. 51° 10' E.; but pearl oysters are found along the whole of the Arabian coast, and round almost all the islands of the gulf. Such as are fished in the sea near the islands of Karrak and Congo contain pearls said to be of a superior colour and description. They are formed of 8 layers or folds, whilst others have only 4, but the water is too deep to make fishing for them either very profitable or easy. Besides, the entire monopoly of the fishery is in the hands of the sheik of Bushire, who seems to consider these islands as his immediate property.

"The fishing season is divided into two portions—the one called the short and cold, the other the long and hot. In the cooler weather of the month of June, diving is practised along the coast in shallow water; but it is not until the intensely hot months of July, August and September, that the Bahrain banks are much frequented. The water on them is about 7 fathoms deep, and the divers are much inconvenienced when it is cold; indeed, they can do little when it is not as warm as the air, and it frequently becomes even more so in the hottest months of the summer. When they dive, they compress the nostrils tightly with a small piece of horn, which keeps the water out, and stuff their ears with bees'-wax for the same purpose. They attach a net to their walrus, to contain the oysters; and aid their descent by means of a stone, which they hold by a rope attached to a boat, and shake it when they wish to be drawn up. From what I could learn, 3 minutes may be considered as rather above the average time of their remaining under water. Although severe labour, and very exhausting at the time, diving is not considered particularly injurious to the constitution; even old men practise it. A person usually dives from 12 to 15 times a day in favourable weather; but, when otherwise, 3 or 4 times only. The work is performed on an empty stomach. When the diver becomes fatigued, he goes to sleep, and does not eat until he has slept some time.

"At Bahrain alone, the annual amount produced by the pearl fishery may be reckoned at from 200,000*l.* to 240,000*l.* If, to this, the purchases made by the Bahrain merchants or agents at Aboullah Siarga, Ras-ul Khymack, &c. be added, which may amount to half as much more, there will be a total of about 300,000*l.* or 360,000*l.*; but this is calculated to include the whole pearl trade of the gulf; for it is believed that all the principal merchants of India, Arabia, and Persia, who deal in pearls, make their purchases, through agents, at Bahrain. I have not admitted in the above estimate much more than one sixth of the amount some native merchants have stated it to be, as a good deal seemed to be matter of guess or opinion, and it is difficult to get at facts. My own estimate is in some measure checked by the estimated profits of the small boats. But even the sum which I have estimated is an enormous annual value for an article found in other parts of the world as well as here, and which is never used in its best and most valuable state, except as an ornament. Large quantities of the seed pearls are used throughout Asia, in the composition of majoons, or electuaries, to form which all kinds of precious stones are occasionally mixed, after being pounded, excepting, indeed, diamonds; these being considered, from their hardness, as utterly indigestible. The majoon, in which there is a large quantity of pearls, is much sought for and valued, on account of its supposed stimulating and restorative qualities.

"Bahrain pearl fishery boats are reckoned to amount to about 1,500, and the trade is in the hands of merchants, some of whom possess considerable capital. They bear hard on the producers or fishers, and even those who make the greatest exertions in diving hardly have food to eat. The merchant advances some money to the fishermen at cent. per cent, and a portion of dates, rice, and other necessary articles, all at the supplier's own price; he also lets a boat to them, for which he gets a share of the gross profits of all that is fished; and, finally, he purchases the pearls nearly at his own price, for the unhappy fishermen are generally in his debt, and therefore at his mercy."—(*Manuscript Note communicated by Major D. Wilson, late Political Resident at Bushire.*)

The fishery at Algiers was formed by an English association in 1826, but we are ignorant of their success.

The pearl fisheries on the coast of Colombia were at one time of very great value. In 1587, upwards of 697 lbs. of pearls are said to have been imported into Sevilla. Philip II. had one from St. Margaria, which weighed 250 carats, and was valued at 150,000 dollars. But for many years past the Colombian pearl fisheries have been of comparatively little importance. During the mania for joint stock companies, in 1825, two were formed;—one on a large scale, for prosecuting the pearl fishery on the coast of Colombia; and another, on a smaller scale, for prosecuting it in the Bay of Panama and the Pacific. Both were abandoned in 1830.

The best fishing ground is said to be in from 6 to 8 fathoms water. The divers continue under water from a minute to a minute and a half, or at most 3 minutes. They have a neck or lug fastened to the neck, in which they bring up the oysters. The exertion is extremely violent; and the divers are unhealthy and short-lived.

Pearl Shells, commonly called *Mother-of-pearl shells*, are imported from various parts of the world, and consist principally of the shells of the pearl oyster, from the Gulf of Persia and other places, particularly the Sooloo Islands, situate between Borneo and the Philippines, the shores of which afford the largest and finest shells hitherto discovered. On the inside, the shell is beautifully polished, and of the whiteness and water of pearl itself; but the same lustre on the outside, after the external laminae have been removed. Mother-of-pearl shells are extensively used in the arts, particularly in inlaid work, and in the manufacture of handles for knives, buttons, toys, snuff boxes, &c. The Chinese manufacture them into beads, fish, counters, spoons, &c.; giving them a finish to which European artists have not been able to attain. Shells for the European market should be chosen of the largest size, of a beautiful pearly lustre, thick and even, and free from stains. Reject such as are small, cracked, or broken, or have lumps on them. When stowed loose as dunnage, they are sometimes allowed to pass free of freight.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*) The imports during the 3 years ending with 1832 were—1830, 465,591 lbs.; 1831, 519,492 do; 1832, 721,527 do.—(*Park Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

PEAS (Ger. Erbse). The pea is considered to be indigenous to the latter of which the common garden pea, are the most common in the country, particularly in the culture of the pea as a vegetable. Sometimes, however, it is given to the admission of air into the soil, for the purpose of the country; but the latter is never.—(*Loudon* on account of the law of Leguminosae from Calcutta, PECK, a dry measure, or 554.55 cu. Weights and Measures, PELLIOTRY, the name of a Barbary, and the finger, with a brooch, from which it seems at first to be derived, on account of the resemblance on the top with a short resinous stick black shining polychromatic.—(*Thomson* on the 2s. 6d. per lb. PENICILS (Ger. Pinsel) the instruments used in the manufacture of various materials, the down of swans, PENICILS, BLACK PENKNIVES (Cane knives, too well known. The best are made at Sheffield. PENNY, formerly in England by our S. was about 22½ grains. PENS (Fr. Plume), well known as one of our birds. It is in some way begun to be largely given to his pen, metallic pens previously brought crowds of irregularities, and of a very considerable expense, is able to give easy writing. PENNYWEIGHTS. PEPPER (Fr. Poivre; Lat. Piper). extremely hot, pungent, and is in commerce: I. BLACK PEPPER, the plant (*Piper nigrum*). It is cultivated in support of other trade said to bear best w

PEAS (Ger. *Erbsen*; Fr. *Pois*; It. *Piselli*, *Bisi*; Sp. *Pesoles*, *Guisantes*; Rus. *Go-rsni*). The pea is one of the most esteemed of the leguminous or pulse plants. It is supposed to be indigenous to the south of Europe, and was cultivated by the Greeks and Romans, the latter of whom probably introduced it into Britain. There are many varieties; but the common garden pea (*Pisum sativum*), and the common grey or field pea (*Pisum arvense*), are the most generally cultivated; being reared in large quantities in all parts of the country, particularly in Kent. But since the introduction of the drill husbandry, the culture of the pea as a field crop has been to a considerable extent superseded by the bean. Sometimes, however, it is drilled along with the latter; for, being a climbing plant, it attaches itself to the bean, so as to admit the ground being hoed; at the same time that the free admission of air about its roots promotes its growth. It is not possible to frame any estimate of the consumption of peas. The field pea is now hardly ever manufactured into bread for the purpose of being made into bread, as was formerly the case in many parts of the country; but there is reason to think that the garden pea is now more extensively used than ever.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Brown on Rural Affairs*, vol. ii. p. 72. For an account of the laws regulating the importation, &c. of peas, see *COX'S LAWS AND COX'S TRADING*.) Leguminous crops are very extensively cultivated in India. The exports of peas from Calcutta, in 1830, exceeded 1,300 tons.

PECK, a dry measure for grain, pulse, &c. The standard, or Imperial peck, contains 2 gallons, or 554.55 cubic inches. Four pecks make a bushel, and 4 bushels a coomb.—(See *WEIGHTS AND MEASURES*.)

PELLITORY, the root of a perennial plant (*Anthemis pyrethrum*), a native of the Levant, Barbary, and the south of Europe. The root is long, tapering, about the thickness of the finger, with a brownish cuticle. It is imported packed in bales, sometimes mixed with other roots, from which, however, it is easily distinguished. It is inodorous. When chewed, it seems at first to be insipid, but after a few seconds it excites a glowing heat, and a pricking sensation on the tongue and lips which remains for 10 or 12 minutes. The pieces break with a short resinous fracture; the transverse section presenting a thick brown bark, studded with black shining points, and a pale yellow radiated inside. It is used in medicine as a stimulant.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The price varies, including the duty, (6d.), from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per lb.

PENCILS (Ger. *Pinsel*; Du. *Pinseelen*; Fr. *Pinceaux*; It. *Pennelli*; Sp. *Pinceles*), the instruments used by painters in laying on their colours. They are of various kinds, and made of various materials; some being formed of the bristles of the boar, and others of camel's hair, the down of swans, &c.

PENCILS, BLACK LEAD. See **BLACK LEAD PENCILS**.

PENKNIVES (Ger. *Federmesser*; Fr. *Canifs*; It. *Temperini*; Sp. *Corta plumas*), small knives, too well known to need any particular description, used in making and mending pens. The best and most highly ornamented penknives are manufactured in London and Sheffield.

PENNY, formerly a silver, but now a copper coin. This was the first silver coin struck in England by our Saxon ancestors, being the 240th part of their pound; so that its weight was about 22½ grains Troy.

PENS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Schreibfedern*; It. *Penne da scrivere*; Rus. *Pera* (*Stovki*)), well known instruments for writing, usually formed of the quills of the goose, swan, or some other bird. Metallic pens have been occasionally employed for a lengthened period; but it is only within these few years that they have been extensively introduced. They first began to be largely manufactured by Mr. John Perry, of London. Mr. P. having succeeded in giving to his pens a greater degree of softness and elasticity than was possessed by any metallic pens previously in use, they speedily obtained a very extensive sale. This success brought crowds of rivals into the field; so that metallic pens are now manufactured in vast quantities, and of an immense variety of forms. But though they have superseded, to a very considerable extent, the use of quills, and have some peculiar advantages, it does not appear possible to give them the elasticity of the quill, nor to fit them so well for quick and easy writing.

PENNYWEIGHT, a Troy weight, being the 20th part of an ounce, containing 24 grains.

PEPPER (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Pfeffer*; Du. *Peper*; It. *Pepe*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Rus. *Peper*; Lat. *Piper*), the berry or fruit of different species of plants, having an aromatic, extremely hot, pungent taste, used in seasoning, &c. The following sorts of pepper are met with in commerce:—

1. **BLACK PEPPER** (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Schwarzen Pfeffer*; It. *Pepe negro*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Sans. *Mercha*; Hind. *Gol-mirch*; Malay, *Lada*; Jav. *Marika*), the fruit of a creeping plant (*Piper nigrum*), one of the pepper genus, of which there are upwards of 80 species. It is cultivated extensively in India, Siam, the Eastern islands, &c. It requires the support of other trees, to which it readily adheres. It climbs to the height of 20 feet; but is said to bear best when restrained to the height of 12 feet. It begins to produce at about the

3d year, and is in perfection at the 7th; continues in this state for 3 or 4 years; and declines for about as many more, until it ceases to be worth keeping. The fruit grows abundantly from all the branches, in long small clusters of from 20 to 60 grains; when ripe, it is of a bright red colour. After being gathered, it is spread on mats in the sun, when it loses its red colour, and becomes black and shrivelled as we see it. The grains are separated from the stalks by hand rubbing. That which has been gathered at the proper period shrivels the least; but if plucked too soon, it will become broken and dusty in its removal from place to place. The vine produces two crops in the year; but the seasons are subject to great irregularities.

Pepper should be chosen of a pungent aromatic odour, an extremely hot and acrid taste, in large grains, firm, sound, and with few wrinkles—for of these it always has some. Reject that which is shrivelled, or small grained, or which on being rubbed will break to pieces.

In point of quality, the pepper of Malabar is usually reckoned the best; but there is no material difference between it and that of Sumatra, and the other islands. In the market of Bengal, where they meet on equal terms, the produce of Malabar is generally about 2 per cent. higher than the other. In Europe, there is generally a difference of $\frac{1}{4}$ d. per lb. in favour of Malabar; but in China they are held in equal estimation.

Black pepper sold ground, is said to be often adulterated with burnt crust of bread.

II. WHITE PEPPER is made by blanching the finest grains of the common black pepper, by steeping them for a while in water, and then gently rubbing them, so as to remove the dark outer coat. It is milder than the other, and is much prized by the Chinese; but very little is imported into England.

III. CAPSICUM PEPPER is the produce of several varieties of the *Capsicum*, an annual plant, a native of both the Indies. The best, which is brought home from the West Indies ready prepared, is made from the *Capsicum baccatum* (bird pepper). It has an aromatic, extremely pungent, acrimonious taste, setting the mouth, as it were, on fire, and the impression remaining long on the palate. It is sometimes adulterated with muriate of soda; and sometimes with a very deleterious substance, the red oxide of lead; but this fraud may be detected by its weight, and by chemical tests.—(See CHILLIES.)

IV. LONG PEPPER.—This species is the produce of a perennial (*Piper longum*), a native of Malabar and Bengal. The fruit is hottest in its immature state; and is therefore gathered while green, and dried in the sun. It is imported in entire spikes, which are about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long. It has a weak aromatic odour, an intensely fiery pungent taste, and a dark grey colour. The root of long pepper is a favourite medicine among the Hindoos.

The quantities of the last 3 species of pepper imported are quite inconsiderable, compared with the quantity of black pepper.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.; Ainslie's Mat. Indica; Thomson's Dispensatory, &c.*)

Trade in Pepper. Consumption of, and Duties on, in England.—Pepper is extensively used, all over Europe and the East, as a condiment. It was originally imported into this country by way of the Levant (see vol. i. p. 617.); and for many years after the establishment of the East India Company, it formed the most important article of their imports. In nothing has the beneficial effect of opening the India trade been so unequivocally displayed as in the instance of pepper. The private traders have resorted to new markets, and discovered new sources of supply which had hitherto been wholly unexplored; so that there has been not only a very great increase in the quantity of pepper brought to Europe, but also a very great fall in its price, which does not now exceed a third of what it amounted to in 1814!

The quantities in the following Table are taken from the *Parl. Papers*, No. 22. Sess. 1830, and No. 425. Sess. 1833; the prices have been supplied by Mr. Cook.

Amount of the Total Quantity of Pepper Imported from the East Indies into Great Britain, with its Price in Bond in London, each Year, from 1814.

Years.	Pepper.		Years.	Pepper.		Years.	Pepper.	
	Lbs.	Per lb.		Lbs.	Per lb.		Lbs.	Per lb.
1814	5,792,649	11d. to 13d.	1821	848,100	7 1-4d. to 7 1-3d.	1827	2,067,768	3 1-4d. to 3 3-4d.
1815	12,719,958	9 1-2 — 9-6	1822	7,211,378	6 — 6 1-4	1828	4,975,102	3 1-4 — 3 3-4
1816	11,985,014	7 — 7 1-2	1823	5,975,326	6 — 6 1-2	1829	—	2-9 — 3 1-4
1817	4,077,062	8 — 8 1-2	1824	8,501,691	6 1-2 — 6	1830	2,742,324	3 3-4 — 4
1818	8,154,741	7 1-2 — 7-3	1825	5,396,217	4-8 — 5-4	1831	6,124,242	3 — 3-4
1819	6,200,143	6-1 — 6 1-4	1826	15,153,419	4 — 4 1-2	1832	4,650,471	3 3-4 — 4
1820	7,871,947	6-6 — 6 3-4						

Pepper is one of the most grossly over-taxed articles in the British tariff. Until 1823, the duty was 2s. 6d. per lb.—a duty so exorbitant, that one would be inclined to think it had been imposed in order to put a total stop to the use of the article. In 1823, the duty on pepper from a British possession was reduced to 1s. per lb.; but even this duty, as compared with the price of the article (3d. to 4d. per lb.) is quite enormous, amounting to no less than from 400 to 300 per cent. It will be seen from the subjoined Table that the reduction of the duty, in 1823, has increased the consumption from about 1,400,000 lbs. to 2,225,000 lbs. a year; and were the duty reduced, as it ought to be, to 2d. or at most 3d. per lb., so that pepper might become accessible to the lower classes, to whom its free use would be of infinite importance, we have not the slightest doubt that in a very short period the consump-

tion would amount to... by such a measure... of the people at... seriously injured, by... to be kept alive... were imposed. We... dealers in pepper lab... commodities from In... Amount of the Quant... dom, the Rates of... since 1800.

Years.	Quantities imported for Home Consumption.	Per lb.
1810	1,177,888	
1811	1,222,096	
1812	1,418,486	
1813		
1814	541,559	
1815	1,095,423	
1816	1,095,782 1-2	
1817	1,218,793 3-4	
1818	1,672,928	
1819	1,275,087	
1820	1,404,921 1-4	
1821	1,565,531 1-4	
1822	1,445,400 1-4	
1823	1,308,893	
1824	1,447,230 1-2	
1825	1,665,077 1-4	
1826	2,328,077	
1827	1,318,851 1-2	
1828	1,237,718 1-2	
1829	1,983,641	
1830	2,028,154	
1831	2,365,068	
1832	2,283,491	

Supply of Pepper.—The... from the Singapore... can be no more... of all the products... demand among stran... The pepper countries... pepper is to be found... within these limits we... east coast of the Gu... The whole produce of... each of the south-w... produce 15,000 picul... in the interior. The ports on the south... as follows: viz. por... 2000; coast from Tun... district to the r... Here it is of importa... During the last pepp... country traders, 4 fir... generally take away 50... the pepper finds... The north-east coast... to produce 18,000... the greatest part is exp... 100 piculs. Of the islands at... the Andaman, and adjacent... is brought to Sing... which, but principally... The west coast of th... is afforded by this... On the east coast of... and Cebu—of... portion of this is br... to China in junk... west, too, occasional... The east coast of th... produce of pepper. T... and ports here are C... Siam, and the latter... 40,000 of which... its way to China... holds produce of Bor...

tion would amount to 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 lbs. There would either be no loss of revenue by such a measure, or none worth mentioning; and it is not to be endured that the bulk of the people should be deprived of so useful a commodity, and the trade of the country seriously injured, by keeping up oppressive duties, which serve no purpose whatever, unless it be to keep alive the remembrance of the ignorance and rapacity of those by whom they were imposed. We have already shown (see vol. i., p. 639.) the difficulties under which the dealers in pepper labour, in consequence of the absurd regulations as to the warehousing of commodities from India.

Amount of the Quantity of all Sorts of Pepper retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Total Revenue derived from the same, in each Year since 1809.

Year.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Net Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.					
			Common Pepper.		Cayenne Pepper.		Long Pepper.	Guinea Pepper.
			East India.		East India.			
	Lbs.	£. s. d.	1s. 8d. per lb. and 2s. 13s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s. per lb., and 2s. 13s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s.	Per lb.	Per lb.	
1810	1,117,858	86,998 8 4	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	1s. 4d.	
1811	1,182,086	90,547 1 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1812	1,183,480	101,369 10 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1813	Records destroyed.		From 15th April, 1s. 11s. 4d. per lb. and 2s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s. 8d. per lb., and 2s. 3s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s. 8d.	6 1-2d.	1s. 7d.	
1814	941,569	95,688 4 10	From 10th April, 1s. 10 1/2 d. per lb.	6s. per lb.	ditto	10d.	ditto	
1815	1,086,423	103,025 11 10	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1816	1,095,781 1-2	96,300 19 1	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1817	1,219,750-3-4	115,987 8 7	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1818	1,172,263	123,053 13 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1819	1,585,087	119,871 7 1	From 5th July, 2s. 6d. per lb.	2s. 6d. per lb.	2s. 6d.	2s.	2s. 6d.	
1820	1,404,021 1-4	174,063 9 9	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1821	1,266,511 4	156,339 8 3	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1822	1,406,400 1-4	178,588 11 4	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	
1823	1,308,893	170,897 6 8	From 10th October, 2s. 6d. per lb. on all sorts.					
1824	1,461,080 1-2	180,816 3 4	ditto					
1825	850,071 4	106,921 15 0	ditto					
1826	828,077 1-2	136,617 4 8	ditto					
1827	1,184,261 1-2	97,496 5 11	From 5th January, 1s. per lb. if from British possessions.					
1828	1,277,718 1-2	97,447 12 5	ditto					
1829	1,935,641	96,735 19 0	ditto					
1830	2,029,154	108,493 0 0	ditto					
1831	2,060,068	108,839 0 0	ditto					
1832	2,283,491	111,238 0 0	ditto					

Supply of Pepper.—The following instructive details with respect to the supply of pepper are taken from the *Singapore Chronicle*; to which they were contributed by John Crawford, Esq.—than whom there can be no more competent authority as to such subjects. Of all the products of the Eastern Islands, and of the countries immediately in their neighbourhood, the most demanded among strangers, black pepper is the most important, both in value and quantity. The pepper countries extend from about the longitude of 96° to that of 115° E., beyond which no pepper is to be found; and they reach from 5° S. latitude to about 12° N., where it again ceases. Within these limits we have Sumatra, Borneo, the Malayan peninsula, and certain countries lying on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam.

The whole produce of the island of Sumatra is estimated not to fall short of 168,000 piculs, of 133½ lbs each; the south-west coast being said to produce 150,000, and the north-east coast 18,000 piculs. The pepper ports on the north-east coast of Sumatra are Lankat and Delli, with Sardang. The first produce 15,000 piculs, and the latter 3,000 annually. The cultivation is carried on by the Battas in the interior.

The ports on the south-west coast, and the amount of their produce, as given in a recent estimate, are as follow: viz. port and district of Trumah, 40,000; district of Pulo Dua, 4,000; ditto of Cluat, 2,000; coast from Tampat Tuan to Suan, 33,000; port of Suan, 1,000; Kuala Batia, 20,000; Analu, 2,000; districts to the north of Anelabu, 20,000; making in all, 150,000 piculs.

Here it is of importance to remark, that the culture and production are extremely fluctuating. During the last pepper season, there obtained cargoes on the west coast of Sumatra, 27 American ships, country traders, 4 large French ships, besides the ships belonging to the East India Company, which generally take away 500 tons. Nearly the whole of this trade is in the hands of Europeans or Americans; the pepper finds its way to Europe, to America, and in a small proportion to China.

The north-east coast of Sumatra, from Pedler down to the Carimons, is estimated, as already mentioned, to produce 18,000 piculs. Prince of Wales Island is the principal *depôt* for this, from whence the greatest part is exported to India and China. The produce of Prince of Wales Island itself is about 10,000 piculs.

Of the islands at the mouth of the Straits of Malacca and Singapore, Bintang, on which Rhio is situated, and adjacent islands, produce 10,000 piculs; and Lingga about 2,000. A large proportion of this is brought to Singapore, which exported last year about 31,000 piculs; some part to Bengal and China, but principally to Europe direct, in free traders.

The west coast of the Malayan peninsula produces no pepper, with the exception of about 4,000 piculs afforded by the territory of Malacca.

On the east coast of the peninsula, the production of pepper is very considerable. The ports of Pagan and Calantan—chiefly the latter—yield about 10,000 piculs annually, and Tringau about 8,000. A portion of this is brought to Singapore and Penang; but we believe the greater proportion goes direct to China in junks, of which 3 large ones frequent Tringau annually, and 1 Calantan. The Americans, too, occasionally visit these ports. In the year 1821, 3 vessels of considerable burden obtained cargoes.

The east coast of the Gulf of Siam, from the latitude of 10½° to that of 12½° N., affords an extensive produce of pepper. This coast is scarcely known, even by name, to the traders of Europe. The principal ports here are Chantibun, Tungyal, Pongsoom, and Kampop; the first 3 being under the dominion of Siam, and the latter under that of Kamboja. The whole produce is estimated at not less than 60,000 piculs, 40,000 of which are brought at once to the capital of Siam as tribute to the king, and the whole sent its way to China in junks. It remains only to estimate the produce of the island of Borneo. The whole produce of Borneo is estimated at about 30,000 piculs; of which a large share is carried to China

or 4 years; and the fruit grows abundant; when ripe, it is eaten, when it is green, the grains are separated; proper period should be removed from plants are subject to great hot and acrid taste; ye has some. Rejected break to pieces; but there is no. In the market generally about 2 per cent. per lb. in rust of bread. Common black pepper, so as to remove the Chinese; but very *picum*, an annual from the West Indies; it has an aromatic, fire, and the impurities of soda; and this fraud may be *longum*), a native therefore gathered in about 1½ inch a dark grey colour. considerable, compared *lie's Mat. India*; pepper is extensively imported into the establishment. In nothing displayed as in the and discovered new there has been not also a very great No. 22, Siam book. East Britains, with its Prices. Per lb. 3 1/2 - 3 3/4 3 1/4 - 3 1/2 2 1/2 - 3 1/4 2 1/2 - 3 1/4 3 1/2 - 3 1/4 3 1/2 - 3 1/4

direct in junks, some by Portuguese vessels; and about 7,000 piculs are now annually brought by the native craft of the country itself to Singapore in the course of that free trade, which is happily flourishing at this settlement. The data which have been stated, will enable us to estimate the value of the production of the Malayan Archipelago, including that of the peninsula of Malacca, and that of the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, as 308,000 piculs; and as there is no other part of the world that affords pepper, excepting the western coast of the peninsula of India, and this affords but 30,000 piculs, or less than 1-10th part of what the places we have enumerated produce, we have, accordingly, at one view, the whole production of the earth, being 338,000 piculs, or 45,066,666 lbs avoirdupois. The average price of pepper has been lately about 9 Spanish dollars a picul; so the whole value drawn into India from Europe, China, and the New World, on account of this single commodity, is 3,045,000 dollars. The quantity given in this statement may appear enormous; but if meted out to the whole population of the globe, or to 1,000,000,000 of people, it would be found that the average annual consumption of an individual would amount to no more than 323 grains.

Mr. Crawford has very recently supplied us with a revised estimate of the production of pepper as follows:—

Sumatra (west coast) - - -	30,000,000	Siam - - - - -	8,000,000
Do. (east coast) - - -	8,000,000	Malabar - - - - -	4,000,000
Islands in the Straits of Malacca	3,600,000		
Malay peninsula - - -	3,733,333		
Borneo - - - - -	2,666,667		
		Total - - - - -	50,000,000

The localities in the previous estimate are quite correct; and we, therefore, did not think it would be right to suppress it. But, though this may be depended upon as being a fair statement of what has been, till a comparatively late period, the average supply of pepper, the extreme depression of price has occasioned a very considerable decline in the production of some of the places mentioned above, within the last 4 or 5 years. The late advance of price will, however, probably, check any further diminution of production. But though prices were to rise still more considerably than they have done, the effect on the supply, owing to the plant requiring a few years to come to maturity, may not, at first, be so great as might be supposed.

(The duty on pepper, has been reduced from 1s. to 6d. per lb.; a reduction that will doubtless lead to a very material increase of consumption.—(6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 60.)—Sup.)

[See IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—Am. Ed.]

PERCH, a long measure, 16½ feet in length.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

PERMIT, a licence or instrument, granted by the officers of excise, authorizing the removal of goods subject to the excise duties.

It is enacted by the 11 Geo. 3. c. 30., that no person shall demand or receive a permit for the removal of brandy, arrack, rum, spirits, and strong waters, coffee, tea, and cocoa nuts, without the special direction in writing of the person out of whose stock they are to come, on pain of forfeiting 50l. and in default of payment, to be imprisoned 3 months. Persons taking out a permit, and not removing the goods within the prescribed period, nor returning the permit to the officer, forfeit ~~twice~~ the value of the goods mentioned in such permit. By the 37 Geo. 3. c. 133., persons selling, lending, or making use of a permit for any other purpose than that for which it was granted, forfeit 500l. By the 4 Geo. 4. c. 4. s. 116. it is enacted, that any retailer of spirits sending out more than one gallon without a lawful permit; any rectifier, compounder, or dealer, receiving into his stock any spirits without a permit; or any carrier, boatman, or other person, assisting in the removal or transportation of any spirits without a permit; shall forfeit 200l. every and above every other penalty, together with all such spirits; the packages, carts, horses, &c. employed in the removal of such goods shall also be forfeited, and may and shall be seized by any officer of excise. The 9 Geo. 4. c. 44. s. 25. dispenses with the necessity of a permit for the removal of coffee and cocoa. The commissioners of excise provide frames or moulds for making the paper used for permits, which has the words "Excise Office" visible in the substance of it. It is a capital offence to make such frames, or to have them in one's possession without a lawful excuse.

These regulations will, it is most probable, be speedily modified; the commissioners of excise inquiry, of whom Sir Henry Parnell is chairman, having recommended the abolition of permits in case of the removal of tea, and some other articles.

PERRY, a fermented liquor made from pears, in the same manner as cider from apples. The pears best fitted for producing this liquor are exceedingly harsh and tart; but it is itself pleasant and wholesome.—(See CIDER.)

PETERSBURGH, the modern metropolis of the Russian empire, situated at the confluence of the river Neva with the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland, in lat. 59° 37' 23" N., lon. 30° 18½' E. Population (including military) 480,000.

This flourishing emporium was founded by Peter the Great, whose name it bears, in 1703. In the same year, the first merchant ship that ever appeared on the Neva arrived from Holland; and the czar, to mark his sense of the value of such visitors, treated the captain and crew with the greatest hospitality, and loaded them with presents. In 1714, 16 ships arrived at Petersburg; in 1730, the number had increased to 180; and so rapid has been the progress of commerce and civilization in Russia since that period, that, at present, from 1,500 to 1,500 ships annually enter and clear out from Petersburg!

It is much to be regretted, that, although favourable to commerce, the situation of Petersburg is, in other respects, far from being good. The ground on which it stands is low and swampy; it has, on different occasions, sustained great injury from inundations; and the country round is, generally speaking, a morass and forest, so that almost every thing required for the subsistence of the inhabitants must be brought from a distance. No one so bold and daring than Peter the Great would have thought of selecting such a situation for the metropolis of his empire; and none possessed of less power and resolution could have succeeded in overcoming the all but insuperable obstacles which the nature of the country opposed to the completion of his gigantic schemes.

Cronstadt, situated on a small island about 20 miles W. of Petersburg, may, in some measure, be considered as the port of the latter. Almost all vessels bound for Petersburg

touch here; and the goods being conveyed to the demand at the 600 ships; but it is the principal station narrow channel to the one side, and of official survey published Petersburg, Cronst

Trade, &c.—Peter Europe. This arises and from its vast tries have such an ex party of canals, Peter the latter to the capita iron and furs of Sibw; but owing to the during which the rimease quantities of g different ports, and to for river or canal nav that the barks may be current as soon as th the interior during w eldge roads during w and it, as well as the

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much here; and those drawing above 8 feet water load and unload at Cronstadt; the goods being conveyed from and to the city in lighters, the charges of which vary according to the demand at the time. The merchants' harbour at Cronstadt is fitted to contain about 600 ships; but it is exposed to the westerly winds. Cronstadt is strongly fortified, and is the principal station of the Russian fleet. Vessels bound for Petersburg must pass by the narrow channel to the south of the island, commanded by the fortifications of Cronstadt on the one side, and of Cronstot on the other. The woodcut on the next page, taken from the official survey published by the Russian government, gives a better idea of the situation of Petersburg, Cronstadt, &c. than could be derived from any description.

Trade, &c.—Petersburgh has the most extensive foreign trade of any city in the north of Europe. This arises from its being the only great maritime outlet on the Gulf of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior of the country. Few countries have such an extent of internal navigation as Russia. By means partly of rivers, and partly of canals, Petersburg is connected with the Caspian Sea. Goods are conveyed from the latter to the capital, through a distance of 1,434 miles, without once landing them! The iron and furs of Siberia, and the teas of China, are received at Petersburg in the same way; but owing to the great distance of those countries, and the short period of the year during which the rivers and canals are navigable, they take 3 years in their transit. Immense quantities of goods are also conveyed during winter upon the ice, in sledges, to the different ports, and to the nearest *pristans*, or places in the interior, where barks are built for river or canal navigation. They are put on board in anticipation of the period of sailing, that the barks may be ready to take advantage of the high water, by floating down with the current as soon as the snow and ice begin to melt. The cargoes carried up the river into the interior during summer are principally conveyed to their ultimate destinations by the sledge roads during winter. The conveyance by the latter is generally the most expeditious; and it, as well as the internal conveyance by water, is performed at a very moderate expense.

The barks that come from the interior are mostly of a very rude construction, flat-bottomed, and seldom drawing more than 20 or 30 inches water. When they arrive at their destination, they are sold, or broken up for fire-wood. Those that leave the ports for the interior are of a superior description, and are comparatively few in number; the commodities imported being, at an average, of much greater value relatively to their bulk and weight than those that are exported.

Principal Articles of Export and Import.—The principal articles of export are tallow, hemp and flax, iron, copper; grain, particularly wheat; deals and masts, potashos, squirrels, linseed and hemp seed, linseed and hemp seed oils, furs, leather; fox, hare, and squirrel skins; canvass and coarse linen, cordage, caviare, wax, isinglass, tar, &c. Tallow, both for candles and soap, is more largely exported from this than from any other port in the Baltic, and is an article of great commercial importance.—(See TALLOW.) The hemp is of good quality, though inferior to that of Riga: it is assorted, according to its quality, into *clean hemp*, or *firsts*; *outshot hemp*, or *seconds*; and *half-clean hemp*, or *thirds*. The first sort should be quite clean, and free from spills; the second is less so; and the third, or *half-clean*, contains a still greater portion of spills, and is, besides, of mixed qualities and colours. Russian flax is much esteemed for the length of its fibre; it is naturally brownish, but becomes very white after the first bleaching. Three qualities are distinguished; viz. 12 head, 9 head, and 6 head.—(See HEMP AND FLAX.) Iron is of very good quality, and is preferable to that from the other Russian ports: there are two kinds, old and new sible; the former is the best. Leather is largely exported; it is divided into many different sorts.—(See the details with respect to it in the art. RUSSIA LEATHER.) The grain trade between this country and Petersburg has, within the last 7 years, become of very considerable importance; and Russia will, probably, continue henceforth to be one of the principal sources of supply to this country. The *Russian wheat*, so called to distinguish it from the *azemaia*, or soft wheat, and the *kubanka*, or hard wheat, is the lowest description of wheat shipped from Petersburg. It is very small-grained and dingy coloured; being, though sound, unfit for the manufacture of fine bread. The *azemaia* is of a larger, though still not a large grain, and better colour, and has of late been extensively imported into England. The *kubanka*, or hard wheat, is a large semi-transparent grain. Its hardness has nothing of the flinty character of the Spanish hard wheat, which it most resembles. When first brought to London, the millers objected to it, on account of the difficulty experienced in grinding it; but it is now much esteemed. All the Russian wheats are well calculated for keeping, either in granary, or when made into bread: but the *kubanka* has this quality in a peculiar degree; and is in great demand for mixing with other wheats that are old, stale, or out of condition. A shipment of 100 chetwerts of wheat in Petersburg is found, when delivered here, to yield about 72 Imperial quarters. The principal imports are sugar, especially from the Havannah (the importation of refined sugar was prohibited in 1822); coffee, but not in large quantities; madder, indigo, cochineal, and dye woods; cotton stuffs and yarn,—the latter being by far the principal article sent from this country to Russia; woollens, oils, spices, salt, wine, lead, tin, coal, fine linen from Holland and Silesia, &c.

Rapid as has been the increase of Russian commerce, its progress has been materially retarded by restrictions on importation. Considering the immense variety of valuable natural productions with which Russia abounds, the thinness of the population, and the slovenly and ignorance of the great bulk of the people, nothing can be more absurd than the attempts to render them, by dint of Custom-house regulations, rivals of the English and Germans in manufacturing industry! However, it must be confessed, that in enacting prohibitions and restrictions, they are only following a line of policy which we have not yet entirely aban-



References to Plan.—A, Cronslot; B, Man-of-war haven; C, Tolboken light-house, 68 feet high, furnished with a fixed light. Soundings in fathoms. It appears from the above plan, that the depth of water between Cronstadt and Petersburg does not, in some places, exceed 6 or 7 feet; but it is increased about a foot by continued westerly, and is diminished about as much by continued easterly, winds. Cronstedt is, therefore, as already observed, in reality, the port of Petersburg; and has, indeed, a separate Custom-house or jurisdiction. The transfer of goods between the two places by means of lighters has of late years been materially facilitated by the employment of steam tugs.

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known, though it has been quite as injurious to us as it can be to them. We had hoped that sound commercial principles were beginning to get an ascendancy at Petersburg, inasmuch as the ukase of the 26th of March, 1830, materially modified several of the previous restrictions. But more recently a new ukase made its appearance, enacting a considerable increase of duties on several articles. It is, we are afraid, pretty clear, that the Russian government has profited little by the admirable work of M. Storch (*Cours d'Economie Politique*), though written for the special use of the present emperor of Russia, and his brother the Grand Duke Michael, and published by order of the late emperor.

Inspection of Goods.—At Petersburg, Riga, and other Baltic ports, when goods are brought from the interior to be shipped, they are inspected and classified according to their qualities, by officers (*brackers*) appointed by government for that purpose, and sworn to the faithful performance of their duty. All sorts of timber, linen and canvass, flax and hemp, ruseed and hemp seed, ashes, wax, &c. are subject to such inspection. They are generally divided into three qualities: *Krohn* (crown), or superior; *Brack*, or middling; and *Bracks-brack*, or inferior. This classification is said to be, in most cases, made with considerable accuracy. A factor or commission agent in Russia, instructed to buy on account of his correspondent in England or Holland, a specified quantity of any description of produce subject to the official visit, is not liable to any action in the event of the article being found, upon delivery, to be of inferior quality, provided he produce a certificate to show that it had been officially inspected, or *bracked*. But a factor is at liberty, should any article delivered to him be manifestly defective, to name 1 or 2 other *brackers* to decide whether the article be merchantable or not.

Native and Foreign Merchants, &c.—Every Russian carrying on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burghers' book; he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burghers' books, are either townsmen who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first, must possess from 10,000 to 50,000 roubles; these may follow foreign trade, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in carriages drawn by 2 horses. Those belonging to the second guild declare themselves possessed of from 5,000 to 10,000 roubles; they are confined to inland trade. A capital of from 1,000 to 5,000 roubles enables its owner to admission into the third guild, which comprises shopkeepers and petty dealers. The rates paid by the members of these guilds amount to 1 per cent. upon their declared capital, the "statement of which is left to the conscience of every individual." Burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but may provide a substitute, or pay a fine. The *guests*, or foreign merchants, who enrol themselves in the city register, on account of their commercial affairs, enjoy privileges nearly similar to those enjoyed by the members of the first guild.

None but native Russians are allowed to engage in the internal trade of the country; and since a foreigner, who imports goods into Russia, must sell them to Russians only, and at the port where they arrive. A few foreigners, indeed, settled in Russia, and having connections with the natives, do carry on a trade with the interior; but it is contrary to law, and the goods are liable to be seized.

The merchants engaged in foreign trade are mostly foreigners, of whom the English are the principal. The peculiar privileges formerly enjoyed by the latter are now nearly obsolete; and their rights, in common with those of other foreigners, are merely those of *guests*. The English factory is, at present, little more than a society formed of some of the principal English merchants, several of whom, however, do not belong to it: its power extends to little more than the management of certain funds under its control.

Purchase and Sale of Commodities, &c.—Owing to the scarcity of capital in Russia, goods, the produce of the country, are frequently paid in advance; and foreign goods are not commonly sold upon credit. From the month of November till the shipping season in May, the Russians who trade in flax, hemp, tallow, bristles, iron, &c. either come themselves to Petersburg, or employ agents to sell their goods to foreigners, to be delivered, according to agreement, in May, June, July, or August. The payments are made according to the circumstances of the sellers and buyers; sometimes the buyer pays the whole amount, in the winter months, for the goods which are to be delivered in the summer or autumn; and sometimes he pays a part or excludes the contract, and the remainder on delivery of the goods. The manufacturers and dealers in linen usually come to Petersburg in March, and their goods for ready money.

Foreign goods were formerly almost entirely sold at a twelvemonth's credit, and some at a still longer term; but of late years several articles, as coffee and sugar, are sold for ready money; still, however, the great bulk of foreign goods for the supply of the interior is sold on credit. Most of the Russians who buy goods on credit of foreigners, for the use of the interior, have no other connection with Petersburg, than merely coming there once or twice a year to make purchases; which being accomplished, they set off with the goods, and the foreigner neither sees nor hears of them till the bills become due.

It is obvious, from this statement, that experience and sagacity are nowhere more requisite in a merchant than here. He has nothing, in fact, but his own knowledge of the native dealers to depend on; and it is highly creditable to the Russians, that foreigners do not hesitate to trust them with immense sums on such a guaranty. A foreign merchant carrying on business in Russia, must also

Wool Goods Imported.—The following are some of the rates specified in the tariff:—

Wool in bales and chests	17 per cent.	Coatings must be weighed in the sacks after being taken from the chests for every sack of from 4 to 7
Wool in bales and chests—rare	40	pieces
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	sacks of from 2 to 3 1/2 pieces
Wool in bales and chests—rare	17	pieces
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	Englis in pieces—every sack of from 1 1/2 to 7
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	pieces
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	in 1/2 sacks, 1 1/2 to 4 pieces
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	of Guineas
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	in boxes
Wool in bales and chests—rare	30	in boxes

Wool drawn in Russia, and payable after date, are allowed 10 days' grace; but if payable at sight, 3 days only; Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. The Julian calendar, or old style, is still retained throughout Russia. This is twelve days later than the new style; and in leap-years, 13 days, after the month of February.

Port Charges payable on British Ships at the Port of Petersburg.

Year	1800	1801	1802	1803	1804	1805	1806	1807	1808	1809	1810	1811	1812	1813	1814	1815	1816	1817	1818	1819	1820	1821	1822	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833					
Ships	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300	310	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	
Ships	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140	145	150	155	160	165	170	175	180	185	190	195	200

Ships cleared out from Petersburg during the Nine Years ending with 1833.

Year	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833
Ships	801	883	758	749	851	750	910	710	668
Tonnage	78	85	415	478	62	64	63	68	481
Total	1,388	945	1,232	1,290	1,498	1,450	1,598	1,381	1,230

The trade of Petersburg is exhibited in the following Tables:—

I. Official Statement of the Trade of Petersburg in 1833.

Principal Articles	Imports		Exports		Total
	Duty paid.		Duty paid.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Woolen goods	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Iron	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Flax	50,000	50,000	50,000	50,000	100,000
Potatoes	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	2,000,000
Leather, unwrought	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Iron	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Copper	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Straw	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Grain	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Other articles	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	200,000
Total	100,000,000	100,000,000	100,000,000	100,000,000	200,000,000

Official Account of the Values of the Imports into and Exports from Petersburg, with the Produce of the Custom Duty thereon, in each Year since 1800.

Year	Imports	Exports	Duties	Year	Imports	Exports	Duties
1800	20,000,000	20,000,000	2,000,000	1817	110,000,000	100,000,000	10,000,000
1801	22,000,000	22,000,000	2,200,000	1818	120,000,000	110,000,000	12,000,000
1802	24,000,000	24,000,000	2,400,000	1819	130,000,000	120,000,000	13,000,000
1803	26,000,000	26,000,000	2,600,000	1820	140,000,000	130,000,000	14,000,000
1804	28,000,000	28,000,000	2,800,000	1821	150,000,000	140,000,000	15,000,000
1805	30,000,000	30,000,000	3,000,000	1822	160,000,000	150,000,000	16,000,000
1806	32,000,000	32,000,000	3,200,000	1823	170,000,000	160,000,000	17,000,000
1807	34,000,000	34,000,000	3,400,000	1824	180,000,000	170,000,000	18,000,000
1808	36,000,000	36,000,000	3,600,000	1825	190,000,000	180,000,000	19,000,000
1809	38,000,000	38,000,000	3,800,000	1826	200,000,000	190,000,000	20,000,000
1810	40,000,000	40,000,000	4,000,000	1827	210,000,000	200,000,000	21,000,000
1811	42,000,000	42,000,000	4,200,000	1828	220,000,000	210,000,000	22,000,000
1812	44,000,000	44,000,000	4,400,000	1829	230,000,000	220,000,000	23,000,000
1813	46,000,000	46,000,000	4,600,000	1830	240,000,000	230,000,000	24,000,000
1814	48,000,000	48,000,000	4,800,000	1831	250,000,000	240,000,000	25,000,000
1815	50,000,000	50,000,000	5,000,000	1832	260,000,000	250,000,000	26,000,000
1816	52,000,000	52,000,000	5,200,000	1833	270,000,000	260,000,000	27,000,000

Molst Goods Imported.—The following are some of the rates specified in the tariff:—

Wool in sacks	17 per cent.	Cochineal must be weighed in the sacks after being taken from the sacks; for every sack of from 4 to 7 poods	9 lbs.
of flax, in flax and straw	20	sacks of from 2 to 2 1/2 poods	1
of French, in flax and earthenware	40	Ladje in serons; every seron of from 5 1/2 to 7 poods	24
in barrels	36	in 1/2 serons, 2 1/2 to 4 poods	20
and generally on all molst goods in barrels in glass and earthenware	17	of Guatemala	20 per cent.
	20	in boxes	20
Miscellaneous Goods.	8		
in boxes	15		
in chests and barrels			

Bills drawn in Russia, and payable after date, are allowed 10 days' grace; but if payable at sight, 3 days only; Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. The Julian calendar, or old style, is retained throughout Russia. This is twelve days later than the new style; and in leap-years, 13 days, after the month of February.

Port Charges payable on British Ships at the Port of Petersburg.

Rate	{ from	31	41	51	61	71	81	91	101	111	121	131	141	151	161	171	181	191	201	211	221	231	241	251	261	271
	{ to	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270
Ladje	R.	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	76	80	84	88	92	96	100	104	108
Pass	R.	30	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Clearing pass in Crown	R.	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Ball	R.	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Advice money	R.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135
Church	R.	6	7	9	11	12	14	16	17	19	21	23	24	26	28	29	31	33	34	36	38	40	41	43	45	46
Consent church	R.	85	30	85	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140	
In, expenses	R.	6	5	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	
Company's agent	R.	168	196	214	232	250	277	295	322	340	358	386	403	431	449	476	494	522	539	567	585	613	630	658	676	703
Total	R.	168	196	214	232	250	277	295	322	340	358	386	403	431	449	476	494	522	539	567	585	613	630	658	676	703

Ships cleared out from Petersburg during the Nine Years ending with 1833.

Year.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Flags.	Ships.								
British	801	483	753	749	831	753	910	710	608
America	76	87	84	66	62	69	69	69	69
Other nations	411	405	415	475	605	634	630	602	481
Total	1,288	945	1,232	1,290	1,498	1,456	1,569	1,381	1,158

The trade of Petersburg is exhibited in the following Tables:—

I. Official Statement of the Trade of Petersburg in 1833.

Imports.	Exports.

IV. Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign Produce imported into Petersburg in each of the Four Years ending with 1835.

Articles.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Articles.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Alum. - - - - -	15,219	33,616	31,06	53,494	Pepper - - - - -	8,642	8,942	8,990	7,676
Ammonia - - - -	17,737	10,190	9,792	18,751	Pimento - - - -	8,004	890	841	184
Asbestos - - - -	1,448	230	618	1,391	Porter - - - - -	583	733	607	875
Asphalt - - - - -	869	831	696	514	Do. - - - - -	4,610	3,100	3,790	4,748
Beefy - - - - -	104,896	80,798	151,273	151,273	Quercitron bark -	17,975	6,690	6,470	87,173
Bronzes - - - - -	2,118	5,595	556	193	Quicksilver - - -	1,618	1,062	1,461	1,157
Camphor - - - - -					Rice - - - - -	25,208	49,820	31,425	81,310
Cassia and cassia -	1,866	1,453	952	878	Rum - - - - -	7,289	7,357	7,144	5,728
Cinnamon - - - -	734	316	390	15	Safflower - - - -	2,021	5,969	1,766	3,101
Corn - - - - -	1,661	3,768	2,436	3,312	Saffron - - - - -	774	1,107	579	627
Do. - - - - -	3,036	1,655	85	1,434	Sago - - - - -	202	240	230	74
Do. or chocolate nuts -	101,350	111,638	94,728	78,323	Sal ammoniac - - -	2,501	3,124	1,638	2,355
Colza - - - - -	70,185	84,749	110,798	167,968	Salt - - - - -	390,91	662,411	428,330	845,489
Colza, var. - - - -					Sarsaparilla - - -	3 3/4	5,315	4,879	6,399
Cotton, var. - - - -	155,098	99,210	44,890	106,319	Do. - - - - -	23,129	15,116	10,422	10,129
Castor oil, viz. - - -					Skims, bear - - - -	1,618	981	189	913
Castor oil and - - -	43,081	39,754	29,237	36,010	Do. - - - - -	50,284	43,618	19,185	43,429
Castor oil - - - -	8,377	15,190	3,396	4,399	Sugar, raw, Brazil -	9,697	23,405	47,494	7,543
Castor oil - - - -	15-9	3,211	6,839	7,681	Do. Havannah - -	1,367,726	1,358,167	1,179,837	1,048,211
Castor oil - - - -	19,841	37,868	23,631	25,744	Do. all other kinds -	6,821	454	450	18,417
Castor oil - - - -	30,234	42,581	33,899	55,469	Tin - - - - -	33,980	29,324	18,839	16,903
Castor oil - - - -	30,8	307	603	1,111	Twist, dyed - - - -	33,839	20,494	10,362	4,627
Castor oil - - - -	8,700	3,035	3,961	3,979	Do. undyed - - - -	641,014	532,854	441,918	875,819
Castor oil - - - -	10,859	6,808	4,574	9,336	Wine, Champagne -	875,267	427,227	353,441	329,051
Castor oil - - - -	803	793	330	603	Do. - - - - -	18,011	9,159	6,559	10,478
Castor oil - - - -	931	1,199	5,074	3,853	Port. and Span. - -	4,124	6,059	4,011	4,279
Castor oil - - - -	170	137	67	61	Rhenish - - - - -	1,365	1,031	1,00	967
Castor oil - - - -	5,393	6,121	3,521	11,962	Woods, Brazil, Niche-	76,329	96,264	100,301	114,692
Castor oil - - - -	30,736	31,353	23,305	22,773	Do. all other kinds -	4,224	1,782	2,965	6,507
Castor oil - - - -	23,514	13,501	129,843	156,773	Do. - - - - -	16,111	54,291	104,858	22,779
Castor oil - - - -	10,708	17,456	12,598	19,497	Do. - - - - -	274,523	504,373	184,81	166,004
Castor oil - - - -	437	248	563	3,718	Do. - - - - -	36,846	65,571	81,152	66,868
Castor oil - - - -	75,077	36,312	68,083	117,375	Woolen goods, viz. -	37,744	25,753	24,815	21,443
Castor oil - - - -	14,731	9,173	14,418	19,465	Camlets - - - - -	1,067	2,932	3,705	7,859
Castor oil - - - -	87	34	85	66	Carpets - - - - -	618	511	506	411
Castor oil - - - -	854	737	699	995	Do. - - - - -	2,346	998	265	178
Castor oil - - - -	135,332	110,072	149,003	122,308	Ladies' cloth - - -				

V. Official Statement of the Trade of the principal Russian Cities in 1830 and 1831.

Place.	Imports.		Exports.		Duties.	
	1830.	1831.	1830.	1831.	1830.	1831.
Petersburgh - - -	131,943,177	160,363,541	111,255,172	118,568,878	37,597,567	43,118,367
Novorossisk - - -	377,662	908,570	715,740	838,408	No returns.	No returns.
Yaroslavl - - - -	5,362,556	4,949,742	499,019	863,843	662,107	692,508
Smolensk - - - -	1,938,948	1,565,281	1,062,260	1,074,744	No returns.	No returns.
Orsk - - - - -	9,405	12,158	123,017	153,017	127,268	14,517
Do. - - - - -	83,389	61,893	54,270	67,041	1,084	16,680
Do. - - - - -	15,833,698	14,123,895	45,059,132	56,877,269	7,491,643	7,196,081
Do. - - - - -	1,189,086	1,155,672	11,893,938	12,629,710	1,344,672	1,433,321
Do. - - - - -	24,161,121	21,189,121	27,951,980	28,139,132	3,641,073	3,500,891
Do. - - - - -	4,326,814	6,410,524	9,395,947	9,402,298	1,387,123	1,588,827
Do. - - - - -	562,543	564,818	2,455,599	5,085,115	848,127	448,078
Do. - - - - -	90,708	55,234	491,244	461,026	No returns.	No returns.
Do. - - - - -	262,756	259,903	2,459,636	3,315,310	418,935	324,168
Do. - - - - -	24,728	15,993	265,233	379,855	61,912	99,643
Do. - - - - -	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.	No returns.	1,677,804	997,548

Official Statement of the British and Foreign Shipping at the Port of Petersburg, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1833.

Of what Countries.	Win-tered 1832.	New built.	Arrived in 1833.							Lasting.		Wintering.		
			Full Car-goes.	Part Goods.	In Ballast.	Total.	At the Ports.				Of Ships arrived.	Of Ships sailed.	In Petersburgh.	In Cross-stadt.
							Petersburgh.	Cross-stadt.	Peterm.	Cron.				
Great Britain	4	372	32	290	694	30	661	1	1	1	1	1	2	
Prussia	1	58	1	9	62	1	61	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Denmark	1	19	1	1	17	11	6	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Netherlands	1	7	1	1	9	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Sweden	1	15	9	14	81	30	51	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Spain	1	9	1	1	9	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	
France	3	25	2	11	38	34	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Germany	1	14	1	9	47	39	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Poland	9	96	6	9	43	91	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Portugal	1	6	1	1	7	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Italy	1	9	1	1	9	1	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Belgium	1	41	1	1	42	1	41	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Denmark	1	7	1	1	8	7	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Sweden	7	61	10	16	77	61	16	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Prussia	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Denmark	4	7	25	10	8	82	10	36	10	45	11,183-12	10,748	1	
Netherlands	1	4	1	1	6	5	1	1	1	6	314-14	254-12	1	
Sweden	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Denmark	8	37	4	14	1	20	35	1	1	67	4,969	4,309	1	
Prussia	1	31	3	10	41	31	10	1	1	44	1,634	1,634	1	
Total	30	764	94	280	1,238*	839	899	10	3	1,239	116,099-12	116,967-12	14	
1832					1,404					1,961				
1833 & increase of					185					124				

Remarks on Tables.—It would appear from the above Tables, that the trade of Petersburg has increased with extraordinary rapidity since 1812. But though its increase since that epoch has been very considerable, it has not been by any means so great as might be inferred from the previous statements.

* Of these, 155 ships brought coals.

The reason is, that the returns are all made in paper rubles; and that they have borne a much lower value, as compared with silver, since 1812, than they did previously. Since 1826, however, the value of the paper rouble has been pretty constant; and in the interval there has been a considerable increase of trade. We have no doubt, indeed, that the commerce of Russia has yet only in its infancy; and that it will continue to increase according as the increase of population and the slow but gradual progress of civilization develop the gigantic resources of this great country. It is reasonable, I would suppose that this development will be accelerated by the adoption of a more liberal system of commercial policy.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN 1834.

Account of the Total Values, as per Price Currents, of the different Articles exported from Russia to Foreign Countries in 1834, and of those imported by her from the same; specifying the Exports to and Imports from each Country.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	Countries.	Exports.	Imports.
Sweden	Roubles. 3,481,423	Roubles. 8,586,108	Great Britain	Roubles. 105,777,912	Roubles. 63,838,808	Turkey	Roubles. 18,518,588	Roubles. 18,410,000
Prussia	12,722,418	16,451,597	Spain and Por.	10,871,770	12,530,647	Asia	17,498,441	13,231,194
Denmark	6,259,831	5,486,608	Italy	3,821,476	4,181,319	America	10,873,248	21,212,261
Elisavet	1,432,088		Austria	10,542,400	11,156,758	Other places	2,719,681	24,000
Hesse Towas	5,314,812	27,871,719	Total			Total	217,822,446	14,020,800
Holland	8,982,837	6,205,155						

General View of the Foreign Trade of the Russian Empire in 1834.

Exports.	By European Frontiers.	By Asiatic Frontiers.	Total.	Imports.	By European Frontiers.	By Asiatic Frontiers.	Total.
Articles for consumption—manufacture	Roubles. 170,023,836	Roubles. 2,980,250	Roubles. 174,014,186	Articles for consumption—manufacture	Roubles. 66,257,313	Roubles. 7,892,731	Roubles. 74,150,044
— manufactured	13,901,286	5,407,755	24,309,023	— manufactured	36,578,501	6,694,143	43,272,644
Sundries	7,294,813	5,294,777	11,203,020	Sundries	18,550,988	5,048,988	23,600,000
Gold and silver	6,152,458	455,268	6,607,726	Gold and silver	1,085,301	11,821,511	12,906,812
				Confiscated goods	451,248	36,277	487,525
Value per price currents	208,018,786	17,940,063	225,958,839	Value per price currents	211,534,223	22,964,631	234,498,854
Excess of imports			5,840,013	Value per declarations	242,464,584	22,854,631	265,319,215
Value per declarations	222,441,648	17,960,063	240,391,701	Value per declarations	227,149,598	22,854,631	250,004,229
Excess of imports			23,027,817	Excess of exports			11,821,511
Average value	215,280,217	17,960,063	233,180,270	Average value	227,149,598	22,854,631	250,004,229
Excess of imports			16,623,516	Excess of exports			11,821,511

Account of Ships arrived in the different Ports of the Russian Empire in 1833.

Arrived at	From	Russ. Port.	Gr. Britain.	Sweden.	Prussia.	Denmark.	Holland.	Hesse-towas.	Germany.	France.	Spain.	Portugal.	Italy.	Austria.	Malta.	Ionian Isles.	Morocco.	Greece.	Turkey.	Manchuk.	India.	Egypt.	China.	Amoy.	Total.	
Cronstadt and Petersburg		8	681	95	186	68	108	139	25	135	12	7	16	9	4											1,000
Narva		1	14	19	2	7	13	9	7	2																100
Russia		1	2	1																						100
Rosol		1	2	1																						100
Riga		0	341	158	101	185	864	112	119	91	2	19	1													1,500
Arensburg		0	3	4																						100
Poron		0	18	12		9	10	20	6	4																100
Liban		0	18	54	87	82	94	7	23	9	1	12	1													100
Windau		0	3	10	9	13	6		5	1																100
Total Baltic Sea		21	1,017	256	298	378	630	273	191	248	16	43	20	3												1,800
Archangel		0	233			3	89	32	1	11																100
Georg		0	14				1																			100
Total White Sea		0	247			3	90	32	1	11																100
Odessa		0	30	1						103	3			182	60	48	12	10	128							1,000
Theodosia		0																	85							100
Tyngour		0	1											19	2				294							100
Kerch		0																	136							100
Eupatoria		0																	81							100
Ismail		0																	171							100
Anapa		0																	8							100
Redoutala		0	12																8							100
Total Black Sea		0	13	30	1					103	3			201	62	47	12	10	908							1,000
Astrakhan		0	29																7							100
Baku		0	95																92							100
Total Caspian Sea		0	124																69							100
Grand total		21	1,294	468	301	375	751	303	192	343	16	43	221	62	47	12	10	908	69	8	18	43	3	4	11	1,800

In compiling this article, we have consulted Storck's *Pictura of Petersburg*, c. 6. 1. *Statistik der russischen Statistisches Générale de la Russie*, pp. 133-137; *Rioud, Traité Général du Commerce*, c. 25. tom. II. pp. 269-317; *Tooke's View of Russia*, book 12; *Coze's Travels in the North of Europe*, vol. III. pp. 282-358. &c.; *Oddy's European Commerce*, p. 69. 1. *Returns from the Consuls at Petersburg and Odessa*; but we have derived our principal information from the private communications of our next Russian merchants.

(Law as to Ships' Stores and Provisions in Petersburg and other Russian Ports.—Much inconvenience having arisen to shipmasters in Russian ports, from their not attending to the following regulations to stores, &c., they are enjoined for their information:—Shipmasters arriving in ports of the Baltic from beyond the Sound, or in the ports of the Black and Aroff seas from beyond the Dardanelles, are allowed to pass for the use of their crews for each day of the same, including the shipmasters—

Whitish Liquors, Russian weight: tea Duty is to be paid Note—If the overplus of the duty on adm... account of the Quar... for Great Br... Best, 1836.)

Articles.	Quantity.	Price.
Tallow	5,039,164	1,175,138
Beef	1,175,138	91,733
Flax	91,733	165,723
Wool	165,723	66,156
Iron	66,156	4,654
Lead	4,654	66,156
Wool	66,156	5,823
Iron	5,823	908,071
Lead	908,071	2,034
Wool	2,034	6,433
Iron	6,433	2,535,531
Total value		

PEWTER (Ger... *Opus*), a fact... It is a compound, th... 1/20th or less of co... shown to be most... zinc, bismuth, and a... plate, trifle, and ley... It is made the pie... measures and large r... PHILADELPHI... the confluence of th... Population, in 1830,

Harbor, Light-house... castle, but those draw... little below the city... has Cape May on its n... 79° 47' W., is a san... been surmounted by a... 30 seconds being su... Cape Henlo... 23° W. A little south... erected a light-house... 10 leagues off. To the... house has been constru... which may be seen at... the banks called the O... ships to take pilots. T... between this cape, she... board.—*Coast* sur... Trade.—The exports... rural products, timber... ports are entrin, wool... Philadelphia in the thr... and Boston. The reg... amounted to 79,069... articles imported in... dollars: the total val... Russia.—There were... United States. Allow... in the city, the tota... 10,000,000 dollars, on... bank of the late Mr. G... by J. H. Goddard, Eq... issue notes for less th... sem. In Philadelphia... have been many failure... Insurance.—There we... capital of 3,250,000 d... the rate of 8-300 per ca... There were also, in... 2,000,000 dollars. The... with a capital of 200,000... capital.

In Pennsylvania, the... (See New York.) Weights and Measure

Regulations of the Port.—If any master or captain of any ship or vessel, or other person, shall refuse or neglect to comply with the regulations of the harbour master, in matters within the jurisdiction of the district, such person shall, for each and every such offence, severally forfeit and pay any sum not exceeding 100 dollars. And the harbour master, when in full communication for his services be called to have, recover, and receive from the master, captain, or owner, or consignee of each and every ship or vessel arriving at the wharf in Philadelphia (except vessels not exceeding the full ton of 75 per cent) the sum of 1 dollar for each and every voyage by such ship or vessel performed, and no more.

Every ship or vessel that may arrive in this harbour, and that shall anchor in the stream any where between Almond and Vine Streets, having previously caused her gunpowder, if any she had on board, to be landed as the law directs, may remain in that situation here, to be loaded as she may be, or to be taken to the island or wharf, as she may be consistent with their safety. But if, from the circumstances of a vessel having servants on board, or from any other cause, it may be thought necessary or convenient to lie a longer time than is in an, then, and in every such case, the owner, master, pilot, or other person having the charge or direction of such vessel, shall be at liberty to move, to the northward of Vine Street, with 1 anchor and cable up, and 1 anchor and cable down the stream; and in both the above-mentioned situations, the regulation contained in the next succeeding article to be duly attended to.

If any vessel properly moored in the stream shall have her anchor or cable overlaid by any other vessel in anchoring or mooring, the master or person having the care or direction of such last-mentioned vessel shall immediately, or as soon as may be after application made in this behalf by the party aggrieved, cause the said anchor or cable so overlaid to be taken up and cleared. When any ship or vessel shall be bound to say wharf or dock, or alongside of another vessel, that any vessel may have the command, care, or direction of her, shall have her anchor made fast, and if outside of another vessel, shall get her good fast from each end of the vessel to the shore, with sufficient ladders between them and the hoise vessel; and shall cause the ladders of their anchors to be taken in board, and, within 24 hours thereafter, cause her jibboom, spritsail yard, main boom, spanker and rigging boom, if any they have, to be rigged in, and their lower ports opened up, in such a manner as least to interfere with vessels moored.

If the hull of vessels when moored at a wharf shall extend across the dock, so to obstruct the passage or repairing of shallops, lighters, or other craft or vessel, the master or other person having the command of such ship or vessel shall, upon the first application, immediately cause such part of the hull to be cut off or stacked down.

No outward-bound vessel, putting off from a wharf, shall lie longer in the stream between Vine Street and Almond, in the district of both ways above mentioned, than 24 hours. And if vessels lying at the end of a wharf so much interlock with each other as to prevent vessels hauling in and out of docks, the master, owner, pilot, or other person having the charge of the same, shall, immediately on application from any person so wanting to haul his vessel in or out of docks aforesaid, have the vessel or vessels so interfering, moved in such a manner as to accommodate the one applied for; in which case the vessel making room for another to haul in or out shall have liberty to make her ways fast to the most convenient place adjacent, for a reasonable time; and all sea vessels, when transporting or waiting to haul into a wharf or dock, or to make sail, in order to proceed to sea, shall have the same privilege.

When any ship or vessel may be lying alongside any wharf, and making in or discharging, she shall make way for and permit any vessel that wants to unload or load, to come inside, near the wharf, until she discharges or loads her cargo; and the said vessel, when so discharging or loading, shall haul outside and give way to the vessel that first occupied the wharf; provided that, from the 10th of December to the 1st of March, no vessel be compelled to move from her berth (only those at Gloucester Point pier), excepting to let vessel in and out of docks.

No ship or vessel loading or discharging hemp at any wharf, or within any dock, shall be allowed to have any fire on board; neither shall any vessel lying outside or near her be permitted to have fire on board, while it may be considered dangerous. And no tar, tur-

peniles, resin, or pitch, shall be heated on the wharf, or on board any vessel lying at any wharf within the limit of the city.

Rate of Pilotage.—Inwards, up to 12 feet, at 2 67 dollars per foot; above 12 feet, at 3-33 dollars.
Outwards, up to 12 feet, at 2 dollars; above 12 feet, at 2-67 dollars.

Inwards.			Outwards.		
6 feet to	Dolls.	cts.	6 feet to	Dolls.	cts.
12	23	0	10	0	0
14	27	0	11	0	0
16	31	0	12	0	0
17	35	0	13	0	0
18	39	0	14	0	0
19	43	0	15	0	0
20	47	0	16	0	0
21	51	0	17	0	0
22	55	0	18	0	0
23	59	0	19	0	0
24	63	0	20	0	0
25	67	0	21	0	0
26	71	0	22	0	0
27	75	0	23	0	0
28	79	0	24	0	0
29	83	0	25	0	0
30	87	0	26	0	0
31	91	0	27	0	0
32	95	0	28	0	0
33	99	0	29	0	0
34	103	0	30	0	0
35	107	0	31	0	0
36	111	0	32	0	0
37	115	0	33	0	0
38	119	0	34	0	0
39	123	0	35	0	0
40	127	0	36	0	0
41	131	0	37	0	0
42	135	0	38	0	0
43	139	0	39	0	0
44	143	0	40	0	0
45	147	0	41	0	0
46	151	0	42	0	0
47	155	0	43	0	0
48	159	0	44	0	0
49	163	0	45	0	0
50	167	0	46	0	0

Every vessel arriving from, or bound to, a foreign port, is required by law to receive a pilot, or to pay half pilotage in the warder's office, where the master of every such vessel is required, under the penalty of 10 dollars, to make a report within 36 hours after his arrival, and again before his departure, signing his name to said report in the warder's book.

Every vessel of 75 tons and upwards arriving from, or bound to, any port within the United States, and the master of all such vessels, are bound as above.

The pilot of every vessel is required to inform the master of his having to report at the warder's office. As vessels obliged to receive a pilot are required to pay 10 dollars in addition, as winter pilotage, from the 30th of November to the 10th of March, both days inclusive.

Foreign vessels, i. e. French, Spanish, Portuguese, Neapolitan, Danish, Russian, South American, and Italian, to pay 2 dollars 67 cents in addition to other pilotage.

Every pilot detained more than 24 hours by any master, owner, or consignee, is entitled to 2 dollars per day for every day he is so detained. Every pilot detained more than 48 hours by the ice, after he has conducted his vessel to a place of safety, is entitled to 5 dollars per day for every day he is so detained.

Every pilot compelled to perform quarantine is entitled to 2 dollars per day, for every day he is so detained, and cannot be discharged in less than 8 days, without his consent.

Every pilot obliged by the ice or stress of weather to proceed to another port, in which there is no pilotage, and if there discharged, to 6 cents a mile for every mile he has to travel home.

Every pilot is required, under a penalty of 12 dollars, to make report, within 48 hours, at the warder's office, of every vessel he con- ducts to the city.

Rates of Commission recommended for general Adoption, and allowed by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, when no Agreement subsists to the contrary, established at a stated Meeting on the 10th of March, 1823.

	Foreign.		Domestic.		
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	
Merchandise, sales	5	5	1-2	1-2	on gross amount.
Purchase and shipment, or accepting bills for purchases	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on cost and charges.
Loading and re-shipping goods from vessels in distress	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on current value.
Receiving and forwarding	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on ditto.
Rebills	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on responsibilities incurred.
Vessels sold or purchased	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on gross amount.
Procuring freight or chartering to proceed to another port	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on ditto.
Collecting freight or general average	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on amount collected.
Paying profits or disbursements	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on aggregate amount.
Marine insurances, effecting, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent.	5	5	1-2	1-2	on amount insured.
When the premium exceeds 10 per cent.	5	5	1-2	1-2	on amount of premiums.
Adjusting and collecting losses without litigation	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on amount recovered.
Fire insurances, effecting	5	5	1-2	1-2	on amount of premium.
Adjusting and collecting losses	1	1	1	1	on amount recovered.
Foreign and inland bills of exchange and notes of hand, drawing or indorsing and negotiating, in all cases	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on the proceeds.
Purchase without indorsing	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on cost and charges.
Bill ditto	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on the proceeds.
Collecting	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount collected.
Paying o or the amount	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount paid over.
Remitting	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on amount remitted.
Public stocks, specie, bank notes, or drafts not current, sale	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on proceeds.
Purchase	1-1/2	1-1/2	1-2	1-2	on cost and charges.
Collecting dividends on public stock	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount collected.
Advance in money, or by coming under acceptance, in all cases	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on amount advanced.
Accounts, collecting disputed or litigated accounts, or claims on insolvent estates	5	5	1-2	1-2	on amount recovered.
Money, receiving, from which no other commission is derived	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount received.
Pay ditto	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount paid.
Paying and receiving ditto	1-2	1-2	1-2	1-2	on amount received.
Quarantine, in all cases	2-1/2	2-1/2	1-2	1-2	on the amount guaranteed.

On bills remitted for collection under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, 1-2 commission to be charged.
On consignment of merchandise withdrawn or re-shipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and 1-2 commission on the current value of the residue.
On sales of merchandise originally consigned to another house, but withdrawn, and where no responsibilities are incurred, only 1-2 commission to be charged on the current value.

The current value in all cases to be settled by certificate of 2 respectable merchants, auctioneers, or brokers.
The above commissions to be exclusive of guarantee, brokerage, storage, and every other charge actually incurred.
The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is, in all cases, to be borne by the proprietor of the goods.

[The following table exhibits the Number of Vessels which arrived in the port of Philadelphia from the 1st of January 1787, to the 1st of January, 1840.

Year.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.	Year.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1787	596	390	986	1813	54	310	363
1788	411	490	901	1814	43	583	626
1789	324	376	700*	1815	487	1,113	1,600
1790	639	715	1,354	1816	538	1,101	1,639
1791	598	853	1,448	1817	532	1,238	1,770
1792	-	-	-	1818	678	1,101	1,777
1793	-	-	-	1819	450	1,042	1,492
1794	618	1,250	1,868	1820	479	977	1,456
1795	779	1,233	2,012	1821	441	813	1,254
1796	858	1,011	1,869	1822	494	1,212	1,706
1797	641	929	1,570	1823	482	1,018	1,500
1798	450	1,002	1,452	1824	501	961	1,462
1799	443	825	1,268	1825	484	1,195	1,679
1800	530	1,051	1,581	1826	482	1,195	1,677
1801	697	1,125	1,822	1827	469	1,320	1,789
1802	653	1,108	1,761	1828	450	1,317	1,767
1803	611	1,064	1,675	1829	374	2,210	2,584
1804	496	1,292	1,788	1830	415	3,287	3,702
1805	520	1,225	1,745	1831	396	3,262	3,658
1806	704	1,213	1,917	1832	423	2,849	3,272
1807	701	1,170	1,871	1833	474	2,573	3,047
1808	293	1,951	2,244	1834	430	2,636	3,116
1809	351	1,883	2,234	1835	433	3,579	4,022
1810	405	1,477	1,882	1836	431	3,764	4,195
1811	500	1,423	1,923	1837	409	7,776	8,185
1812	323	1,540	1,863	1838	464	10,860	11,324
				1839	521	11,188	11,709

The Arrivals in 1839, were

Ships -	90	Columbian	1
Barques -	37	Danish	1
Brigs -	274	Dutch	1
Schooners -	117	French	1
Galliot -	1	Genoese	1
Mastedo -	1	Hamburg	1
Sloop -	1	Haytian	1
		Portuguese	1
		Prussian	1
		Russian	1
		Spanish	1
		Swedish	1
		Total	80

Value of the Goods Imported into this port during the year 1837 and 1838, and three quarters of 1839.

In 1837,	\$10,130,838
1838,	10,417,815
1839, (three quarters)	12,571,164

Showing an increase in the three quarters of this year, of \$2,153,349, over the whole of 1838.

Duties accruing to the United States from imports into this port during the fiscal year in 1838 and 1839.

1st quarter, October 1st to December 31st, 1838,	\$139,629 50
2d do, January 1st to March 31st, 1839,	735,680 51
3d do, April 1st to June 30th,	717,063 78
4th do, July 1st to September 30th -	1,078,938 77

Total,	\$2,971,122 97
In 1838 the amount was	1,917,108 80
Showing an increase of	1,054,014 17

Statement showing the Amount of Domestic Produce Exported from the port of Philadelphia, to Foreign Ports, from the 1st of January to the 30th of September, 1839.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Wheat flour, bbls.	132,150	Beef, bbls.	293
Rye do, do.	20,706	Hides, No.	365
Corn meal, do.	56,712	Tallow, pounds	1,514
Corn, bush.	11,971	Pickled fish, bbls.	1,363
Ship bread, bbls.	14,068	Ginseng, pounds	317,443
do, kegs	16,214	Sperm & whale oil, galls.	28,094
Rice, tierces	449	Sperm candles, pounds	31,860
Pork, bbls.	1,082	Tallow candles do.	74,885
Hams and bacon, pounds	46,157	Soap, do.	755,186
Lard, do.	300,694	Rosin & turpentine, bbls.	14,486
Butter, do.	61,690	Tar and pitch, do.	926
Cheese, do.	8,805	White and coloured cotton goods,	100,958

* From the 1st of August to 31st December: no records previous part of the year.
† The documents for these two years lost or mislaid. ‡ Embargo.
§ War with Great Britain. || Opening of the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal

Comparative State during the

1837 - First quarter	10
Second do	10
Third do	10
Fourth do	10

1838 - First quarter
Second do
Third do
Fourth do

Comparative State Five Years, from the benefit of Dr

1838.	1837.
January -	22
February -	10
March -	1,31
April -	2,93
May -	2,15
June -	2,80
July -	67
August -	2,13
September -	22
October -	64
November -	2,18
December -	1,07
Total -	16,40

1838.	
January -	70
February -	19
March -	2,04
April -	91
May -	3,53
June -	4,03
July -	1,16
August -	79
September -	1,30
October -	1,89
November -	81
December -	81
Total -	18,18

1837.	
January -	-
February -	19
March -	3,01
April -	3,39
May -	2,30
June -	1,53
July -	70
August -	4,12
September -	1,56
October -	70
November -	8
December -	2,11
Total -	19,08

Comparative State du

Imported from	
Liquors	-
Rio de Janeiro	-
S Domingo	-
Cuba	-
Puerto Rico	-
Java	-
Macao	-
Manila	-
All other places	-
Total	-

Comparative Statement of the Value of Foreign and Domestic Goods exported from Philadelphia during the years 1837 and 1838, and the three quarters of 1839 ending September 30th.

	Foreign.	Domestic.		Foreign.	Domestic.
1837—First quarter,	\$113,041	\$383,732	1839—First quarter,	\$114,703	\$381,662
Second do.	315,627	650,517	Second do.	499,897	1,307,061
Third do.	489,180	786,677	Third do.	334,023	1,180,907
Fourth do.	480,468	706,550			
Total,	\$1,436,316	\$2,567,815	Total,	\$948,558	\$3,309,630
1838—First quarter,	\$51,227	\$282,702	RECAPITULATION.		
Second do.	323,078	816,001	Total value in 1837,	\$4,004,131	
Third do.	131,833	685,961	1838,	3,172,051	
Fourth do.	202,646	778,531	— three quarters of 1839,	4,318,188	
Total,	\$708,780	\$2,463,265			

Comparative Statement of the Amount of Foreign Sugar Imported into the Port of Philadelphia for Five Years, from 1835 to 1839, Inclusive. With the Quantity Exported during the same period for the benefit of Drawback.

1835.							1838.																																									
Month.	Bacon.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Eng.	Cases.	Java Cans.	Month.	Bacon.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Eng.	Cases.	Java Cans.																																			
January -	229	64	-	-	-	-	January -	269	9	404	-	-	-																																			
February -	102	-	739	-	-	-	February -	123	-	5	-	-	-																																			
March -	1,318	1,048	1,943	2,494	-	-	March -	2,078	858	6,012	10,735	36	-																																			
April -	2,927	1,135	1,439	1,562	148	-	April -	2,260	1,632	423	-	-	-																																			
May -	2,138	1,035	1,411	620	-	-	May -	2,605	1,112	1,455	107	-	-																																			
June -	2,809	1,409	425	6,298	-	692	June -	1,759	1,637	2,431	-	-	-																																			
July -	672	443	2,481	-	-	-	July -	1,808	1,429	401	309	-	-																																			
August -	2,134	564	1,179	-	-	-	August -	4,558	963	1,978	-	16	-																																			
September -	322	158	1,024	-	123	-	September -	2,786	532	720	20	-	-																																			
October -	642	14	1,523	-	-	-	October -	4,437	547	261	-	-	-																																			
November -	2,130	254	184	-	-	-	November -	1,738	6	1,081	2,866	-	-																																			
December -	1,078	140	1,945	4,214	46	167	December -	3,537	135	52	3,375	-	130																																			
Total -	16,408	6,424	14,288	15,218	317	859	Total -	27,922	9,050	17,218	17,412	53	130																																			
1836.							1839.																																									
January -	70	-	-	-	-	-	January -	441	-	1,250	51	-	-																																			
February -	-	-	-	-	-	-	February -	339	171	4	-	-	-																																			
March -	2,046	375	4,483	5,445	11	1705	March -	1,788	1,814	3,079	3,250	-	-																																			
April -	911	1,093	119	-	-	-	April -	3,226	1,399	2,096	1,798	-	-																																			
May -	3,537	905	2,938	469	-	-	May -	3,575	1,895	330	401	-	-																																			
June -	4,033	1,500	3,440	260	-	2839	June -	1,412	1,189	1,858	401	-	-																																			
July -	1,165	891	6,129	609	-	-	July -	1,530	2,602	3,593	4,900	117	-																																			
August -	759	778	2,771	814	106	-	August -	3,778	1,080	1,813	-	-	-																																			
September -	1,305	567	1,694	42	182	-	September -	3,067	732	203	154	-	-																																			
October -	1,692	264	207	5,962	-	-	October -	2,706	318	867	-	-	-																																			
November -	1,800	345	318	-	143	-	November -	1,592	92	676	3	-	-																																			
December -	814	-	375	11	-	-	December -	101	111	1,025	-	-	-																																			
Total -	18,183	6,410	21,924	13,722	834	4544	Total -	23,458	11,391	16,807	10,575	117	-																																			
<p>The Amount Exported during the same period for the benefit of drawback, has been as follows, viz.—</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Year.</th> <th>Bacon.</th> <th>Hhds.</th> <th>Bbls.</th> <th>Eng.</th> <th>Cases.</th> <th>Java Cans.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1835 -</td> <td>167</td> <td>10</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1836 -</td> <td>1,135</td> <td>-</td> <td>4,215</td> <td>3,829</td> <td>-</td> <td>2839</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1837 -</td> <td>4,746</td> <td>219</td> <td>30</td> <td>600</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1838 -</td> <td>403</td> <td>-</td> <td>2,805</td> <td>1,447</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1839 -</td> <td>4,942</td> <td>44</td> <td>75</td> <td>2,508</td> <td>-</td> <td>-</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>							Year.	Bacon.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Eng.	Cases.	Java Cans.	1835 -	167	10	-	-	-	-	1836 -	1,135	-	4,215	3,829	-	2839	1837 -	4,746	219	30	600	-	-	1838 -	403	-	2,805	1,447	-	-	1839 -	4,942	44	75	2,508	-	-
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<p>The gross weight of Refined Sugar, exported in 1839, for the benefit of bounty, was 214 tons, 13 cwt. 1 quar. and 10 lbs.</p>																																																

Comparative Statement of the Quantity of Coffee Imported into Philadelphia from Foreign Ports, during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1839.

Imported from	1835.				1836.			1837.			1838.			1839.		
	Bags.	Hhds.	Tons.	Bls.	Bags.	Tons.	Bls.	Bags.	Hhds.	Bls.	Bags.	Hhds.	Tons.	Bls.		
Luzon	17,200	-	-	-	24,710	-	-	18,414	-	-	28,927	-	-	25,99		
Rio de Janeiro	1,824	-	-	-	58,108	-	-	36,537	-	-	45,369	-	-	46,476		
St Domingo	12,218	-	-	-	3,784	-	-	4,498	-	-	12,578	-	-	3,201		
Cuba	2,538	-	-	-	5,580	-	-	12,443	-	-	9,745	-	-	4,717		
Porto Rico	2,437	-	-	-	1,968	-	-	1,484	-	-	1,667	-	-	80		
Java	11,748	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	603	-	-	10		
Marsabit	1,808	-	-	-	2,706	-	-	3,309	-	-	3,122	-	-	6,788		
Europe	68	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	714	-	-	103		
All other places	6	47	21	421	5	46	-	136	470	138	109	769	18	97		
Total -	66,031	47	81	424	93,882	3	46	78,671	136	470	112,251	138	109	80,158	98	9

Comparative Statement of the Gross Amount of weighable Foreign Merchandise Imported into Philadelphia during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1840.

Names of Articles.	1835.			1836.			1837.			1838.			1839.			1840.			
	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cvts.	Lbs.	
Iron, railroad	1,490	8	2	5,039	14	10	4,692	2	4	5,820	8	9	6,005	14	11	6,005	14	11	
Roll bar	1,104	8	3	1,445	1	8	1,084	2	90	2,108	8	14	2,634	11	8	2,634	11	8	
Hammered, sheet, rod, and hoop	298	12	9	1,840	12	28	637	4	13	984	17	1	1,199	24	13	1,199	24	13	
Pig	436	9	8	436	9	8	1,163	17	19	840	16	9	866	16	9	866	16	9	
Old scrap	69	8	5	33	1	5	31	10	27	9	8	62	11	8	111	8	8	111	
Castings	33	18	5	44	1	23	68	19	11	66	8	10	101	10	10	101	10	10	
Chain cables and anchors	59	15	3	30	40	1	19	18	2	88	11	1	68	14	3	68	14	3	
Steel	332	8	1	177	3	10	836	8	8	197	2	1	161	8	1	161	8	1	
Anvil	91	1	2	85	9	19	60	8	14	56	9	19	81	19	8	81	19	8	
Nails and spikes	34	17	3	83	9	1	27	83	12	3	134	17	1	170	4	1	170	4	1
Hammers and sledges	4	19	2	11	6	11	17	1	8	25	13	1	14	8	1	14	8	1	
Iron wire	12	8	1	43	7	3	10	15	9	21	2	19	18	13	1	18	13	1	
Lead, pig and old	87	18	2	87	18	2	87	18	2	16	11	1	16	11	1	16	11	1	
Hemp, Russia	264	9	2	453	2	6	17	14	1	84	10	1	84	10	1	84	10	1	
Cordage	7	18	9	12	3	6	12	3	6	119	9	3	9	9	3	9	9	3	
Tallow	72	4	3	36	9	3	24	3	2	4	119	9	3	9	9	3	9	9	
Oliver	64	15	9	4	9	15	11	17	14	1	15	33	4	9	9	9	9	9	
Briars of lead and pellets	34	3	5	3	10	1	8	1	13	8	2	8	1	14	1	14	1	14	
Glue	9	9	1	16	3	1	6	3	1	6	3	1	6	3	1	6	3	1	
Wood	949	18	3	966	3	1	6	306	10	1	18	189	7	8	9	207	18	11	
Fish, smoked and dried	87	13	1	8	41	18	3	29	62	19	1	26	7	8	8	207	18	11	
Copper, rods and bolts	3	1	1	20	8	15	9	24	2	18	9	3	10	12	3	10	12	3	
Corks	16	3	12	9	14	4	10	3	1	14	3	10	12	3	10	12	3	10	
Cheese	3	12	9	14	4	10	3	1	1	14	3	10	12	3	10	12	3	10	
Chocolate	1	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Soap	30	17	2	3	23	2	23	2	23	2	23	2	23	2	23	2	23	2	
Paper and books	11	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Twine	27	9	13	69	19	1	92	3	15	2	9	10	11	3	10	11	3	10	
Cotton	97	19	1	16	19	4	19	4	19	4	19	4	19	4	19	4	19	4	
Hemp	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Pork	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Alum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Sugar	2,758	10	1	11,487	1	1	11,487	1	1	11,487	1	1	11,487	1	1	11,487	1	1	
Coffee	6,198	10	1	3,925	10	1	27	5,183	13	1	15	6,771	12	3	17	6,517	11	1	
Tea, green	328	18	2	358	17	1	21	367	8	2	18	374	13	6	208	5	1	2	
Black	14	4	9	15	17	9	15	17	9	15	17	9	15	17	9	15	17	9	
Casia	20	7	3	19	39	9	6	6	11	7	2	11	9	3	9	3	9	3	
Cocoa	181	6	6	81	13	28	61	7	2	119	10	119	11	4	48	3	4	4	
Pimento	138	15	9	138	17	23	89	8	1	119	49	18	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Indigo	91	17	28	127	7	19	8	9	3	9	3	9	3	9	3	9	3	9	
Raisins, prunes, and figs	818	19	3	915	15	2	1	837	18	1	4	964	13	1	14	1,025	12	9	
Nutmegs, mace, and cloves	8	3	15	1	10	3	8	1	16	1	5	2	19	2	19	2	19	2	
Ground ginger	3	3	17	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	
Almonds	128	10	2	87	18	1	19	42	7	16	66	6	61	70	5	1	1	1	
Pepper	4	19	99	1	18	18	89	3	16	33	17	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Camphor	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Currais	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Flax	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	

Those marked thus * are the estimated or invoice weights.

Statement of the Quantity of Foreign Wines, Spirits, Molasses, &c., imported direct into Philadelphia during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1839; with the Quantity exported during the same Period for the benefit of Drawback.

Articles.	Imported.					Exported.					Duty per gallon.
	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	
Molasses	1,278,196	1,036,931	1,079,410	1,840,079	1,388,025	4,663	2,678	2,678	5,430	10,674	5
Brandy	329,530	321,800	108,219	390,487	246,813	2,963	31,032	597	5,430	10,674	8
Holland gin	133,225	93,478	9,293	136,031	119,928	257	32	443	131	1,114	75
Rum	12,154	438	5,503	1,746	1,995	9,410	1,253	3,246	60	60	60
Whiskey	1,271	8,351	2,862	4,433	10,343	75
Cortial	577	639	599	508	441	..	249	53
Arrack	238	40	53
Shrub	53
Porter, ale, and brown stout	2,407	950	978	873	4,414	184	30
Vinegar	3,318	992	1,657	5,012	628	648	..	171	8
Oil, olive, in casks	15,341	6,316	6,157	60	81,595	353	1,807	80	8
Linseed	15,248	4,488	7,250	1,863	5,738	1,040	863	758	4,022	35	40
Castor	50	243	40
Fish	34,630	237	306	15
Wine, Madeira	48,696	18,318	9,078	42,194	30,868	12 1/2
Port	48,696	48,726	15,316	97,462	71,358	224	12 1/2
Sherry	75,517	34,377	19,980	1,988	14,882	620	..	7 1/2
Teneriffe	53,016	11,053	46,166	40,177	54,461	9,097	8,043	7 1/2
San Lucas	99,978	79,062	67,330	2,750	5,190	..	4,102	2,691	3 1/2
Malaga	174,70	128,965	84,265	172,022	175,178	5,425	33,122	10,765	11,865	16,800	3 1/2
Lisbon	45,703	8,206	17,541	6,777	17,370	1 1/2
Bocli	5,023	4,480	1 1/2
Champagne	3,050	1,850	3,644	371	87	8 1/2
Burgundy	45	5 1/2
Blenach	488	1,178	2,471	258	988	1 1/2
Ciret	89,431	55,417	64,863	24,348	96,212	85,392	9,234	1,550	8,690	1,692	1 1/2
White French	200,878	125,697	79,318	89,908	89,210	..	5,931	4,685	9,370	..	2 1/2
Moselle	36	1 1/2
Cape	1 1/2
Muscat and Frontignac	3,842	7,118	3,000	6,108	8,302	800	1 1/2

Note.—Subject to a reduction of 3-10ths of the excess between the value of the articles at 90 per cent., and the amount at the different rates as stated.

There are now, 1840, 16 banks in Philadelphia, with capitals amounting, exclusive of that of the Bank of the United States, to \$18,050,000.

The number of marine insurance companies amounts to 10, with an aggregate capital of \$3,330,000; and there are 9 fire insurance companies, with a capital of \$3,450,000; besides 3 associations for mutual assurance against fire, operating without any specified capital.—Am. Ed.]

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PHOSPHORUS, a substance of a light amber colour, and semi-transparent; but, when carefully prepared, nearly colourless and transparent. When kept some time, it becomes opaque externally, and has then a great resemblance to white wax. It may be cut with a knife, or twisted to pieces with the fingers. It is insoluble in water; its specific gravity is 1.77. When exposed to the atmosphere, it emits a white smoke, and is luminous in the dark. When heated to 148° it takes fire, and burns with a very bright flame. When phosphorus is inflamed in oxygen, the light and heat are incomparably more intense; the former dazzling the eye, and the latter cracking the glass vessel.—(Thomson's Chemistry.)

PIASTRES, or DOLLARS, Spanish and American silver coins in very extensive circulation. Value, at an average, about 4s. 3d. sterling.—(See COINS.)

PILCHARDS (Ger. *Sardellan*; Du. *Sardynen*; Fr. *Sardines*; It. *Sardine*; Sp. *Sardinas*; Rus. *Sardeli*; Lat. *Sardinæ*), fishes closely resembling the common herring, but smaller, and at the same time thicker and rounder. They are rarely found on the British shores except on the coasts of Cornwall and Devon, particularly the former, where they are taken in great numbers from the month of July to September, both inclusive. It is a saying of the Cornish fishermen, that the pilchard is the least fish in size, most in number, and greatest for gain, taken from the sea.

Pilchard Fishery.—This is carried on along the coast of Cornwall and Devon, from the Belt Head in the latter, round by the Land's End to Padstow and Bossley in the former. Its principal seats are St. Ives, Mount's Bay, and Newgatesey. The fish usually make their appearance in vast shoals in the early part of July, and disappear about the middle of October: but they sometimes reappear in large quantities in December. They are taken either by *seams* or by drift nets, but principally by the former. A seam is a net, varying from 200 to 300 fathoms in length, and from 10 to 14 ft. in depth, having cork buoys on one edge and lead weights on the other. Three boats are attached to each seam, viz. a boat (*seam boat*), of about 15 tons burden, for carrying the seam; another (*followers*), of about the same size, to assist in mooring it; and a smaller boat (*arker*), for general purposes. The number of boats employed in these 3 boats varies from about 13 to 18, but may be taken, at an average, at about 10. When the shoals of fish come so near the shore that the water is about the depth of the seam, it is employed to enclose them; the fishermen being directed to the proper places for casting or shooting the nets by persons (*seamers*) stationed for that purpose on the cliffs.* The practice is to row the boat with the seam on board gently round the shoal; and the seam being, at the same time, thrown gradually into the water, assumes, by means of its buoys and weights, a vertical position, its lashed edge being at the bottom, and the other floating on the surface. Its 2 ends are then fastened together; and, being brought into a convenient situation, it is moored by small anchors or grapnels. At low water, the enclosed fish are taken out by a small seam or *tack net*, and carried to the shore. A single seam has been known to enclose at once as many as 3,000 hogsheds of fish! But the quantity taken depends on so many accidental circumstances, that while one seam may catch and cure in a season from 1,000 to 2,000 hogsheds, others in the neighbourhood will not get a single pilchard. In some places, the tides are so strong as to break the seams and set the fish at liberty. When the quantity enclosed is large, it requires several days to take them out, as they must not be removed in greater numbers than those who salt them can conveniently manage.

Drift nets are usually about a mile long, by about 4½ fathoms deep; they are shot in the open sea, and entangle the fish in their meshes in the same way as the herring nets. The fish thus taken are said to be superior to those taken by the seams.

As soon as the fish are brought to shore, they are carried to cellars or warehouses, where they are piled in large heaps, having a sufficient quantity of salt interspersed between the layers. Having remained in this state for about 35 days, they are, after being carefully washed and cleaned, packed in hogsheds, each containing, at an average, about 2,600 fish; they are then subjected to a pressure sufficient to extract the oil, of which each hogshed yields about 3 gallons. This oil usually sells for from 12 to 15 per cent. under the price of brown seal oil. The oil, blood, and dirty pickles that drain from the fish while they are piled up, are collected in reservoirs, and sold to the curriers. The broken and refuse fish and salt are sold to the farmers, and are used as manure with excellent effect. The skimmings which float on the water in which the pilchards are washed, are called *garbage*, and are sold to the soap-boilers.

The pilchard fishery has been rather declining of late years. This has been ascribed partly to the failure of the catch, partly to the withdrawal of the high bounty of 8s. 6d. per hhd. formerly paid on exportation, and partly to the relaxed observance of Lent in the Mediterranean, and the imposition of a heavy duty on the importation of the fish into Naples, which has long been their principal market. The following is

An Account of the Exports of Pilchards during the Three Years ending with 1832; specifying the Places in which they were exported, the Quantity shipped for each, and their Price at the Port of Shipment.

Year.	Leith.	Naples.	Genua.	Ancora.	Venice.	Trieste.	Malta.	Messina.	C. Vezia.	Total.	Prices.
1830	2,473	6,761	1,405	1,587	4,569	1,653	-	301	-	21,194	35 to 43
1831	4,031	10,276	2,100	5,266	4,205	530	01	-	618	27,152	33 - 40
1832	3,784	11,612	3,116	5,073	5,781	1,000	237	-	610	31,018	23 - 45

Of the 27,112 hhd. exported in 1831, St. Ives furnished 12,141, and Mount's Bay 9,013; the remainder being furnished by Newgatesey, St. Austle's Bay, St. Mawes, Povey, &c.

Pilchards are not used in England, except in Cornwall and Devon, where about 3,000 hhd. a year may at present be made use of. We believe, however, that their consumption in these counties has been to increase with considerable rapidity.

The seam fishery employs from 2,700 to 3,000 hands, and about 180 or 190 seams; but exclusive of

* The tunny fish in the Archipelago was caught in a similar way—"Ascendebat quidam (Anglicè *Auer*, *Green's* *thunoscopus*) in altum promontorium, unde innumeri gregem spectabantur, quo vias, signum piscatoribus dabat, qui retibus totum gregem includebant."—(Bishop of London's *Notes on the Price of Eschylus*, quoted by Dr. Paris, in his *Guide to Mount's Bay*, p. 156.)

† Mr. Pennant inadvertently states the number of fish in a hogshed at 35,000.—(British *Zoology*, vol. iii. p. 54. ed. 1770.) Trusting to his authority, we fell into the same error in the first edition of this work.

ports, London, and at the Custom-houses of the ports for which they are licensed, and are to be published in the *London Gazette*.—§ 7.

No person shall take charge of any ship or vessel as a pilot belonging to the *Cinque Ports*, before he be examined by the master and two fellows, or by four wardens of the society or fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, touching his abilities, and shall be approved and admitted into the said society by the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, or his lieutenant; and any person pretending to act as a pilot, belonging to the said society or fellowship, without having been so examined, approved, and admitted, shall for the first offence forfeit 10*l.*, for the second 20*l.*, and for every other offence 40*l.*.—§ 15.

No person licensed by the aforesaid society or fellowship is to take charge of any ship or vessel drawing more than 11 feet 6 inches water, until he has acted as a pilot for 3 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 14 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 5 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 17 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 7 years; when he is to be again examined; and if he shall be approved of and licensed upon such second examination, he may take charge of ships of any draught of water.—§ 16.

The number of *Cinque Port* pilots used to be fixed at 140; but during peace, no more than each alternate vacancy is to be filled up, unless the number be reduced below 120.—§ 24.

All bodies politic and corporate, and all persons authorised to appoint or license pilots for any port or place in England shall, upon any such appointment being made, forthwith transmit to the Trinity House, London, and to the commissioners of customs, London, the Christian name and surname, age, and place of residence, of every pilot so appointed, distinguishing the limits in which he is to act, and by whom appointed. And the said bodies politic, &c. are to transmit lists, corrected up to the 31st day of December in each year, either on that day, or within a month after, to the said Trinity House and commissioners of the customs, of the names and residences of all the pilots within their respective jurisdictions; stating also the alterations that may have been made within the year in the rates of pilotage charged, and in the rules and regulations for governing pilots within their respective districts.—§ 25.

The commissioners of the customs are to transmit to their principal officers, at the different ports, the names and places of residence of all the pilots residing within the limits of each port, as far as they are acquainted with the same; and every pilot is to be furnished with copies of all proclamations and orders in council respecting the performance of quarantine.—§ 36.

A particular description of the person of every pilot is to be written upon the back of his licence; and no person shall take charge of any ship or vessel, or in any manner act as a pilot, or receive any compensation for acting as a pilot, until his licence shall have been registered by the principal officers of the Custom-house of the place at or nearest to which such pilot shall reside, (which officers are hereby required to register the same without fee or reward), nor without having his licence at the time of his so acting in his personal custody, and producing the same to the master of any ship or vessel, or other person, who shall be desirous of employing him as a pilot, or to whom he shall offer his services, on pain of forfeiting a sum not exceeding 30*l.*, nor less than 10*l.*, for the first offence; and for the second or any subsequent offence, a sum not exceeding 50*l.*, nor less than 30*l.*; and upon further pain, as to any person licensed as aforesaid, of forfeiting his licence, or being suspended from acting as a pilot, by and at the discretion of the corporation or other authority from which such pilot's licence was derived, either for the first, second, or any subsequent offence.—§§ 65, 66.

2. *Government of Pilots.*—All persons licensed to act as pilots by the Trinity House, are subject to the government of the said corporation, which is empowered to make by-laws, rules, &c. specifying what sums shall be paid by such pilots to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for their examination, and for granting, or renewing, or confirming their licences from time to time, and annexing such reasonable penalties and forfeitures for the breach of such by-laws as to them shall seem expedient. But no such by-laws, regulations, &c. shall have any force till they have been examined, sanctioned, and approved by the chief justice of the Court of King's Bench, or the chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas.—§ 11. (*N. B.*—The by-laws of the Trinity House, Deptford Strand, sanctioned by Lord Tenterden, are annexed to this article.)

Copies of any proposed by-laws are to be transmitted to the privy council and the commissioners of customs, 3 months before they are submitted to any chief justice for approval; and the commissioners of customs are to cause such proposed by-laws to be hung up in the several Custom-houses of the principal ports of Great Britain, for the inspection of all parties having an interest therein. And when such by-laws shall have been sanctioned, they shall be hung up in the several Custom-houses within the limits of which the pilots respectively shall be licensed, and also at the Trinity House in London.—§§ 12, 13.

The *Cinque Port* pilots are to be subject to the rules and regulations framed by the Lord Warden of the said ports, or his deputy, with the assent of the majority of the commissioners of *Lochnawing* (master and wardens of the fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet). The privy council may, however, amend, correct, or enlarge such rules or regulations, if they shall appear to them, upon the representation of any person having an interest therein, to be in any material point erroneous, insufficient, or defective.—§ 21, 22.

The Trinity House Corporation are authorised and required to establish, vary, and alter, from time to time, as circumstances may require, the rates of pilotage performed by pilots licensed by the said corporation, according to the size and draught of water of the vessels, the distance piloted, the detention and responsibility of the pilot, and such other circumstances as they may think fit to take into account.

Tables of these rates are to be hung up at the several Custom-houses of the ports to which they apply; and no greater or less rates, or other reward or emolument for such pilotage, shall, under any pretence whatever, be demanded, solicited, paid, received, or offered, on pain of forfeiting 10*l.* for every such offence, as well by the party offering as by the party accepting or soliciting the same. Ships returning by stress of weather, contrary winds, or on account of accident, into ports in the district of the Isle of Wight, Plymouth, and Falmouth, shall be subject to pay half the common pilotage in such ports.—§ 8.

If the majority of the pilots licensed by the Trinity House Corporation in any port or place, or any shipowner in the same, be dissatisfied with the rates, they may appeal to the privy council, who may decide upon the matter as they think fit.—§ 9.

Every person applying for a licence to act as a pilot, shall, before any such licence be granted to him execute a bond in a penal sum, at the discretion of the Trinity House Corporation, or of the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, to an amount not exceeding 100*l.*, for the better securing his due obedience to the by-laws, rules, regulations, &c., to be made by competent authority.—§ 27.

Licences may be annulled, suspended, or adjudged forfeited, at the pleasure of the aforesaid corporation and Lord Warden; but pilots, whose licences are so annulled, suspended, &c. may appeal to the privy council, who are authorised to make such adjudication in the premises as they may think fit.—§ 29, 30.

3. *Licensing of Pilot Boats.*—The Trinity Corporation and the fellowship of the Cinque Port pilots are authorised to license pilot vessels of such size and description as may appear to them to be proper for having pilots constantly in attendance in such vessels at sea; and the licensed pilots are authorised

Pilots are to qualify themselves for conducting vessels in and out of Ramsgate harbour, and the harbours of Dover, Sandwich, and Margate, and shall be entitled to and receive for such pilotage at the rate of 5s. for every foot of the draught of water of every vessel so piloted.—§ 39, 40.

Ships bound to the Thames, repairing to Standgate Creek, or other places appointed for the performance of quarantine, are to pay the full charges of pilotage to such place, and a further sum of 5s. for each day the pilot shall be obliged to remain on quarantine.

Any boat or vessel running before a ship or vessel, not having a licensed pilot on board, when such ship or vessel cannot be boarded, for the purpose of directing her course, the pilot on board such boat or vessel, or, if no pilot be on board, the person having the command thereof, and who shall run before such ship at the request or by direction of the master, shall be entitled to full pilotage for the distance run.—§ 34.

All the sums which shall become due to any licensed pilot for the pilotage of foreign ships or vessels trading to or from the port of London may be recovered from the owners or masters of such ships or vessels, or from the consignees or agents thereof, who shall have paid, or made themselves liable to pay, any other charge for the ship or vessel in the port of her arrival or delivery as to pilotage inwards, or in the port whence she shall clear out or sail as to pilotage outwards; and may be levied in like manner, according to the amount, as any penalty may be recovered and levied by virtue of the act, demand thereof being made in writing at least fourteen days before such levy. And the master or other person having the charge of ships or vessels, not having British registers, which shall enter into the port of London, and which are by law required to be piloted by persons licensed by the Corporation of the Trinity House, or the consignees or agents thereof, are to pay at the Trinity House, in London, to persons appointed by the corporation of the Trinity House, the full pilotage inwards and outwards; viz. as to pilotage outwards, the amount for the distance which the ship is by law required to be piloted; as to pilotage inwards, where a pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance piloted by him, if greater than that which she shall be required to be piloted; if less, or if no pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance which she was by law required to be piloted: the pilotage inwards may be levied, &c. upon the master or other person in charge, consignee, or agent, in the same manner as in the case of ships having British registers, if such pilotage inwards be not paid within fourteen days from the day of the ship's reporting inwards.—§ 41, 46.

The pilotage outward upon foreign vessels is to be calculated according to the scale or amount of tonnage upon which such ships or vessels are rated in the port of London for payment of light and other dues, or according to the draught of water thereof, as the Trinity House may think most proper.—§ 40.

In order to prevent controversies with respect to the draught of water of ships not having British registers, the Trinity House is empowered to appoint an officer to measure the draught of water of ships with respect to which there is any controversy, such officer receiving 1l. 1s. for his trouble if the ship be below the entrance to the London Docks, and 10s. 6d. if above such entrance, from the party against whom he may decide. If arriving inwards, application for such officer must be made within three hours after the ship has come to her moorings, and before she begin to unlash; and before quitting her moorings, if clearing outward.—§ 50.

The Trinity House are empowered to take measures for the relief of foreign vessels coming to the port of London with fish, corn, and other provisions on board, either from the whole or part of the charges on account of pilotage that would fall upon them under this act.—§ 51.

No foreign vessel shall be cleared outwards until a certificate, signed by the person appointed for that purpose by the Trinity House, that the pilotage has been paid, has been produced; and the corporation pay the pilot employed, on proof that he has duly performed his service, the pilotage, after deducting the 6d. duty.—§ 47.

The consignees or agents of any ship or vessel are authorized and empowered to retain in their hands respectively, out of any monies which they may have received or shall thereafter receive for or on account of such ship or vessel, or the owner or owners thereof, so much as shall be sufficient to pay and discharge such pilotage, and any expenses attending the same.—§ 45.

Responsibility, &c. of Masters.—Ships coming from the westward, bound to any place in the river Thames and Medway, not having a duly qualified Cinque Port pilot on board, shall, on arriving at Dun-
gerness, and until they have passed the south buoy of the Brake, display and keep flying the usual signal for a pilot to come on board; and the master shall heave to and shorten sail, so as to facilitate the entry of the pilot. Persons not displaying such signal, &c. shall forfeit and pay double the amount of the sum that the charge for pilotage would have amounted to. And it is further provided, that all masters of vessels acting themselves as pilots, or employing any unlicensed person as such, or any licensed person out of the limit of his qualification, after any licensed and qualified pilot shall have offered to come on board, or made a signal for that purpose, shall forfeit double the sum that would have been legally demandable as pilotage, and an additional penalty of 5l. for every 50 tons burden of the ship, if the Trinity House or Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, as the case may be, shall think it proper to certify the same.

But the master of any of the following vessels may pilot the same, so long as he is not assisted by any unlicensed pilot or other person than the ordinary crew: viz. the master of any collier, or of any ship or vessel trading to Norway, or to the Cattegat or Baltic, or round the North Cape, or into the White Sea, on their inward or outward voyages, or of any constant trader inwards, from the ports between Boscawen inclusive, and the Baltic (all such ships or vessels having British registers, and coming up by the North Channel, but not otherwise), or of any Irish trader using the navigation of the river Thames and Medway, or of any ship or vessel employed in the regular coasting trade of the kingdom, or of any ship or vessel wholly laden with stone from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and being the production thereof, or of any ship or vessel, not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and having a British register (or not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and not having a British register, if authorized so to do by an order of the privy council), or of any other ship or vessel whatsoever, whilst the same is within the limits of the port or place to which she belongs, the same not being a port or place in relation to which particular provision hath heretofore been made by any act or acts of parliament, or by any charter or charters for the appointment of pilots.—§ 50, 50.

The master or mate of any vessel, being the owner or part owner thereof, and residing at Dover, Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, shall not be liable to any penalty for conducting or piloting his own ship or vessel up or down the river Thames or Medway, or into or out of any place within the jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports.—§ 62.

This act shall not extend, or be construed to extend, to subject the master or owner of any ship or vessel to any of the penalties of this act, for employing any person or persons whomsoever, as a pilot or pilots, in and for the assistance of such ship or vessel, whilst the same shall be in distress, or in any other circumstances, or under any circumstances which shall have rendered it necessary for such owner or master to avail himself of the best assistance which at the time could be procured.—§ 61.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whatsoever, from or by reason or means of no licensed pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board thereof, unless it shall be proved that the want of such licensed or

of such duly qualified pilot respectively shall have arisen from any refusal to take such licensed or qualified pilot on board, or from the wilful neglect of the master of such ship or vessel in not heaving to, or using all practicable means, consistently with her safety, for the purpose of taking on board thereof any pilot who shall be ready, and offer to take charge of the same.—§ 53.

Nothing in this act shall extend, or be construed to extend, to make the owner of any ship or vessel liable in any such case, for any loss or damage beyond the value of such ship or vessel and her contents, and the freight due, or to grow due, for and during the voyage wherein such loss or damage may happen or arise.—§ 54.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whomsoever, from or by reason or means of any neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any licensed pilot acting in the charge of any such ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, where and so long as such pilot shall be duly qualified to have the charge of such ship or vessel, or where and so long as no duly qualified pilot shall have offered to take charge thereof.—§ 55.

Nothing in this act shall be construed to extend to deprive any person or persons of any remedy or remedies upon any contract of insurance, or of any other remedy whatsoever, which he or they might have had if this act had not been passed, by reason or on account of the neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any pilot duly acting in the charge of any such ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, or by reason or on account of no pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board of any such ship or vessel, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot arises from a refusal on the part of the master to take such pilot on board, or to heave to for him.—§ 56.

All masters or other persons having the command of any ship, who shall report, or be privy to any one reporting, a false account of the draught of water of such ship, shall, besides the full pilotage, be held to be liable to double the amount thereof; and any master or other person having any interest, share, or property in any vessel, who shall fraudulently alter any marks on the stem or stern post thereof, diminishing the draught of water, or shall be privy or consent thereto, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 500*l*.

7. *Recovery of Penalties.*—Penalties incurred under this act, not exceeding 20*l*, are to be recovered before a justice by prosecution within six months; and penalties above 20*l*, by action of debt in any of the courts of record at Westminster, to be commenced within twelve months; but if it shall be made to appear, as soon after as the circumstances of the case will admit, that the commencement of the prosecution or action has been delayed by reason of the absence of any party or parties, whether offending or complaining, or of any necessary witness, then, upon such circumstances being stated by affidavit, made before any judge of any of his Majesty's courts of record at Westminster, any such judge may order or authorise the commencement of the prosecution or action within such further time as he shall think fit to limit.

It is, however, provided that nothing therein contained shall affect or impair the jurisdiction of the Court of Loadmanage, or High Court of Admiralty, nor the right of the city of London, nor (in general) any separate jurisdiction established under any act of parliament or charter.—§ 57, 58, 59.

BY-LAWS, REGULATIONS, AND ORDINANCES AS TO PILOTS, framed by the Trinity Corporation, and sanctioned by Lord Tenterden, 19th of April, 1826.

I. Annul the previous regulations.

II. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall be ordered to proceed on his Majesty's service, by any order signed by the deputy master or secretary of the said corporation, or by the officer for the time being for the said corporation at Yarmouth, or elsewhere, duly authorized to act in matters of pilotage, or who shall be so ordered, in writing or otherwise, by any officer in his Majesty's service, shall immediately proceed thereon; and every pilot who shall fail so to do, or shall evade the receipt of any such order, or who shall quit or decline such service, shall for the first offence forfeit 5*l*, and for the second and every subsequent offence 10*l*, each.

III. It is ordained, that every pilot engaged in the charge of any ship employed by government in the transport service, shall observe particularly if any unnecessary delay take place on the part of the master in proceeding towards his destination; and if any delay does take place, such pilot shall, upon return, report the same to the secretary of the said corporation, and upon going on board, such pilot shall give notice to the master that he has orders so to do.

IV. It is ordained, that no pilot having the charge of a merchant ship shall stop the same at any of the moorings of his Majesty's ships at Deptford, or elsewhere, or between the Round Tree and Bathing-house, Gravesend (except in either of such cases there be an extreme necessity for so doing, or leave be obtained for that purpose from the proper officer or officers in that behalf), and all pilots licensed by the said corporation are at all times to be particularly careful to steer clear of the King's ships in passing them.

V. It is ordained, that every pilot, when called upon or required to pilot any ship or vessel, shall, of under engagement to any other ship, forthwith make known such engagement, and specify the particulars thereof truly and faithfully to the person calling for or requiring such pilot's service; and in case of any concealment, misrepresentation, or falsehood, in respect of such allego, previous appointment, the pilot offending shall forfeit 10*l*.

VI. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall have taken charge of any ship from the river Thames to the Downs, or elsewhere, shall, without any additional compensation in that behalf, wait on board for the space of 3 complete days while such ship may be detained at Gravesend, or else where, for want of seamen, or by any other casualty; nor shall he at the end of 3 complete days be at liberty to quit such ship, or receive any additional compensation, if she shall be further detained by winds, waves, or tides; and should the ship be detained beyond 3 complete days on any other account except such weather, or tides, the pilot having the charge thereof shall nevertheless still (if required so to do) remain in the charge of her, provided a compensation of 6*s*. per day be offered to him in that behalf by the master or owner.

VII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall in all cases demean himself civilly and respectfully towards all persons who may require his service, and towards all officers in his Majesty's navy, and shall maintain a strict temperance and sobriety in the exercise of his office, and shall use his utmost care and diligence for the safe conduct of every ship which he shall be intrusted with the charge of, and prevent her doing damage to others.

VIII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall undertake the charge of any ship downwards shall, before his departure, leave, or cause to be left, notice thereof, in writing, at the proper office at the Trinity House in London, with one of the clerks there attending, and shall be considered as being engaged until he shall have done so; and upon such pilot's return, he shall immediately, in his own person, attend at the said office, and make and sign such entry, in a book there kept for that purpose, of the said corporation shall from time to time direct or require.

IX. It is ordained, at all such times, in the secretary thereof, at such time at the use of their courts, by-bills in London; and that from sub-commission or place for which at sub-commissioners, or or left as aforesaid, or for the purpose of any public use, every pilot so subsequent offence 5*l*.

X. It is ordered, a corporation, upon the use, shall, for such use the said sub-commissioners, also, for the renewing of pilotage for the annual sums following: ports of Plymouth, Po licensed or to be licensed the pilot at or for such lot class are to pay the of 1 guinea each.

XI. It is ordained, a amendment thereon.

XII. It is ordained, that any of the buoys, shall forthwith the said corporation for the

XIII. It is ordained the settings of the tide a man or other object to fall in therewith, under the same.

XIV. It is ordained, with his boat or servants, seamen from any merc for the same.

XV. It is ordained, that which shall be given to corporation of the city or vessel under his charge of the authority of such

XVI. It is ordained, to entertain one apprentice

XVII. It is ordained, being less than the woman so in proportion for of the fifth year of the

XVIII. It is ordained breach of the foregoing Trinity House may mit

XIX. It is ordained, orders, regulations, and in any pecuniary penalty committed and forfeited,

XV. Besides conforming to the said regulations, the pilot shall observe and obey the act of parliament made copy of which act has

* The following Tables have been published, and depended upon.

IX. It is ordained, that every pilot licensed by the said corporation shall, from time to time, and at all times, in obedience to the order or summons of the said corporation, under the hand of the secretary thereof for the time being, duly delivered or offered to such pilot, or left a reasonable time at the usual or last known place of residence of such pilot, attend the said corporation, at their courts, by-boards, or committees, or their secretary for the time being, at the Trinity House in London; and that every pilot licensed by the said corporation, upon a certificate of qualification from sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, in like manner, attend the sub-commissioners of the port or place for which such pilot shall be so licensed, in obedience to the order or summons of the said sub-commissioners, under their hands, or the hands of the major part of them, duly delivered, offered, or left as aforesaid, to answer to any charges brought against such pilots respectively, or for the performance of any public service, or for any other purpose whatsoever; and in default of such attendance, every pilot so offending shall forfeit for the first offence 40s., and for the second and every subsequent offence 5*l.* each.

X. It is ordered, and hereby directed, that every pilot licensed or to be licensed by the said corporation, upon their receiving a certificate of examination by any sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, for such examination, and for granting the licence thereon, pay the sum of 2 guineas to the said sub-commissioners of pilotage by whom he shall be examined, or to one of them; and shall also, for the renewing or confirming such licence from time to time, pay to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for the time being, at or for the port or place specified in such licence, or to 1 of them, the annual sums following; (that is to say), every pilot so licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for the ports of Plymouth, Portsmouth, or Cowes respectively, the annual sum of 2 guineas; and every pilot licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for any other port or place, the annual sum of 1 guinea, unless the pilots at or for such port or place shall be divided into 2 classes; and in that case the pilots of the 1st class are to pay the annual sum of 2 guineas each, and pilots not of the 1st class the annual sum of 1 guinea each.

XI. It is ordained, that no pilot shall add to or in any way alter his licence, or make or alter any endorsement thereon, nor shall he be privy to any such licence or endorsement being altered.

XII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall observe any alteration in any of the sands or channels, or that any of the buoys or beacons of the said corporation are driven away, broken down, or out of place, shall forthwith deliver or send a correct statement thereof, in writing, to the secretary of the said corporation for the time being.

XIII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall, whenever he comes to an anchor, carefully observe the settings of the tide, and the force of the stream; and if it shall happen that he comes near to a sand or other object or cause of danger, and there be any other ships or ship in company likely to fall in therewith, such pilot shall immediately give notice thereof to the captain or principal officer of the ship under his care, that he may make a signal to such other ship or ships for avoiding the same.

XIV. It is ordained, that no pilot shall, on any pretence, aid or assist, either in his own person or with his boat or servants, or by any other means whatever, the landing, removing, or secreting any seaman from any merchant ship or vessel, to avoid serving in his Majesty's navy, or escape the impress for the same.

XV. It is ordained, that every pilot shall from time to time conform himself strictly to all directions which shall be given to him by any of the harbour masters authorised by act of parliament, under the operation of the city of London, touching the mooring, unmooring, placing, or removing of any ship or vessel under his charge, as long as such ship or vessel shall be lying and situate within the limits of the authority of such harbour master.

XVI. It is ordained, that each and every pilot belonging to a licensed pilot vessel shall be at liberty to entertain one apprentice and no more.

XVII. It is ordained, that for any work done on the rivers Thames or Medway by men in boats, so long as the work for the whole tide, the pay shall be, for half a tide's work, 4*s.* to each man, and so in proportion for any time less than a whole tide, the pay for which is settled by the said act of the 6th year of the reign of his present Majesty at 8*s.*

XVIII. It is ordained, that in all cases where pecuniary penalties and forfeitures are annexed to the breach of the foregoing by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances the said corporation of Trinity House may mitigate and reduce the same to 1-4th part at their discretion.

XIX. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall offend against any or either of the foregoing by-laws, rules, regulations, and ordinances, shall, for every such offence (whether the same shall subject him to any pecuniary penalty or not, and in addition to such penalty if any), be liable to have his licence annulled and forfeited, or suspended, at the discretion of the said corporation.

X. B. Besides conforming themselves diligently to the above by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances, the pilots licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House are, of course, in all things to observe and obey the same enactments and provisions relating to such pilots contained in the said act of parliament made and passed in the 6th year of the reign of his Majesty King George the Fourth, copy of which act has been delivered to each of the said pilots.

*. * The following Tables of the charges on account of pilotage, &c. are the most complete that have hitherto been published. They have all been derived from official sources, so that their accuracy may be depended upon.

For putting a Pilot on Board, and for Piloting of Ships and Vessels to the Anchorage in the Downs.	60 Tons, and under 150.	150 Tons, and under 350.	350 Tons, and under 400.	400 Tons, and under 600.	600 Tons, and upwards.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
From of Dungeness to off Folkestone; the church bearing N. N. W. by compass	8 0 0	3 0 0	3 10 0	4 0 0	5 5 0
From off Folkestone to the South Foreland, the lights to one	1 10 0	2 0 0	2 10 0	3 0 0	4 4 0
From off the South Foreland to the Downs	1 5 0	1 5 0	1 10 0	2 0 0	3 3 0

For a boat of a class carrying an anchor of above 4 cwt. with a corresponding tow-line L. s. d. 2 2 0
 Do. do. 3 cwt. 1 1 0
 Do. do. under 3 cwt. 0 15 0
 And for each man's service in those boats, 8s. per tide.
 Per trip for the whole distance from Gravesend to London; and in proportion for any part of that distance.

RATES CHARGED FOR THE PILOTAGE OF VESSELS, WITH AN ACCOUNT OF OTHER CHARGES AFFECTING THEM IN SOME OF THE UNDERMENTIONED PORTS.

Basmeys District, viz.—From Bagrove to a line drawn from Great Ormes Head to Folkestone; and to and from, and into and out of all ports and places within those limits.
N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within the District, unless making into or going out of port; but if he do take a pilot, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rate of Pilotage, for Piloting Ships within the Basmeys District.

Inwards.	Under 100 tons	L. s. d.
From the outside of the Sound - into the Bay	100 to 200	0 15 0
	200 - 300	1 1 0
	300 and upwards	1 11 6
From the inside of the Sound - into the Bay	Under 100 tons	0 10 6
	100 to 200	0 15 0
	200 - 300	1 1 0
	300 and upwards	1 11 6

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than is stated in the above Table.
 Should the pilot be landed at Great Ormes Head—extra L. s. d. 2 2 0
 If taken out of the limits of his licence, to Chester or L.L. report 3 3 0
 In case the pilot should happen to have charge of the vessel in either of the said places the sum of 7s. 6d. per day is to be allowed to the pilot for every day such pilot may be detained on board in consequence of the ship not performing quarantine, or detained under any other restrictive circumstances such ship may be liable to.

Refusal.
 Foreign Rate. L. s. d. 0 0 3 per ton
 British Rate. L. s. d. 0 0 2 per ton

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
Tonnage dues	L. s. d. 0 0 3 per ton	L. s. d. 0 0 2 per ton
Ships not having British registers	0 0 3 per ton	0 0 2 per ton
Ballast delivered at the Quay	0 2 0 per ton	0 3 0 per ton
Shoes delivered at Garmoyles	0 3 4	0 2 6
Shoes delivered at Garmoyles	0 4 6	0 3 6
Pilotage from Whitehouse Roads to Garmoyles, and vice versa	0 14 0 per ves.	0 10 6 per ves.
From Garmoyles to the Quay, & vice versa, 4 feet	0 8 7	0 5 0
5 feet	0 10 8	0 6 0
6 feet	0 13 4	0 10 0
7 feet	0 16 0	0 12 0
8 feet	0 18 6	0 16 0
9 feet	0 21 2	0 19 6
10 feet	1 0 0	1 3 6
11 feet	1 3 0	1 11 6
12 feet	1 4 4	3 3 0
From Whitehouse Roads to the Quay, & vice versa, 9 feet	1 15 0	1 7 6
10 feet	2 10 0	1 17 6
11 feet	3 10 0	2 12 6
12 feet	4 7 0	3 6 0

Dartmouth.—Pilotage for the Buoys at Brightelmston, Hastings, or Bezzid.

1 foot and under.	8 to 10 Feet.	Above 10 Feet.
1s. 3d. per foot.	1s. 6d. per foot.	2s. per foot.

The above rates for the harbours and beaches are due both inwards and outwards; but on charge whosoever is to be made for the use of pilot boats.
 Ships making into the harbours of Rye and Shoreham, and unloading near the harbour's mouth, are subject to 1-4 pilotage only; but if such ships are afterwards removed by pilots to any dock or wharf within the town, where such ships may be for the purpose of taking to sea, in that case the full pilotage is due.
 Ships taken charge of in distress are to pay according to circumstances, to be settled by the sub-commissioners.
 Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage for the harbours and beaches, than stated in the above Table.

Bristol.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
Pilotage from Lundy Island or the westward thereof to Kingroad, under 100 tons	3 18 0	3 3 0
100 and under 200	5 5 0	4 4 0
200 - 300	6 11 3	5 5 0
300 and upwards	7 17 6	6 6 0
From Coombe to Kingroad, under 100 tons	2 12 6	2 2 0
100 and under 200	3 10 0	3 10 0
200 - 300	4 7 6	3 10 0
300 and upwards	5 5 0	4 4 0
From Minehead to Kingroad, under 100 tons	1 6 3	1 1 0
100 and under 200	1 15 0	1 8 0
200 - 300	2 3 9	1 16 0
300 and upwards	2 12 6	2 2 0
From the Holms to Kingroad, under 100 tons	0 13 11	0 10 6
100 and under 200	0 17 6	0 14 0
200 - 300	1 1 10	0 17 6
300 and upwards	1 6 3	1 1 0
From Portlehead, Kingroad, Hungrood, or Broad Pill, to Gumberland or Bathurst Basin, or vice versa, under 40 tons	0 5 0	0 4 0
40 and under 60	0 6 3	0 5 0
60 - 80	0 9 4	0 7 6
80 - 100	0 12 6	0 10 0
100 - 200	0 18 9	0 15 0
200 - 300	1 5 0	1 0 0
300 and upwards	1 11 3	1 5 0
From Portlehead, Kingroad, Hungrood, or Broad Pill, to either of them, under 100 tons	0 12 6	0 10 0
100 and under 200	0 18 9	0 15 0
200 - 300	1 5 0	1 0 0
300 and upwards	1 11 3	1 5 0

Dartmouth District.—From Bob's Nose to the Start, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within the district, unless going into or coming out of port, within a line drawn from the Newstones to the Blackstone; but if he do take a pilot between Bob's Nose and the Start, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rate of Pilotage, for Piloting Ships within the Dartmouth District.—All British ships, if boarded within the run of the Newstones East, or the Blackstone West, are to pay as follows: viz.—

	Per Foot.
Drawing 10 feet of water and under	2 6
10 to 12 feet	3 0
12 to 14	3 4
14 to 16	4 0
16 feet and upwards	5 0

All British ships, if boarded within that line, are to pay 1-4 part less.
 All British ships, boarded within the Castle, are to pay only 1-2 pilotage, subject to the consideration of the weather, which is to be settled by the sub-commissioners.

In carrying ships out of the harbour, the pilotage is to be in all cases 1-3 less than the inward pilotage.
 All ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than the rates above stated.

Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea; viz. 2 leucues or more from the harbour's mouth, are to pay according to circumstances attending the hazard run, assistance required, &c., which is to be regulated, in case of dispute, by the sub-commissioners. The pilot is to provide a proper tow-boat and crew consisting of at least 4 men; for whose services he shall be entitled to charge 2s. 6d. per man per day, in addition to the rate of pilotage; and, in case of dispute, to be settled by the sub-commissioners, and the assistance rewarded according to the risk, time, and trouble.

Doune to the Isle of Wight.—Rate of Pilotage.

	L. s. d.
Ships drawing 7 feet and under	2 15 0
8 -	4 7 6
9 -	5 0 0
10 -	5 15 6
11 -	6 4 0
12 -	6 15 0

* When the pilot is put on board by a boat from the shore, one seventh to the pilot, and the remaining six sevenths to the boat and crew

PILOTS AND PILOTAGE.

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General Rates for Ships boarded without the entrance of the Harbour.

	L. s. d.
From a line drawn from Lenny Point to Skokam Island, a distance of 100 fms.	0 2 0
From a line drawn from St. George's Head, ditto	0 1 0
From a line drawn from the westward of the Westward of the Gables, or 5 leagues without Lenny Point, in a straight line to the harbour pilotage	3 3 0
From a line drawn from the westward of the Gables, or 5 leagues without Lenny Point, in a straight line to the harbour pilotage	4 4 0
From a line drawn from the westward of the Gables, or 5 leagues without Lenny Point, in a straight line to the harbour pilotage	6 6 0

The fourth part is to be added to the harbour rates for ships not having British registers.

Notes for Services and Assistance performed in the Harbour.

For a boat carrying an anchor of above 6 cwt., with a corresponding hammer—

	L. s. d.
If at Hubbervine Roads	2 3 0
Each man in the boat, each tide	0 3 0

If at Hubbervine Roads, a line drawn from the E. point of Gillivick, to the E. point of Angle Bay and above the Stack Rock—
 Each man in the boat, each tide 0 12 6
 If at the Head, and the anchor is brought from Millport—
 Each man in the boat, each tide 0 12 6
 If at the Head, and the anchor is brought from Millport—
 Each man in the boat, each tide 0 6 0

For a boat carrying off an anchor of 3 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt., with a corresponding hammer, the boat and man to have 3-4 of the said above specified sums.

For a boat with an anchor of 3 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt., with a corresponding hammer, the boat and man to have 1-2 of the said above specified sums.

For securing a ship drawing 14 feet water, and upwards, and lying up her alongside the quay, or into Hubbervine Pill—
 From the situation, 1st or 2d, before mentioned—

	L. s. d.
For the pilot	1 1 0

If with a boat an additional sum of 0 10 6
 Each person employed 0 5 0

From the 3d station specified
 For the pilot 1 11 0

If with a boat, an additional sum of 0 10 6
 Each person employed 0 5 0

And for taking a ship of 14 feet draught of water and upwards, from the quay, or Hubbervine Pill, to moorings in any of the situations before mentioned, the like sums above specified.

Ships under 14 feet draught of water, to or from the situations before mentioned, 3-4 the sums for the pilot; the boats and man as above specified.

For a new securing a ship drawing 14 feet water, in either of the situations before described—

	L. s. d.
For the pilot	0 10 6
If with a boat, an additional sum of	0 10 6
Each person employed	0 5 0

Penance.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
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Flotage into or out of the port, or into or out of any of the creeks or moorings thereof from 1st April to 1st October—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 2 0	0 1 0
Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point—

Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 1 6	0 1 0
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feet, 41. 10s.; 12 feet, 51. 1s. 6d.; 13 feet, 51. 9s. 6d.; 14 feet, 51. 18s.; 15 feet, 51. 18s.; 16 feet, 51. 18s.; 17 feet, 51. 18s.; 18 feet, 51. 18s.; 19 feet, 51. 18s.; 20 feet, 51. 18s.; 21 feet, 51. 18s.; 22 feet, 51. 18s.; 23 feet, 51. 18s.; 24 feet, 51. 18s.; 25 feet, 51. 18s.; 26 feet, 51. 18s.; 27 feet, 51. 18s.; 28 feet, 51. 18s.; 29 feet, 51. 18s.; 30 feet, 51. 18s.; 31 feet, 51. 18s.; 32 feet, 51. 18s.; 33 feet, 51. 18s.; 34 feet, 51. 18s.; 35 feet, 51. 18s.; 36 feet, 51. 18s.; 37 feet, 51. 18s.; 38 feet, 51. 18s.; 39 feet, 51. 18s.; 40 feet, 51. 18s.; 41 feet, 51. 18s.; 42 feet, 51. 18s.; 43 feet, 51. 18s.; 44 feet, 51. 18s.; 45 feet, 51. 18s.; 46 feet, 51. 18s.; 47 feet, 51. 18s.; 48 feet, 51. 18s.; 49 feet, 51. 18s.; 50 feet, 51. 18s.; 51 feet, 51. 18s.; 52 feet, 51. 18s.; 53 feet, 51. 18s.; 54 feet, 51. 18s.; 55 feet, 51. 18s.; 56 feet, 51. 18s.; 57 feet, 51. 18s.; 58 feet, 51. 18s.; 59 feet, 51. 18s.; 60 feet, 51. 18s.; 61 feet, 51. 18s.; 62 feet, 51. 18s.; 63 feet, 51. 18s.; 64 feet, 51. 18s.; 65 feet, 51. 18s.; 66 feet, 51. 18s.; 67 feet, 51. 18s.; 68 feet, 51. 18s.; 69 feet, 51. 18s.; 70 feet, 51. 18s.; 71 feet, 51. 18s.; 72 feet, 51. 18s.; 73 feet, 51. 18s.; 74 feet, 51. 18s.; 75 feet, 51. 18s.; 76 feet, 51. 18s.; 77 feet, 51. 18s.; 78 feet, 51. 18s.; 79 feet, 51. 18s.; 80 feet, 51. 18s.; 81 feet, 51. 18s.; 82 feet, 51. 18s.; 83 feet, 51. 18s.; 84 feet, 51. 18s.; 85 feet, 51. 18s.; 86 feet, 51. 18s.; 87 feet, 51. 18s.; 88 feet, 51. 18s.; 89 feet, 51. 18s.; 90 feet, 51. 18s.; 91 feet, 51. 18s.; 92 feet, 51. 18s.; 93 feet, 51. 18s.; 94 feet, 51. 18s.; 95 feet, 51. 18s.; 96 feet, 51. 18s.; 97 feet, 51. 18s.; 98 feet, 51. 18s.; 99 feet, 51. 18s.; 100 feet, 51. 18s.

Harbour Pilotage.—New Haven.—8 feet draught and under, per foot, 1s. 6d.; 9 to 10 feet, 1s. 6d.; above 10 feet, 2s. 6d.

Rye.—5 feet draught and under, per foot, 2s. 6d.; 8 to 10 feet, 3s.; above 10 feet, 4s.

Shoreham.—8 feet draught and under, per foot, 2s. 6d.; 8 to 10 feet, 3s.; above 10 feet, 4s.

North Channel, &c. upwards from Orfordness to London.—Of the pilots within this district, some are licensed from the Dudgeon Light-vessel to Orfordness, and thence to the Downs; others are further licensed from Smith's Keel to Orfordness. But the taking of pilots along the coast, to the northward of Orfordness, is optional to masters of vessels; though, if a pilot be employed, he must be licensed as above, if one offers.

Licenses are given for the northward of Orfordness do not authorize the pilotage into or out of Yarmouth Roads or Harbour, except as may be requisite in the passage to the Downs or river.

Penance District, viz.—From the Lizard to Cape Cornwall and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N.B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, until he comes within a line drawn from St. Clement's Isle to Trowavas Head, for Mount's Bay and Penzance; but if he does take a pilot between the Lizard and Cape Cornwall, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offers.

Rate of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Penance District.

From	To	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Sea, and vice versa	Either of the creeks or piers in Mount's Bay	10	16	21	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	67	
All roads, & vice versa	Either of the different piers in Mount's Bay	1s. 6d.	per foot of the draught of water.										

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than stated in the above Table.

Boats and vessels boarded by pilots at a distance southward of the bay—

For putting a pilot on board without a line drawn from the Lizard to Tol Pedan Penwith—

Ditto, within a line drawn from the Lizard to Tol Pedan Penwith, and without a line drawn from Carn Dew to Penwinion Point—

Ditto, within a line drawn from Carn Dew to Penwinion Point, and without a line drawn from St. Clement's Isle to Trowavas Head—

And within those limits to be charged inwards.

Plymouth District, viz.—To the westward as far as Looe, and eastward as far as the Start and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N.B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, except going in or coming out of the port, within a line drawn from the Ram Head to the Mewstone; but if he do take a pilot between the Start and Looe, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offers.

Rate of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Plymouth District.—1. All British ships of 14 feet water and upwards except East Indianers, if boarded without the land off Penice Point or the Mewstone, which must be known by the western land being open off the Ram Head, shall pay 5s. per foot pilotage, if carried into the Harbour of Hamoaze, Catwater, or Sutton Pool.

2. British ships under 14 feet water, down to 8 feet, boarded as above stated, are to pay 4s. per foot for the like service.

3. Ships above 14 feet, within that line, are to pay only 4s. per foot; and ships under 14 feet, boarded as above, only 3s. per foot, for the like service.

4. All ships under 8 feet water, are to pay as above stated, as if the vessel was of that draught.

5. All the above rates are to be paid in proportion for every 1-2 feet of water, but no allowance is to be made for any draught of water less than 1-2 foot.

6. In carrying ships to sea from the said harbours, the pilotage is to be, in all cases, the same as the inward pilotage.

7. All ships which may anchor on their arrival, either in Cawand Bay or Plymouth Sound, are to pay only 1-2 of the before-mentioned rates of pilotage.

8. All pilots employed to carry ships from any one of the harbours to another, are to be paid the same pilotage as if the said ship had been boarded within the headlands coming from sea.

9. Should any ship above 17 feet water be boarded while the western land is open off the Ram Head by one of the 3d class pilots, and he runs the ship as far as either of the buoys on the Panther or Stone, and is there superseded by one of the 1st class, he shall be entitled to 1-3d of the pilotage.

10. Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea—

	L. s. d.
8 leagues without a line drawn from the Ram Head to the Mewstone, are to pay	3 3 0
6 leagues ditto	4 4 0
10 leagues ditto	6 6 0

and proportionately for intermediate distances.

11. Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than is stated in the above Table.

12. If a master choose to retain or employ a pilot whilst at anchor the rate for the lay days is to be 7s. 6d. a day, not including the day coming in or going out.

there being commonly a loss in weight of $\frac{1}{4}$ in curing; but this, like many other of the minor productions, is exceedingly uncertain, and perhaps a very plentiful crop occurs but once in 5 years. The price in the British market, as may be supposed, fluctuates accordingly; but I believe its average for some years past may be set down at 7d. per lb., exclusive of the duty (3d.)."—(Vol. II. p. 372. ed. 1814.)

The price of pimento in bond, in the London market, has varied of late years from 4d. to 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. At the period when Mr. Edwards's work was published, the annual imports of pimento from Jamaica amounted to about 673,000 lbs., and were decreasing every year—(loc. cit.). But at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the annual imports were 2,349,668 lbs., the annual exports 1,927,731 lbs., and the annual entries for home consumption 316,348 lbs. There has been, however, a considerable falling off in the imports of 1831 and 1832, which do not amount to much more than the half of those of the previous 4 years. The duty of 5d. per lb., being more than 100 per cent. on the price of the article, produces, at a medium, about 7,000l. a year. It ought to be repealed altogether. Jamaica furnishes more than 9-10ths of the pimento brought to England.

PINCHBECK (Ger. *Tombak*; Du. *Tombak*; Fr. *Tambac*, *Similor*; It. *Tombacco*; Sp. *Tambac*, *Tumbaga*), a name given to one of the many imitations of gold. By melting zinc in various proportions with copper or brass, some alloys result, the colours of which approach more or less to that of gold. This composition is frequently employed as a substitute for gold, in the formation of watch-cases, and various other articles of a like description. Pinchbeck is sometimes called *Tambac*, and sometimes *Similor* and *Petit-or*.

PINE, or **FIR**, a species of forest tree, next, if not superior, to the oak, in point of utility and value. There are above 20 species of pines. They do not bear flat leaves, but a species of spines, which, however, are real leaves. They are mostly, though not all, evergreen; but the appearance of the tree, as well as the quality of the timber, varies with the species, and also with the situation in which it grows. Generally speaking, the timber is hardest and best in exposed cold situations, and where its growth is slow. We shall only notice those species, the timber of which is most in use in this country.

1. **SCOTCH FINE** (*Pinus Sylvestris*), is a native of the Scotch mountains, and of most northern parts of Europe; being common in Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Lapland. It is straight, abruptly branched, rising in favourable situations to the height of 80 or 90 feet, and being from 3 to 4 feet in diameter. It is at perfection when 70 or 80 years old. The colour of the wood differs considerably; it is generally of a reddish yellow, or of a honey yellow, of various degrees of brightness. It has no larger transverse septa, and it has a strong resinous odour and taste. In the best timber, the annual rings are thin, not exceeding $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch in thickness; the dark parts of the rings of a bright reddish colour; the wood hard and dry to the feel, neither leaving a woolly surface after the saw, nor filling its teeth with resin. The best Norway is the finest of this kind, and the best Riga and Memel are not much inferior. The inferior sorts have thick annual rings; in some, the dark parts of the rings are of a honey yellow, the wood heavy, and filled with a soft resinous matter, feels clammy, and chokes the saw. Timber of this kind is not durable, nor fit for bearing strains. In some inferior species, the wood is spongy, contains less resinous matter, and presents a woolly surface after the saw. Swedish timber is often of this kind.

Scotch fir is the most durable of the pine species. It was the opinion of the celebrated Mr. Brindley, "that red Riga deal, or pine wood, would endure as long as oak in all situations." Its lightness and stiffness render it superior to any other material for beams, girders, joists, rafters, &c. It is much used in joiners' work, as it is more easily wrought, stands better, is much cheaper, and is nearly, if not quite, as durable as oak.

Scotch fir is exported from Norway and Sweden, under the name of *redwood*. Norway exports no trees above 18 inches' diameter, consequently there is much sap wood; but the heart wood is both stronger and more durable than that of larger trees from other situations. Riga exports a considerable quantity under the name of masts and spars; pieces from 18 to 25 inches' diameter are called *masts*, and are usually 70 or 80 feet in length; those of less than 18 inches' diameter are called *spars*.—(See RIGA.) Yellow deals and planks are imported from various parts of Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Russia, &c. Tar, pitch, and turpentine, are obtained from the Scotch fir.—(See these titles.) When the tree has attained to a proper age, it is not injured by the extraction of these products.

2. **SPRUCE PINE**.—Of this there are 3 species: the Norway spruce, or *Pinus abies*; white spruce, or *Pinus alba*; and black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*. These are noble trees, rising in straight stems from 150 to 200 feet in height. They yield the timber known by the name of *white fir*, or *deal*, from its always being imported in deals or planks.

Deals imported from Christiania are in the highest estimation.—(See CHRISTIANIA.) The trees are usually cut into 3 lengths, generally of about 12 feet each; and are afterwards cut into deals by saw-mills, each length yielding 3 deals. The Norway spruce thrives very well in Britain, and produces timber little inferior to the foreign: it is somewhat softer, and the knots are extremely hard.

The white spruce, or *Pinus alba*, is brought from British North America. The wood is not so resinous as the Norway spruce: it is tougher, lighter, and more liable to twist in drying.

The black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*, is also an American tree; but it is not much imported into this country. The black and white spruce derive their names from the colour of the bark; the wood of both being of the same colour.

The colour of the annual ring of the American and hard, the other kinds are often seasoned. White

3. **WYOMING** and is imported in the largest and durable, nor fit for

4. **SILVA FIR** Switzerland, and burch turpentine, carpentry and shingles; the softer in bend much under nearly level. It is the water; and, the

5. **LAACH** (Pine 2 American. The extensively introduced rapid growth. Area 252 cubic feet

feet. The mean inches' diameter.

the hard part of the moon with the other generally has a six much tougher. It better when once of resinous wood.

It is in all situations external or internal. It is peculiarly adapted staircases; in the the black oaken shutters, and the is not necessary.—

The Principles of PINE-APPLIED to bothouses in this healthy, it is the when carefully cut. A pine-apple raised in the dinner of George Knowledge.)

PINE, a measure and signifies a little wine, the other gallon, &c. The

PIPE, a wine cask. Two pipe pipe varies according 138 wine gallons. Vidonia 120. It is usual to charge PIPE-CLAY employed in the

PIRACY, committed if committed upon Pirates hold them to attack assassins. The hostes omnium, imitate them without trial, committed before

The colour of spruce fir, or white deal, is yellowish or brownish white; the hard part of the annual ring a darker shade of the same colour; it often has a silky lustre, especially in the American and British grown kinds. Each annual ring consists of two parts; the hard, the other softer. The knots are generally very hard. The clear and straight-grained kinds are often tough, but not very difficult to work, and stand extremely well when properly seasoned. White deal, as imported, shrinks about $\frac{1}{10}$ th part in becoming quite dry.

3. **Weymouth Pine, or White Pine** (*Pinus strobus*), is a native of North America, and is imported in large logs, often more than 2 feet square and 30 feet in length. It is one of the largest and most useful of the American trees, and makes excellent masts; but it is not durable, nor fit for large timbers, being very subject to dry rot. It has a peculiar odour.

4. **Silva Fir** (*Pinus picea*), is a native of the mountains of Siberia, Germany, and Switzerland, and is common in British plantations. It is a large tree, and yields the Strassburgh turpentine. The wood is of good quality, and much used on the Continent both for carpentry and ship building. The harder fibres are of a yellow colour, compact, and resinous; the softer nearly white. Like the other kinds of fir, it is light and stiff, and does not bend much under a considerable load; consequently, floors constructed of it remain permanently level. It is subject to the worm. It has been said to last longer in the air than in the water; and, therefore, to be fitter for the upper parts of bridges than for piles and piers.

5. **Larch** (*Pinus larix*). There are 3 species of this valuable tree; 1 European, and 2 American. The variety from the Italian Alps is the most esteemed, and has lately been extensively introduced into plantations in Great Britain. It is a straight and lofty tree, of rapid growth. A tree 79 years of age was cut down at Blair Athol, in 1817, which contained 252 cubic feet of timber; and one of 80 years of age, at Dunkeld, measured 300 cubic feet. The mean size of the trunk of the larch may be taken at 45 feet in length, and 33 inches diameter. The wood of the European larch is generally of a honey yellow colour, the hard part of the annual rings of a redder cast; sometimes it is brownish white. In common with the other species of pine, each annual ring consists of a hard and a soft part. It generally has a silky lustre; its colour is browner than that of the Scotch pine, and it is much tougher. It is more difficult to work than Riga or Memel timber; but the surface is better when once it is obtained. It bears driving bolts and nails better than any other species of resinous wood. When perfectly dry, it stands well; but it warps much in seasoning.

It is in all situations extremely durable. It is useful for every purpose of building, whether external or internal; it makes excellent ship timber, masts, boats, posts, rails, and furniture. It is peculiarly adapted for flooring boards, in situations where there is much wear, and for staircases: in the latter, its fine colour, when rubbed with oil, is much preferable to that of the black oaken staircases to be seen in some old mansions. It is well adapted for doors, shutters, and the like; and, from the beautiful colour of its wood when varnished, painting is not necessary.—We have abstracted these particulars from *Mr. Tredgold's* excellent work, *The Principles of Carpentry*, pp. 209—217.

PINE-APPLE, or ANANAS, though a tropical fruit, is now extensively cultivated in hot-houses in this country, and is well known to every one. When of a good sort and healthy, it is the most luscious, and, perhaps, the best fruit that this country produces; and when carefully cultivated, is equal in point of quality to that produced in the West Indies. A pine-apple raised at Stackpool Court, Pembrokeshire, and served up at the coronation dinner of George IV., weighed 10 lbs. 8 oz.—(*Vegetable Substances*, p. 379., *Lib. Entert. Knowledge*.)

PINT, a measure used chiefly in the measuring of liquids. The word is High Dutch, and signifies a little measure of wine. The English pint used to be of 2 sorts; the one for wine, the other for beer and ale. Two pints make a quart; 2 quarts a pottle; 2 pottles a gallon, &c. The pint, Imperial liquid measure, contains 34.659 cubic inches.

PIPE, a wine measure, usually containing 105 (very nearly) Imperial, or 126 wine gallons. Two pipes, or 210 Imperial gallons, make a tun. But, in practice, the size of the pipe varies according to the description of wine it contains. Thus, a pipe of port contains 138 wine gallons, of sherry 130, of Lisbon and Bucellas 140, of Madeira 110, and of Vidonia 120. The pipe of port, it is to be observed, is seldom accurately 138 gallons, and it is usual to charge what the vessel accurately contains.

PIPE-CLAY, a species of clay abounding in Devonshire, and other parts of England, employed in the manufacture of various sorts of earthenware, and in bleaching.

PIRACY, consists in committing those acts of robbery and violence upon the seas, that, if committed upon land, would amount to felony.

Pirates hold no commission or delegated authority from any sovereign or state, empowering them to attack others. They can, therefore, be only regarded in the light of robbers or assassins. They are, as Cicero has truly stated, the common enemies of all (*communes hostes omnium*); and the law of nations gives to every one the right to pursue and exterminate them without any previous declaration of war; but it is not allowed to kill them without trial, except in battle. Those who surrender, or are taken prisoners, must be brought before the proper magistrates, and dealt with according to law.

By the ancient common law of England, piracy, if committed by a *subject*, was held to be a species of treason, being contrary to his natural allegiance; and, by an *alien*, to be felony only: but since the statute of treasons (25 Edw. 3. c. 2.), it is held to be only felony in a subject. Formerly this offence was only cognisable by the admiralty courts, which proceed by the rules of the civil law; but it being inconsistent with the liberties of the nation that any man's life should be taken away, unless by the judgment of his peers, the statute 28 Hen. 8. c. 15. established a new jurisdiction for this purpose, which proceeds according to the course of common law.

It was formerly a question whether the Algerines, and other African states, should be considered pirates: but, however exceptionable their conduct might have been on many occasions, and however hostile their policy might be to the interests of humanity, still, as they had been subjected to what may be called regular governments, and had been admitted to enter into treaties with other powers, they could not be treated as pirates.

Pirates having no right to make conquests, or to seize upon what belongs to others, capture by them does not divest the owner of his property. At a very early period of our history, a law was made for the restitution of property taken by pirates, if found within the realm, whether belonging to strangers or Englishmen: but any foreigner suing upon this statute must prove that, at the time of the capture, his own sovereign and the sovereign of the captor were in mutual amity; for it is held that piracy cannot be committed by the subjects of states at war with each other.

Piracy was almost universally practised in the heroic ages. Instead of being esteemed infamous, it was supposed to be honourable.—(*Latrocinium maris gloria habebatur*.—*Justin.* lib. xliii. c. 3.) Menelaus, in the *Odyssey*, does not hesitate to inform his guests, who admired his riches, that they were the fruit of his piratical expeditions.—(lib. iv. ver. 90.); and such, indeed, was the way in which most of the Greek princes amassed great wealth.—(*Goguet, Origin of Laws*, vol. i. p. 383. Eng. trans.)

The prevalence of this piratical spirit in these early ages may, perhaps, be explained by the infinite number of small independent states into which the country was divided, and the violent animosity constantly subsisting amongst them. In this way ferocious and predatory habits were universally diffused and kept alive; and it is not to be supposed that those who were at all times liable to be attacked by hosts of enemies, should very accurately examine the grounds upon which they attacked others. According, however, as a more improved system of government grew up, Greece, and a few states, as Athens, Corinth, &c. had attained to distinction by their naval power, piracy was made a capital offence: but though repressed, it was never entirely put down. Cilicia was at all times the great stronghold of the pirates of antiquity: and in consequence of the decline of the maritime forces of Athens, Rhodes, &c., which had kept them in check, they increased so much in numbers and audacity as to insult the majesty of Rome herself; so that it became necessary to send Pompey against them, with a large fleet and army, and more extensive powers than had been ever previously conferred on any Roman general.

During the anarchy of the middle ages, when every baron considered himself a sort of independent prince, entitled to make war on others, piracy was universally practised. The famous Hanseatic League was formed chiefly for the purpose of protecting the ships of the confederated cities from the attacks of the pirates by which the Baltic was then infested. The nuisance was not finally abated in Europe till the feudal system had been subverted, and the ascendancy of the law everywhere secured. In more modern times, some of the smaller West India islands have been the great resort of pirates: latterly, however, they have been driven from most of their haunts in that quarter. They are still not unfrequently met with in the Indian seas east of Sumatra.

Besides those acts of robbery and depredation upon the high seas, which, at common law, constitute piracy, some other offences have been included under that term. Thus, by the stat. 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7., if any natural-born subject commits any act of hostility upon the high seas against others of his Majesty's subjects, under colour of a commission from any foreign power, this, though it would only be an act of war in an alien, shall be construed piracy in a subject. And further, any commander or other seafaring person betraying his trust, and running away with any ship, boat, ordnance, ammunition, or goods, or yielding them up voluntarily to a pirate, or conspiring to do these acts; or any person assaulting the commander of a vessel, to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship, or confining him, or causing or endeavouring to cause a revolt on board, shall for each of these offences be adjudged a pirate, felon, and robber, and shall suffer death, whether he be principal, or merely accessory by setting forth such pirates, or abetting them before the fact, or receiving them, or concealing them or their goods after it; and the stat. 4 Geo. 1. c. 2. expressly excludes the principals from the benefit of clergy. By the stat. 8 Geo. 1. c. 24., the trading with known pirates, or furnishing them with stores or ammunition, or fitting out any vessel for that purpose, or in any wise consulting, combining, confederating, or corresponding with them; or the forcibly boarding any merchant vessel, though without seizing or carrying her off, and destroying or throwing any of the goods overboard, shall be deemed piracy; and such accessories to piracy as are described by the statute of King William are declared to be principal pirates, and all pirates convicted by virtue of this act are made felons without benefit of clergy. To encourage the defence of merchant vessels against pirates, the commanders and seamen wounded, and the widows of such seamen as are slain in any engagement with pirates, are entitled to a bounty, to be divided among them, not exceeding the *one fifth* part of the value of the cargo saved; and the wounded seamen are entitled to the pension of Greenwich Hospital.—(11 & 13 Will. 3. c. 7.; & *Geo.* 1. c. 24.) The first of these statutes also enacts, that if any mariner or inferior officer of any English ship decline or refuse to fight when commanded by the master, or shall utter any words

to discourage the other seamen with such good words.

The 6 Geo. 4. c. 49. declares that the ships of war of any power shall not be liable to be seized for every other vessel at sea. The same statute (2 Geo. 4. c. 24.) relates to any of his Majesty's ships, as salvage, &c.

(See *Ken's Com.*)
PISTACHIA or Pistachio, *Ficus* kind of turpentine which the nuts are round shape of a filbert or reddish skin. The almonds; their bitterness, accompanied imported from the East.

PITCH (Ger. *Pe*)
residuum which remains in ship building in Britain. The duty on it must have been as a stowance is to be each day, and 56 lb

PLANE, a forest tree, and the Occident. The Oriental plane is one of the first to exceed 8 feet in diameter and such is one of the largest of the wood of the Occident.

The tree known as *perado-platanus*, most trees. The timber splinter or warp. It is a very beautiful tree, but its variety of articles by worms, it is a pretty good, p. 196.)

PLANKS (Ger. *Planken*); Rus. *Talst* oak and pine. Imported in large quantities from Christiania, Dantzic from several parts of the Baltic.

PLANTAIN, a plant, extensively cultivated, like most other articles of subsistence, in various varieties, the fruit is above 2 or 3 in sweet, and of a flavoured kind are, for the most part, in the sun, in which in Mexico, the sweet while they are not

"I doubt," says Mr. DeMeunier, "the utility of nutritive substances to develop the chestnut there is always found being 2.3da the height perpetuates itself, the fruit has a (pene) ground of 100 square this same piece of ground

to discourage the other mariners from defending the same, he shall lose all the wages due to him, together with such goods as he hath in the ship, and be imprisoned and kept to hard labour for 6 months.

The 6 Geo. 4. c. 49. enacts that a bounty shall be paid to the officers and crews of such of his Majesty's ships of war as may be engaged in the actual taking, sinking, burning, or otherwise destroying any vessel or boat manned by pirates, of 20*l.* for each pirate taken or killed during the attack, and of 5*l.* for every other man of the crew not taken or killed, who shall have been alive on board the said private vessel at the attack thereof.

The same statute (23.) enacts that vessels and other property taken from pirates, proved to have belonged to any of his Majesty's subjects, are to be delivered up to them, on their paying a sum of money, as salvage, equal to 1-8th part of the true value of the same.

(See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 9th.—*Am. Ed.*)

PISTACHIA or **PISTACHIO NUTS** (Ger. *Pistaschen*; Du. *Pistaches*; Fr. *Pistaches*; It. *Pistachi*, *Pastucchi*; Sp. *Alfocigos*; Lat. *Pistacie*), the fruit of the *Pistachia vera*, a kind of turpentine tree. It grows naturally in Arabia, Persia, and Syria; also in Sicily, whence the nuts are annually brought to us. They are oblong and pointed, about the size and shape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greenish colour, covered with a yellowish and reddish skin. They have a pleasant, sweetish, unctuous taste, resembling that of sweet almonds; their principal difference from which consists in their having a greater degree of sweetness, accompanied with a light grateful flavour, and in being more oily. Pistachias imported from the East are superior to those raised in Europe.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

PITCH (Ger. *Pech*; Fr. *Poiz*, *Brai*; It. *Pece*; Sp. *Pez*; Rus. *Smola gustaja*), the residuum which remains on ineffectuating tar, or boiling it down to dryness. It is extensively used in ship building, and for other purposes. Large quantities are manufactured in Great Britain. The duty on pitch, which is 10*d.* a cwt., produced, in 1829, 418*l.*, so that 10,752 cwt. must have been entered for home consumption.

An allowance is to be made for tare on pitch, of 93 lbs. each on Archangel casks, 36 lbs. each on Swedish do., and 56 lbs. each on American do.

PLANE, a forest tree, of which there are 2 species; the Oriental plane (*Platanus Orientalis*), and the Occidental plane (*Platanus Occidentalis*).

The Oriental plane is a native of the Levant, and other Eastern countries, and is considered one of the finest of trees. It grows to about 60 feet in height, and has been known to exceed 8 feet in diameter. Its wood is much like beech, but more figured, and is used for furniture and such like articles. The Occidental plane is a native of North America, and is one of the largest of the American trees, being sometimes more than 12 feet in diameter. The wood of the Occidental plane is harder than that of the Oriental. It is very durable in water.

The tree known by the name of plane in England is the sycamore, or great maple (*Acer pseudo-platanus*). It is a large tree, grows quickly, and stands the sea spray better than most trees. The timber is very close and compact, easily wrought, and not liable either to splinter or warp. It is generally of a brownish white or yellowish white colour, and sometimes it is very beautifully curled and mottled. In this state it takes a fine polish, and bears varnishing well. It is chiefly used in the manufacture of saddle trees, wooden dishes, and a variety of articles both of furniture and machinery. When kept dry, and protected from worms, it is pretty durable; but it is quite as liable as beech to be attacked by them.—(*Tredgold*, p. 196.)

PLANKS (Ger. and Du. *Planken*; Da. *Planker*; Sw. *Plankor*; Fr. *Planches*, *Bordages*; Rus. *Tolstulle olosku*), thick strong boards, cut from various kinds of wood, especially oak and pine. Planks are usually of the thickness of from 1 inch to 4. They are imported in large quantities from the northern parts of Europe, particularly from the ports of Christiania, Dantzic, Archangel, Petersburgh, Narva, Revel, Riga, and Memel, as well as from several parts of North America.

PLANTAIN, or **BANANA**, the pulpy fruit of the *Musa paradisiaca*, an herbaceous plant, extensively cultivated in most intertropical countries, but especially in Mexico. It is not, like most other fruits, used merely as an occasional luxury, but is rather an established article of subsistence. Being long and extensively cultivated, it has diverged into numerous varieties, the fruit of which differs materially in size, flavour, and colour. That of some is not above 2 or 3 inches long, while that of others is not much short of a foot; some sorts are sweet, and of a flavour not unlike nor inferior to that of a good mellow pear; but the larger kind are, for the most part, coarse and farinaceous. The latter are either used fresh or dried in the sun, in which latter state they are occasionally ground into meal and made into bread. In Mexico, the sweeter sorts are frequently pressed and dried, as figs are in Europe; and, while they are not very inferior to the last mentioned fruit, they are infinitely cheaper.

"I doubt," says M. Humboldt, "whether there be any other plant that produces so great a quantity of nutritive substance in so small a space. Eight or 9 months after the sucker is planted, it begins to develop its cluster. The fruit may be gathered in the 10th or 11th month. When the stalk is cut, there is always found, among the numerous shoots that have taken root, a sprout (*pimpollo*), which, being 2-3ds the height of its parent plant, bears fruit 3 months later. Thus a plantation of bananas perpetuates itself, without requiring any care on the part of man, further than to cut the stalks when the fruit has ripened, and to stir the earth gently once or twice a year about the roots. A piece of ground of 100 square metres of surface will contain from 30 to 40 plants. During the course of a year this same piece of ground, reckoning the weight of the cluster at from 15 to 20 kilog. only, will yield 2,000

kilog., or more than 4,000 lbs., of nutritive substances. What a difference between this product and that of the cereal grasses in most parts of Europe! The same extent of land planted with wheat would not produce above 30 lbs.; and not more than 90 lbs. of potatoes. Hence the product of the banana is to that of wheat as 133 to 1, and to that of potatoes as 44 to 1."—(Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne, tom. II. p. 288. 2d ed.)

The banana forms a principal part of the food of the people of Mexico; and the apathy and indifference of the natives in the *tierras calientes*, or hot regions, has been ascribed, and probably with good reason, to the facility with which it supplies them with subsistence. It is by no means in such extensive use in tropical Asia; and comes nowhere in it into competition with corn as an article of food.

PLATE, the denomination usually given to gold and silver wrought into articles of household furniture.

In order partly to prevent fraud, and partly for the purpose of collecting a revenue, the manufacture of plate is placed under certain regulations. Those who carry it on are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually on the 31st of July.—(See ante, p. 137.) Assay offices are established in different places; and any one selling any article previously to its having been assayed and marked, forfeit 50*l.*—(24 Geo. 3. c. 53.) No plate is passed at the assay offices, unless it be of the fineness of the old standard, or 11 oz. and 2 dwts., or of the new standard of 11 oz. and 10 dwts. Gold plate, with the exception of gold watch-cases, is to pay a duty of 17*s.* an oz., and silver plate a duty of 1*s.* 6*d.*; but watch-cases, chains, gip-pirrs, mountings, collars, bottle tickets, teaspoons, &c. are exempted. The 5*o.* Geo. 3. c. 143, made the counterfeiting, or the transference from one piece of plate to another, of the marks, stamps, &c. impressed on plate by the assayers, felony without the benefit of clergy. But the offence is now punishable by transportation or imprisonment only.—(1 Will. 4. c. 66.)

In his able speech on the state of the country, 18th of March, 1830, Mr. Huskisson said, "The rate of duty upon silver wrought plate, in 1804, was 1*s.* 3*d.*, upon gold 1*s.* an ounce; it was afterwards raised to 1*s.* 6*d.* upon silver, and 17*s.* on gold. But what has been the increase in the net produce of the duty? It has risen from less than 5,000*l.* in 1804, to 105,000*l.* in 1826; a rise of more than twenty-fold notwithstanding the greatly diminished supply from the mines, and the consequent increasing value of the precious metals. It may be further remarked, that this augmentation shows how large a portion of gold and silver is annually diverted from the purposes of coin to those of ornament and luxury."

A Return, showing the Annual Net Produce of the Duty levied on wrought Gold and Silver Plate, in each Year from 1806 to 1833, both inclusive; distinguishing, as far as possible, Gold from Silver and also the Rate of Duty in each Year.—(Parl. Paper, No. 216. Sess. 1833.)

Years ending 31st of January.	Rate of Duty.				Duty not distinguishable.
	Gold.		Silver.		
	Per oz. 16 <i>s.</i>	Per oz. 1 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>	Per oz. 1 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>	Per oz. 1 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>	
1806	—	—	4,909 11 10	55,898 1 8	5,802 3 3
1807	—	—	4,244 18 2	56,808 10 11	10,761 11 2 1/2
1808	—	—	4,798 6 1 1/2	63,037 7 2 1/2	12,648 18 7 1/2
1809	—	—	4,806 1 8 3/4	63,739 16 6 1/4	11,064 8 1/4
1810	—	—	5,033 9 8 1/4	69,449 2 3 3/4	12,333 12 11 1/2
1811	—	—	5,840 16 0	74,036 11 11	14,311 14 6 1/2
1812	—	—	4,903 7 8	62,677 0 0	12,193 5 7 1/2
1813	—	—	4,632 14 9	56,171 10 10	11,267 4 1 1/2
1814	—	—	4,939 7 0	59,800 12 11	10,776 12 5 1/2
1815	—	—	5,360 13 10	63,445 11 6	12,423 11 6 1/2
1816	—	—	5,074 14 0	56,818 17 9	12,364 8 8 1/2
1817	—	—	3,971 8 7	60,156 12 8	12,028 15 8 1/2
1818	—	—	2,468 4 6 1/4	59,810 14 8 1/2	—
1819	—	—	3,708 0 8 3/4	63,519 15 8 1/2	—
1820	—	—	2,478 17 6 1/2	72,531 7 6 1/4	—
1821	—	—	3,398 1 0	67,964 14 6 1/4	—
1822	—	—	—	—	—
1823	—	—	4,783 16 6 1/4	71,220 9 6 1/2	—
1824	—	—	5,382 16 6 1/4	73,267 0 6	—
1825	—	—	5,481 0 7 1/2	89,119 4 6 1/4	—
1826	—	—	7,051 1 10 1/2	106,218 11 8 1/4	—
1827	—	—	5,399 8 8 1/2	80,512 12 6 1/4	—
1828	—	—	6,037 0 5 3/4	78,336 9 5 3/4	—
1829	—	—	5,969 8 7 1/4	86,528 0 11 1/2	—
1830	—	—	5,390 13 6 1/2	76,596 1 5 3/4	—
1831	—	—	4,558 18 5 1/2	74,489 16 4 1/4	—
1832	—	—	3,840 6 7 1/2	52,473 13 6	—
1833	—	—	4,369 6 0	62,598 16 10 3/4	—

Note.—The produce of the duties on gold and silver plate cannot be distinguished for the country prior to the year ended 31st of January, 1819, the same not having been distinguished in the accounts of the distributors.

We endeavoured to show, in the former edition of this work, that Mr. Huskisson had been deceived by trusting to false or defective information; and that, instead of the increase of the duties, and, consequently, of the consumption of plate, being nearly as great as he had represented, it fell far short of what might have been fairly expected from the increasing wealth and population of the country. The preceding Table shows that our criticism was well founded. The stationary amount of duty may, perhaps, be accounted for by the facility with which the duties are evaded. The increase of duty in 1830 is a curious phenomenon.

PLATINA, a metal which, in respect of scarcity, beauty, ductility, and indestructibility is hardly inferior to gold, was unknown in Europe till about the middle of last century, when it began to be imported in small quantities from South America. It has since been discovered in Estremadura in Spain, and, more recently, in the Ural Mountains in Asiatic Russia, where it is now raised in very considerable quantities.

Platina is of a white colour, like silver, but not so bright, and has no taste or smell. Its hardness is intermediate between copper and iron. Its specific gravity is about 21.5, that of gold being 19.3; so that it is the heaviest body with which we are acquainted. It is exceedingly ductile and malleable; it may be hammered out into very thin plates, and drawn into wires not exceeding 1-10th of an inch in diameter. In these properties it is probably inferior to gold, but it seems to surpass all the other metals. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of platina 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting 6

weight of 274.31 lbs. av. pieces of it may be we smallest degree altered. The late Dr. Wollast easily available in the of 3, 6, and 20 all when I pond 33 lbs. were piece of native platina. Statements published by

PLATTING, slips (See Mats, Straw.) PLUMS, the fruit. They were introduced into parts of the country.

PLUMBAGO. POMEGRANATE, *Melagrani*; Sp. This tree, which grows in the north-western parts of Asia, and even the size of an orange, colour, and a pleasant smell and the largeness of its fruit, is imported into India. The tree thrives in the East. The pomeloes are very inferior.

POPULAR (Ger. *Pappel*; Lat. *Populus*) described; of these, *Aspen* or trembling poplar, the most favourable situation, north shoots 16 feet long kept dry; but it is lig-

hardly poplar grows rather differ materially from adapted for the manufacture of *Trudgold's* Principle.

POPULATION. regulate the progress of this work. It may be it is frequently of commercial interests, and, we believe we are following the results of Britain and Ireland,

Slates.	
Main	—
New Hampshire	—
Virginia	—
Massachusetts	—
Rhode Island	—
Connecticut	—
New Jersey	—
Pennsylvania	—
Delaware	—
Maryland	—
Virginia	—
North Carolina	—
South Carolina	—
Georgia	—
Alabama	—
Mississippi	—
Louisiana	—
Tennessee	—
Kentucky	—
Ohio	—
Illinois	—
Indiana	—
Missouri	—
Wisconsin	—
Minnesota	—
District of Columbia	—
Puerto Rico	—
Mexican Territory	—
Arkansas Territory	—
Total	—

wright of 7491 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. It is one of the most infusible of all metals; but pieces of it may be welded together without difficulty when heated to whiteness. It is not in the same degree altered by the action of air or water.—(Thomson's Chemistry.)

The late Dr. Wollaston discovered a method of fusing platinum, and consequently, of rendering it easily available in the arts. The Russians have, within these few years, issued platinum coins of the value of 3, 6, and 20 silver roubles. Platinum first began to be an object of attention in Russia in 1824, when 1 pond 33 lbs. were collected. In 1850, the produce amounted to 303 pounds 14 lbs. In 1851, a piece of native platinum was discovered at Demidoff's gold mines, weighing 20 lbs. 2½ zoll.—(Official Statements published by the Russian Government.)

PLATTING, slips of bast, cane, straw, &c. woven or plaited for making into hats, &c.—(See HATS, STRAW.)

PLUMS, the fruit of the *Prunus domestica*, are too well known to require any description. They were introduced into England in the 15th century, and are cultivated in all parts of the country. There are said to be nearly 300 varieties of plums.

PLUMBAGO. See BLACK LEAD.

POMEGRANATE, POMEGRANATES (Ger. *Granatäpfel*; Fr. *Grenades*; It. *Granati*, *Magrani*; Sp. *Granadas*), the fruit of the pomegranate tree (*Punica granatum*). This tree, which grows to the height of 15 or 20 feet, appears to be a native of Persia, whence it has been conveyed, on the one side, to Southern Europe, and on the other, to the tropical parts of Asia, and eventually to the New World. The fruit is a pulpy, many-seeded berry, the size of an orange, covered with a thick, brown, coriaceous rind. The pulp has a reddish colour, and a pleasant subacid taste. The value of the fruit depends on the smallness of the seed and the largeness of the pulp. The finest, called by the Persians, *badana*, or seedless, is imported into India from Caubul and Candahar, where the pomegranate grows in perfection. The tree thrives all the way to the equator; but, within the tropics, the fruit is hardly fit for use. The pomegranates brought to England from the south of Europe and the West Indies are very inferior to those of Persia.—(Private information.)

POPLAR (Ger. *Pappel*, *Pappelbaum*; Du. *Popelier*; Fr. *Peuplier*; It. *Pioppa*, Sp. *Alamo*; Lat. *Populus*). Of the poplar (*Populus* of botanists), there are about 15 species described; of these, 5 are common in England; viz. the common or *White*, the *Black*, the *Aspen* or trembling poplar, the *Abele* or great white poplar, and the Lombardy poplar. In most favourable situations, the white poplar grows with great rapidity, sometimes sending forth shoots 16 feet long in a single season. The wood is soft, and not very durable, unless kept dry; but it is light, not apt either to swell or shrink, and easily wrought. The Lombardy poplar grows rapidly, and shoots in a complete spire to a great height; its timber does not differ materially from that of the white poplar. It is very light; and is, therefore, well adapted for the manufacture of packing-cases. None of the species is fit for large timbers.—(Trautsohl's Principles of Carpentry; Veget. Sub., Lib. of Entert. Knowledge.)

POPULATION. To attempt giving in this place any explanation of the laws which regulate the progress of population, would be quite inconsistent with the objects and limits of this work. It may, indeed, be thought that the word has no business here. However, as it is frequently of importance in commercial questions, and in others materially affecting commercial interests, to be able to compare the consumption of an article with the population, we believe we shall gratify our readers by laying before them the following Tables, showing the results of the different censuses that have been taken of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, [and of the United States.

Population of the United States.

State.	Pop. 1790.	Pop. 1800.	Pop. 1810.	Pop. 1820.	Pop. 1830.	Slaves. 1790.	Slaves. 1800.	Slaves. 1810.	Slaves. 1820.	Slaves. 1830.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,333	399,051					
New Hampshire	141,699	185,782	214,360	244,181	269,248	156				
Vermont	85,418	164,056	217,113	235,761	261,620	17				
Massachusetts	378,717	423,345	474,000	521,287	610,106					
Rhode Island	69,110	69,122	77,611	83,056	97,199	932	391	109	48	17
Connecticut	258,141	291,001	322,044	375,232	397,665	2,759	924	510	177	87
New York	3,10,130	686,756	939,849	1,372,812	1,914,604	21,243	90,340	15,177	10,008	73
New Jersey	194,136	211,546	249,555	277,375	320,623	11,423	12,422	10,851	7,047	2,251
Pennsylvania	451,573	602,303	810,691	1,046,458	1,348,230	3,737	17,610	793	811	313
Delaware	169,989	213,773	272,234	327,748	370,118	8,687	6,153	4,177	4,000	3,282
Maryland	316,738	341,544	400,816	407,950	447,040	103,068	105,633	111,022	107,384	122,294
Virginia	748,308	880,300	974,622	1,170,379	1,211,405	203,427	345,796	392,918	435,330	476,757
North Carolina	693,731	478,103	553,601	618,824	737,187	104,772	138,266	178,224	201,017	215,621
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	413,115	502,741	571,191	1,76,654	148,161	166,365	278,175	315,101
Georgia	82,646	162,101	232,439	310,987	516,423	39,264	50,404	105,211	149,866	217,531
Alabama			80,865	127,501	309,227			41,850	117,499	175,499
Mississippi		8,860	40,332	75,448	136,221		3,480	17,068	32,811	63,639
Louisiana			16,596	153,407	213,759			34,967	130,661	169,688
Tennessee	95,791	104,802	96,227	448,813	815,001	3,419	13,584	44,553	86,107	141,633
Kentucky	73,777	220,950	408,511	664,317	687,917	11,880	4,934	80,261	128,712	165,233
Ohio		45,365	230,780	681,434	937,000			156	237	156
Indiana		4,875	112,520	147,178	343,031			164	617	747
Illinois			12,252	85,211	137,135					
Missouri			29,815	89,560	140,145			6,611	10,222	25,081
Dist. of Columbia		14,093	24,023	33,036	39,434		3,244	5,363	6,577	8,103
Florida Territory					94,739					15,091
Michigan Territory			4,702	8,896	81,139			24		94
Alabama Territory				14,973	20,288				1,017	4,576
Total	5,203,997	6,508,925	7,239,614	8,938,131	12,566,820	897,697	863,041	1,191,064	1,598,664	2,008,431

I. Population of Great Britain in 1801, 1811, 1821, and 1831, showing its Amount at each Period in each County of England and Scotland, and in the entire Principality of Wales; with the Ratio of Increase.

Counties.	1801.	Increase per Cent.	1811.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.
England.							
Belford . . .	63,393	11	70,213	19	83,716	14	81,793
Berks . . .	101,315	9	118,477	11	131,977	10	147,208
Buckingham . . .	107,444	9	117,250	14	134,968	18	146,409
Cambridge . . .	89,348	13	101,109	20	121,909	19	146,409
Chester . . .	181,711	18	227,031	19	270,998	22	314,055
Cornwall . . .	188,169	16	216,097	19	257,417	17	284,433
Cumberland . . .	117,320	14	133,744	17	156,124	10	166,409
Derby . . .	161,122	15	18,487	16	213,133	11	227,279
Devon . . .	843,001	12	983,308	15	1,090,040	13	1,204,868
Dorset . . .	118,319	9	124,933	16	144,093	10	162,421
Durham . . .	180,381	11	177,825	17	207,873	22	238,887
Essex . . .	226,437	11	252,473	16	288,424	13	312,403
Gloucester . . .	247,809	14	285,711	16	335,743	15	381,704
Hereford . . .	89,191	5	94,073	10	103,213	7	110,221
Hertford . . .	97,577	14	111,454	18	129,714	19	149,221
Huntingdon . . .	37,909	12	41,208	15	47,771	9	51,119
Kent . . .	307,824	21	373,985	14	420,019	12	478,151
Leicester . . .	874,731	23	1,028,309	27	1,052,599	27	1,238,854
Leeds . . .	13,091	16	150,419	19	174,871	13	197,001
Lincoln . . .	308,537	14	337,801	19	383,019	12	417,011
Mid Essex . . .	819,129	17	935,378	20	1,144,821	19	1,247,811
Monmouth . . .	4,581	36	62,127	16	71,203	38	81,100
Norfolk . . .	373,371	7	391,829	18	443,069	16	490,991
Northampton . . .	131,757	7	141,538	15	182,438	19	200,991
Northumberland . . .	167,101	9	174,181	15	198,985	12	222,212
Nottingham . . .	140,360	19	161,800	15	186,878	20	223,221
Oxford . . .	109,820	9	118,191	13	136,971	11	152,221
Hereford . . .	16,356	18	16,380	13	18,487	5	19,255
Salop . . .	169,639	8	184,000	8	206,153	8	222,391
Somerset . . .	273,750	12	303,180	17	353,514	11	403,908
Southampton . . .	219,616	12	245,060	15	288,298	8	313,303
Stafford . . .	230,133	21	293,753	17	315,995	19	346,341
Suffolk . . .	310,431	11	324,311	15	373,548	9	406,341
Surrey . . .	269,048	20	323,811	23	368,054	22	416,341
Sussex . . .	153,311	19	180,083	22	223,019	17	272,208
Warwick . . .	308,189	10	328,735	20	373,282	23	426,341
Westmoreland . . .	41,817	10	45,822	12	51,350	7	53,311
Wiltshire . . .	185,197	6	195,828	12	222,157	8	242,157
Worcester . . .	139,323	15	160,542	15	184,224	18	212,341
York (East Riding) . . .	110,992	16	124,437	14	154,010	10	169,991
City of York and Almsley . . .	24,208	12	27,304	12	30,451	17	33,501
York (North Riding) . . .	158,225	7	169,331	11	187,452	2	190,521
York (West Riding) . . .	563,282	16	655,012	22	801,274	22	916,411
England	8,331,434	14½	9,633,927	17½	11,261,437	16	13,008,333
Wales.							
	641,546	13	611,786	17	717,438	12	805,228
Scotland.							
Aberdeen . . .	123,062	10	135,075	15	155,397	14	177,819
Argyle . . .	71,830	19	85,385	14	97,316	4	109,221
Ayr . . .	84,306	23	103,914	22	127,299	14	145,619
Banff . . .	35,877	2	36,665	19	43,561	12	49,561
Berwick . . .	80,821	1	80,779	8	83,035	2	83,039
Bute . . .	11,791	9	12,043	15	13,197	3	14,119
Caithness . . .	22,609	4	23,419	29	30,219	24	33,325
Clackmannan . . .	10,889	10	12,010	10	13,263	11	14,229
Dumfries . . .	20,710	17	24,189	13	27,317	22	31,211
Dumfriesshire . . .	54,397	15	62,060	19	70,779	4	78,779
Edinburgh . . .	122,874	21	148,607	20	169,514	15	192,221
Elgin . . .	29,703	5	28,108	11	31,182	10	34,119
Fife . . .	63,743	9	101,272	18	114,586	12	128,800
Forfar . . .	24,127	9	107,264	6	118,400	23	130,221
Glasgow . . .	25,986	4	31,164	13	35,727	3	39,119
Inverness . . .	74,392	5	78,338	15	80,157	5	84,577
Kilbride . . .	33,349	4	37,439	6	39,118	8	41,119
Kinross . . .	6,725	6	7,245	7	7,762	17	8,279
Kirkcaldy . . .	29,211	15	33,684	15	36,983	4	41,119
Lanark . . .	145,690	61	191,762	27	214,367	30	240,221
Leith . . .	17,844	9	19,411	17	22,005	3	24,119
Nairn . . .	6,257	9	6,251	9	9,006	4	9,344
Orkney and Shetland . . .	46,824	14	46,159	16	48,124	10	49,221
Peebles . . .	6,735	14	6,931	1	10,048	5	10,779
Perth . . .	126,368	7	135,083	8	150,030	9	162,221
Renfrew . . .	76,058	19	84,586	21	112,175	18	125,221
Rose and Cromarty . . .	55,543	10	59,833	15	68,828	9	74,879
Stirling . . .	33,622	11	37,230	10	40,982	7	43,619
Southern Highlands . . .	6,170	16	6,898	19	8,617	12	9,482
Stirling . . .	60,825	14	68,174	13	75,378	11	82,311
South Highlands . . .	23,117	2	23,029	17	23,440	7	23,919
Wigtown . . .	22,916	17	26,861	23	35,400	9	39,221
Scotland	1,590,063	14	1,805,988	16	2,083,456	13	2,365,887
SUMMARY OF GREAT BRITAIN.							
England . . .	8,331,434	14½	9,633,927	17½	11,261,437	16	13,008,333
Wales . . .	641,546	13	611,786	17	717,438	12	805,228
Scotland . . .	1,590,063	14	1,805,988	16	2,083,456	13	2,365,887
Army Navy, &c.	410,398		640,500		519,300		377,000
Total	10,942,918	15½	12,909,864	14	14,391,631	15	16,397,399

II. Population of Ireland in 1801, 1811, 1821, and 1831, showing its Amount at each Period in each County, and in the entire Principality of Wales; with the Ratio of Increase.

Counties, &c.	1801.	Increase per Cent.	1811.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.
Province of Leinster.							
Carlow . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Dublin Town . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Dublin County . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
City . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Wick . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Wexford . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Province of Munster.							
Cork . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
City . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Kerry . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
City . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Tipperary . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Waterford County . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
City . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Province of Ulster.							
Antrim . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Down . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Down . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Londonderry . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Tyrone . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Fermanagh . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Londonderry . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Tyrone . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Province of Connaught.							
Galway . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Town . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Leitrim . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Mayo . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Roscommon . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
County Sligo . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Total							
Leinster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Munster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Ulster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Connaught . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Total							
Leinster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Munster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Ulster . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Connaught . . .	10,000	10	11,000	10	12,000	10	13,000
Total							

PORCELAIN, or
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II. Population of Ireland, as determined by the Censuses taken in 1813, 1821, and 1831, &c. owing its Amount at each Period in each County, with the Rates of Increase.

County, &c.	1813.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.
Province of Leinster.					
Dublin Town	69,568	15	78,952	3 decrease	81,276
Dublin County	16,123	19	18,119	4	7,365
Drogheda Town	110,437	35	150,011	22	183,042
Drogheda County	178,810	6	188,841	5	230,599
Elberston City	86,138	16	99,068	0	104,401
Elberston County	184,664	17	198,716	8	199,253
Ennis County	113,228	15	131,068	9	144,029
Ennis City	96,917	12	107,570	4	112,391
Leix County	142,473	11	151,011	7	164,168
Leix City	113,857	17	134,275	8	145,543
Wexford County	128,519	10	140,806	6	154,799
Wexford City	110,767	22	134,806	7	161,961
Wicklow	83,109	22	110,767	10	122,301
Total			1,757,492	9	1,927,967
Province of Munster.					
Cork Town	180,803	20	208,089	24	258,222
Cork County	623,936	20	629,766	12	705,878
City	81,384	61	101,658	6	107,041
Ennis County	176,822	26	183,185	22	204,659
Ennis City	108,865	110	118,433	6	133,505
Limerick County	299,531	19	346,896	13	360,575
Limerick City	118,457	7	127,842	10	140,598
Tipperary	25,467	12	28,279	15	32,421
Waterford County					
Waterford City					
Total			1,935,612	14	2,215,364
Province of Ulster.					
Belfast Town	231,548	13	262,860	19	314,008
Down County	121,449	62	187,427	11	220,651
Down City	6,136	30	7,923	8	8,898
Donegal County			194,775	10	226,050
Donegal City			24,270	20	298,144
Fermanagh County	287,290	18	338,410	8	352,671
Fermanagh City	111,250	12	130,997	14	149,355
Londonderry County	186,741	4	193,929	14	222,416
Londonderry City	140,433	27	174,997	11	191,532
Monaghan County	350,746	4	361,865	15	502,843
Total			1,968,494	14	2,263,128
Province of Connaught.					
Galway Town	140,995	119	309,599	27	394,257
Galway County	24,684	12	27,775	19	31,120
Leitrim County	84,095	32	124,765	14	141,303
Leitrim City	237,371	32	293,739	25	367,851
Sligo County	168,110	32	208,729	17	236,913
Sligo City			148,229	14	171,508
Total			1,110,229	22	1,348,977
SUMMARY.					
Provinces.	1813.	1821.	1831.	Increase per Cent. on 1821.	
Leinster		1,757,492	1,927,967	9	
Munster		1,935,612	2,215,364	14	
Ulster		1,968,494	2,263,128	14	
Connaught		1,110,229	1,348,977	22	
Total		6,801,827	7,751,636	14½	

PORCELAIN, or CHINA WARE, a very fine species of earthenware. The first specimens of this fabric were brought to Europe from China and Japan. The best Chinese porcelain is of a very fine texture, white, semi-transparent, and sometimes beautifully coloured and gilt; is infusible, and not subject to break by the sudden application of heat or cold. The Chinese term for the article is *tsé-ki*. But the Portuguese, by whom it was first brought in considerable quantities into Europe, bestowed on it the name of porcelain, from *porcella*, a cup.

Common earthenware, sometimes of a very good quality, is manufactured in Canton, Fokien, and several other provinces of China. But it is a curious fact, that the beautiful porcelain imported into Europe is made only in the town of Kingteing, in the province of Kwangsi. Its manufacture is fully described by Dabaille, in his account of China, under the head "Porcelain and China ware." The porcelain of Japan is decidedly inferior to that of China; very little is imported, and it is valued only as a curiosity.

After porcelain began to be imported, its beauty soon brought it into great request, notwithstanding its high price, as an ornament for the houses and tables of the rich and the great. The emulation of European artists was in consequence excited. Very little information was, however, obtained as to the mode of manufacturing porcelain till the early part of last century, when the process was developed in a letter from a French Jesuit in China, who had found means to make himself pretty well acquainted with the subject. The knowledge thus transmitted, and the investigations of Reaumur and other chemists, prepared the way for the establishment of the manufacture in Europe. It was first commenced at Dresden, which has been famous ever since for the beauty of its productions; but the most and most magnificent specimens of European china have been produced at Sévres, in France, in the factory carried on at the expense of the French government.

British Porcelain Manufacture.—This, though unable to boast of such fine specimens of costly workmanship as have been produced at Sévres and Dresden, is of much greater national importance

* N. B.—Not enumerated in 1813.

neither docks nor quays to assist these operations. The harbour is perfectly safe, except during hurricanes, which may be expected from August to November.

Hayti is, next to Cuba, the largest of the West India islands. It was discovered by Columbus, on the 5th of December, 1492. Its greatest length is estimated at about 100 leagues, and its greatest breadth at about 40. Its superficies is estimated at about 2,450 square leagues. Three principal chains of mountains (from which emanate smaller mountain arms) run from the central group of Cibao. The whole of these are described as fertile and susceptible of cultivation, even to their summits; affording great variety of climate, which, contrary to what is the fact in the plains, is remarkably healthy. The soil of the plains is, in general, a very rich vegetable mould, exceedingly fertile, and well watered. There are several large rivers, and an immense number of smaller streams, some tributary and others independent. The ports are numerous and good. The harbour of Cape St. Nicholas, the fortifications of which are now in ruins, is one of the finest in the West Indies; being inferior only to the Havannah. Timber of the finest description is most abundant; and mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, and rock salt, besides other natural productions, are said not to be wanting. The French are, therefore, fully justified in designating this magnificent island, *La Reine des Antilles*. The principal towns, besides Port-au-Prince, are Cap Haïtien, formerly Cap François, on the north coast, St. Domingo on the south, Les Cayes, and Jacmel.

Previously to the revolt of the blacks, Hayti was divided in unequal portions between the French and Spaniards; the former possessing the west, and the latter the eastern and larger portion of the island. The revolution began in 1789; and terminated, after the most dreadful massacres, and the destruction of a vast deal of property, in the total abolition of slavery, and the establishment of an independent black republic. The Spanish part of the island and the French were finally consolidated in 1822.

Population.—In 1789, the French part of Hayti was by far the most valuable and flourishing colony in the West Indies. The population was estimated at 524,000; of which 31,000 were white, 27,500 people of colour, and 465,500 slaves. The Spanish part of the island was much less densely peopled; the number in 1785 being estimated at 152,640; of which 122,640 were free people of all colours, mostly mulattoes, and the rest slaves. The population of the entire island, in 1827, was estimated by M. Humboldt at 820,000 of whom 30,000 were whites; but there are good grounds for thinking that this estimate is exaggerated.

Imports.—The principal articles of import are provisions; such as flour, rice, mess and cargo beef, fish, &c. and timber, from the United States; cotton goods of all sorts, Irish and Scotch linens, earthenware, cutlery, ammunition, &c. from England; wines, satins, liqueurs, jewellery, toys, haberdashery, &c. from France; and linens, canvass, gin, &c. from Holland and Germany.

Exports.—There has been an extraordinary decline in the quantity and value of the articles exported from Hayti since 1789. Sugar, for example, has fallen off from 141,000,000 lbs. to almost nothing; coffee from about 77,000,000 lbs. to a little more than 32,000,000 lbs. in 1820; cotton from 7,000,000 lbs. to 620,000 lbs. in do.; indigo, from 758,000 lbs. to nothing, &c. Mahogany is almost the only article, the exports of which have rapidly increased of late years. The following Table illustrates what has now been stated:—

A General Table of Exports from Hayti, during the Years 1789, 1801, and from 1818 to 1826, both inclusive.

Year.	Cloyed Sugar.		Muscovado Sugar.		Coffee.		Cotton.		Cacao.		Indigo.		Mosses.		Ivy Woods.		Tobacco.		Castor Oil.		Mahogany.		Cigars.		
	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	Lbs.	Val.	
1789	47,516,581	80,573,300	76,403,219	7,004,374	7,004,374	—	758,028	81,749	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1801	16,560	18,518,572	43,420,970	5,495,347	618,614	—	804	69,419	6,918,301	19,140	121	120,962	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1818	—	5,445,587	38,085,900	474,118	454,308	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1819	—	3,380,143	20,240,919	518,103	570,433	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1820	—	7,877	2,014,502	19,137,758	816,838	554,424	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1821	—	—	600,934	28,925,511	820,563	261,732	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1822	—	—	300,454	24,253,372	698,368	464,154	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1823	—	—	14,827	38,802,837	332,258	335,540	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1824	—	—	5,100	44,305,084	1,028,747	461,634	1,240	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1825	—	—	2,020	36,034,300	815,637	339,807	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1826	—	—	32,864	32,189,784	820,972	437,592	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Om Guaiacum, in 1822, 7,338 lbs.—1823, 13,036 lbs.—1824, 68,692 lbs.

The destruction caused by the deplorable excesses which accompanied the revolution explains a part of this extraordinary falling off: but the greater part is to be accounted for by the change in the condition of the inhabitants. It could not reasonably be expected that the blacks were to make the same efforts in a state of independence they made when goaded on by the lash to exertions almost beyond their powers. It may, however, be fairly anticipated that they will become more industrious, according as the population becomes denser, and as they become more civilised, and acquire a taste for conveniences and luxuries. Hitherto industry in Hayti cannot be said to be free. It is enforced and regulated by the *Code Rural*, which is, in fact, a modification of the old French regulations as to slavery embodied in the *Code Noir*. "The provisions are as despotic as those of any slave system that can be conceived. The labourer may almost be considered *adscriptus glæbæ*; he is deemed a vassal, and liable to punishment, if he venture to move from his dwelling or farm without notice; he is prohibited from keeping a shop; and no person can build a house in the coun-

the hair, cotton wool, cocoa, raw and clayed sugar, rum, molasses, casia, whips, and umbrellas, containing lead, arsenic, or other articles, books, and other works, opposed to the law.

As to the export, there is also territorial duty levied equally on the produce of the soil, whether exported in national or foreign ships. The export of the following articles is strictly prohibited—Gold and silver coin, and fine arms, munitions, and other articles of war, iron, brass, and copper; bones, brood mares, mules, asses, and all other articles.

The country trade is entirely confined to Haytian citizens.

The commerce of Port-au-Prince is carried on by various classes of people. The imports from Europe and America are principally shipped to European and North American commission houses, and to the Haytian establishments. The capital is one of the ports which has been overhauled by the law of patents; but it is not at least now during the business. Of course they cannot deal with the customers, but with the native retailers, who are chiefly engaged in the country, and the markets, and give an account of their transactions to their employers, either every evening, once a week, or once a month, according to their character for integrity.

As the payments of the importer are generally in money, and there is not an important article of export—coffee—the purchases for retail can only be made after the crops have been gathered; and these are sold by brokers, who often bargain with a class of unskilled and often unscrupulous, and either sell to the best advantage, or fall victims themselves to the same.

Among the respectable marchands there is said to be much good faith; but with the great body of the customers, I believe, the merchants are obliged to use the utmost circumspection.

All the ordinary tradesmen, such as tailors and shoemakers, and even a water-proof hat manufacturer, are to be found at Fort-au-Prince. And I confess I was struck with the respectable appearance of several book-sellers' shops, having looked in vain for such things both in Havannah and Antigua. The books are generally elementary, French publications, and romances. The works of Voltaire, Rousseau, and others of the same class, abound. There are also two printing presses; one at which the government Gazette *Le Tyrographe* is printed, and the other from which the *Feuille de Commerce* issues. The former rarely contains more than the documents issued by the government; the latter occasionally some spirited papers, and is conducted by M. Courtois, who was for a short time director of the post office.

The apothecaries' shops are numerous, as they ought to be in such a horrible climate, and are well supplied with all the contents of the French Pharmacopoeia. There are also some tanneries, in which the bark of the mangrove is used as the tanning material. As far as I could ascertain, the great bulk of the border people were either of that class of Europeans called in the French time "petits blancs," or people of colour. The labourers in town and country are generally black.

With the exception already referred to, we have derived these details with respect to Hayti partly from the communication to government, and the published *Voyage de Charles Mackenzie Esq.*, late consul in that island; and partly from Mr. Consul Courtois's *Annales* to the *Circular Quaker*.

PORTERS AND PORTERAGE. Porters are persons employed to carry messages or parcels, &c.

In London, they are divided into different classes. It is enacted by 25 Geo. 3. c. 56, that the following shall be the maximum weight to be carried by any parcel not exceeding 56 lb. weight, in London, Westminster, Southwark, and the suburbs; viz.—

For any distance not exceeding 1-4 of a mile	s. 0	d. 3
Not exceeding 1/2 mile	0	4
Not exceeding 3/4 mile	0	8
Not exceeding 1 mile	0	8
Not exceeding 1 1/2 miles	0	8
Not exceeding 2 miles	0	10

And in like manner the additional sum of 3d. for every further space not exceeding 1/2 a mile.

Parcels to be made out at the inn, and given to the porters, who are to deliver them with the parcels; and any innkeeper not making out such tickets to forfeit not exceeding 40s. nor less than 5s.; porters not delivering or delaying the same, to forfeit 40s. and if they make any bargain they are to forfeit 20s. Parcels brought by coaches to be delivered within six hours, under a penalty not exceeding 20s. nor less than 5s. Parcels brought by waggon to be delivered within twenty-four hours, under a like penalty. Parcels directed to be left till called for, to be delivered to those to whom the same may be directed, on payment of the carriage, and 2d. for warehouse room, under like penalty. If parcels be not sent for till the expiration of a week, 1d. for every warehouse rent may be charged. Parcels not directed, to be left till called for, to be delivered on demand, under the above penalty. If a quantity of porters may be punished by a fine not exceeding 20s. nor less than 5s. The piers of London have the exclusive privilege of taking up and carrying goods within the city, and the employment of any one else may be punished by fine.

Porters (Tackle-Houses), are regulated by the city of London. They have the privilege of performing the labour of unshipping, loading, carrying, and lashing the Goods of the South Sea Company, the East India Company, and all other goods, except from the East country, the produce of the British plantations and Ireland, and goods consigned. They give bond for 500l. to make restitution in case of loss or damage, and are limited to rates fixed by the corporation.

Porters (Ticket), are persons appointed by the city of London, and have granted to them the exclusive privilege of unshipping, loading, and housing pitch, tar, soap, ashes, wainment, fir, poles, masts, deals, oars, chests, tables, fax and hemp, brought to London from the East country also, iron, cordage, and timber, and all goods of the produce of Ireland and the British plantations, and all goods consigned, except lead. They are freemen of the city, give security in 100l. for fidelity, and have their names and number engraven on a metal badge. They are called the ticket porters; who may, in performing the business of the port, employ other labourers, if ticket porters be not at hand. — (*Montfleur's Dictionary*.)

Any person may bring goods into the city of London; but he is liable to a fine if he either takes up, or carries, any within the city. It is enjoining that such several regulations should be still kept up; why should not the merchants of London, as well as those of Manchester, be allowed to employ any one they please in the conveyance of goods? Does any one doubt that competition would, in this, as in every thing else, be productive of the greatest advantage? The regulations in question merely tend to keep up oppressive practices, injurious to the public interests, and disadvantageous even to those to whom favour they are enacted.

1830.	1831.
157	171
2,823	23,616
77	69
1,787	9,050

Use of the dollar does not...
 The total receipt of...
 of Hayti. The ex-...
 ported to the United States, are...
 for, &c., the number...
 of any other year...
 1830, and 1831, has...

PORT LOUIS, ON NORTHWEST PORT, the capital of the Mauritius, in lat. 20° 9' 56" S., lon. 57° 28' 41" E. It is situated at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is rather difficult. Every vessel approaching the harbour must hoist her flag and fire 2 guns; if in the night, a light must be shown; when a pilot comes on board, and steers the ship to the entrance of the port. It is a very convenient port for careening and repairing; but provisions of all sorts are dear. In the hurricane months, the anchorage in Port Louis is not good; and it can then only accommodate a very few vessels. The houses are low, and are principally built of wood. The town and harbour are pretty strongly fortified. Almost all the foreign trade of the island is carried on here.

The Mauritius was so called by the Dutch in honour of Prince Maurice; but it was first settled by the French in 1720; and is indebted for most part of its prosperity to the skilful management of its governor, the famous M. de la Bourdonnais. It was taken by the English in 1810; and was definitively ceded to us in 1814.

Exports and Imports, &c.—Mauritius is pretty fertile, a considerable part of the surface being, however, occupied by mountains. Its shape is circular, being about 150 miles in circumference. The climate is healthy, but is very subject to hurricanes. The principal product of the island is sugar, which is now cultivated to the almost total neglect of every thing else; but it also produces excellent coffee, indigo, and cotton. The blackwood or ebony of the Mauritius is very abundant, and of a superior quality. Very little corn or grain of any kind is raised in the island; most articles of provision being imported. Previously to 1825, the sugar and other articles brought to Great Britain from the Mauritius were charged with the same duties as the like articles from India; but in the above-mentioned year this distinction was done away, and it was enacted (6 Geo. 4. c. 111, § 44.), that all goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Mauritius, should, upon importation into any port of the United Kingdom, be subject to the same duties and regulations as the like goods being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British colonies in the West Indies; and that the trade with the Mauritius should be placed as nearly as possible on the same footing as that of the West India islands.

This was a great boon to the Mauritius, and the exports of sugar from it, have since rapidly increased. According to Mr. Milburn (*Oriental Commerce*, vol. li. p. 568.), they amounted, in 1812, to about 5,000,000 lbs. In 1818, they amounted to about 9,000,000 lbs.; and in 1824, to 23,333,553 lbs. They have since been as under:—

1826	-	42,489,416 lbs.	1830	-	54,899,520 lbs.
1827	-	40,618,254	1831	-	57,965,926 "
1828	-	48,838,780	1832	-	59,049,872 "
1829	-	33,371,906			

The cultivation of sugar being found more profitable than that of coffee, the exports of the latter, though of excellent quality, have declined so far, that in 1832 we only obtained from the Mauritius 26,648 lbs. The exports of cotton are also inconsiderable. The exports of ebony in 1828 amounted to 2,002,783 lbs., of the estimated value of 9,017l. The value of the tortoise-shell exported in the same year was also estimated at about 9,000l. Considerable quantities of Indian piece goods are exported. The principal imports consist of provisions, particularly grain and flour; the supply required for the use of the island being almost entirely derived from the Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, India, Bourbon, &c. Earthenware, machinery, furniture, hardware, piece goods, wine, &c. are also largely imported. The total estimated value of the imports in 1831 amounted to 705,383l.; the estimated value of the exports for the same year being 606,684l. In 1831, 348 ships cleared outward, of the burden of 93,468 tons; of which 22 ships, of the burden of 5,337 tons, were for Britain.

In 1828, the population of the Mauritius amounted to 91,624 souls; of which 8,111 were whites (exclusive of the king's troops), 15,444 free blacks, 69,070 slaves, 1,736 troops, and 237 resident strangers. The population of the Seychelles—small islands dependent on the Mauritius—amounted at the same time to 7,665, of whom 6,325 were slaves.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—According to the regulations of government, the franc is deemed equal to 10*s.*, and the Spanish dollar to 4*s.* 4*d.* The government accounts are kept in sterling money; but merchants, shopkeepers, &c. keep their accounts in dollars and cents, and dollars, livres, and sols.

The measures and weights are those of France previously to the Revolution. 100 lbs. French = 105 lbs. English; the French foot is to the English foot as 100 to 93.89, but in practice they are supposed to be as 10 to 15. The *voile* = 1 gallon 7.8 pints English; but in commercial transactions it is always taken at 2 gallons.

Duties, &c.—A duty of 6 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods imported for consumption in British vessels from all quarters of the world. The duties on the goods imported in foreign ships are, for the most part also, 6 per cent. A duty of 25 cents, or 1*s.* 1*d.* per cwt. is laid on all sugar exported in British bottoms, to all places except Bourbon; and an additional duty of 8 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods exported in foreign bottoms. The charges for pilotage, wharfrage, &c. are fixed by government, and may be learned at the Custom-house. For the most part they are very moderate.

Finance.—In a financial point of view, the Mauritius does not seem to be a very valuable acquisition. During the 15 years ending with 1825, the expenditure of government in the island exceeded the revenue by no less than 1,026,204*l.* According to the estimate of the commissioners of inquiry, the probable future revenue of the Mauritius may be estimated at 184,233*l.* a year; but the commissioners state that the expenditure in the island in 1828 amounted to 160,509*l.*, and the expenditure a Great Britain on account of the island to 77,537*l.*; making together 244,368*l.*—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 164, Sess. 1831.) It appears from the accounts published by the Board of Trade, that the total revenue of the colony in 1831 amounted to 232,438*l.*, and the expenditure to 249,524*l.*—(Vol. i. p. 246.) We believe, however, that, by enforcing a system of unparliamentary retrenchment, this unfavourable balance might be considerably diminished; at present, both the number of functionaries and their salaries seem quite excessive.—(This article has been almost entirely compiled from official documents.)

PORTO-RICO, the capital of the valuable Spanish island of the same name, in lat. 18° 29' 10" N., lon. 66° 13' 15" W. It is situated on the north side of the island, on a peninsula joined to the main land by a narrow isthmus. The fortifications are very strong; the town which stands on a pretty steep declivity, is well built, clean, and contains from 20,000 to 30,000 inhabitants.

Harbour.—The harbour of Porto-rico has a striking resemblance to that of the Havannah, in which it is but little inferior. The entrance to it, about 300 fathoms in width, has the Morro Castle on its east side, and is defended on the west side by forts erected on 3 small islands. Within, the harbour expands into a capacious basin, the depth of water varying from 5 to 6 and 7 fathoms. On the side opposite to the town there are extensive sand banks; but the entrance to the port, as well as the port itself, is unobstructed by any bar or shallow.

The island of Porto-rico lies in the same latitude as Jamaica. Though the smallest of the greater Antilles, it is of a very considerable size. Its form is that of a parallelogram; being about 115 miles in length from east to west, with a mean breadth of about 35, containing an area of 4,140 square miles. The surface is plentifully diversified with hills and valleys, and the soil generally fertile. It has, however, suffered much from hurricanes; those of 1742 and 1825 having been particularly destructive. Since the breaking up of the old Spanish colonial system, the progress of Porto-rico has hardly been less rapid than that of Cuba. Her population, which in 1778 was estimated at 80,650, amounted, according to a census taken in 1827, to 288,473, of which only 28,408 were slaves. A large proportion of the free inhabitants are coloured: but the law knows no distinction between the white and the coloured *roturier*; and this circumstance, as well as the whites being in the habit of freely intermixing with people of colour, has prevented the growth of those prejudices and antipathies that prevail between the white and the black and coloured population in the United States, and in the English and French islands.—(*Bulbii, Abrégé de la Géographie*, p. 1175; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, Lond. ed. pp. 4—11.)

Trade.—Sugar and coffee are by far the greatest articles of export. Next to them are cattle, tobacco, molasses, rum, cotton, &c. The imports consist principally of flour, fish, and other articles of provision, lumber, &c. from the United States; cottons, hardware, machinery, &c. from England; wines, silk, jewellery, perfumery, &c. from Spain and France; linen from the Italian Towns; iron from Sweden, &c. Large quantities of rice, maize, &c. are raised in the island.

Account of the Value
spec

Flag	
Spanish (from Spain)	0
Do. (retailage)	0
American	0
English	0
Dutch	0
Portuguese	0
French	0

The Quantity and Value of

Coffee	0
Sugar	0
Cocoa	0
Wine	0
Rum	0
Iron	0
Flour	0
Wool	0
Woolen stuffs, &c.	0

The Custom duties collected in 1830 amounted to 864,990 from 181 to 14th part of the year; the rest are Mayaguez, Ponce. (These statements have been published at Porto-rico, 20th of

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PORTS, POSTAGE AND POST-OFFICE.

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Account of the Value of the Imports into, and the Exports from, the Island of Porto-rico in 1830, specifying those made by the Spaniards, Americans, English, &c.

Flags.	Imports.		Exports.		Flags.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.		Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Spanish (from Spain)	287,816-09	231,794-3-08	French	87,938-6-34	245,011-1-25				
Do. (colony) *	1,151,445-3-25	885,316-2-19	Holland	1,200-2-15	3,013-0-27				
American	60,730-6-00	1,600,857-7-14	Danish	6,146-4-32	73,587-1-12				
English		1,351,891-6-09	Sardinian	60-1-00	15,302-0-10				
Hamburg			Swedish	845-5-00	390-0-00				
Genoa									
Prussia									
	87,736-7-38	136,049-6-27	Totals	2,208,911-5-13	3,511,845-3-14				

The Quantity and Value of the principal Articles of Export in 1830 were—

	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton	4,978 quats.	86,743 dollars.
Sugar	340,163 —	1,360,655 —
Coffee	169,119 —	1,348,424 —
Molasses	2,484,739 quarts.	72,215 —
Wine	871 bunch.	82,218 —
Wool	34,802 quats.	139,509 —
Woolen, cattle, &c.		302,303 —
		3,218,129 dollars.

Shipping.—Arrivals in 1830.

	Vessels.	Tons.
Spaniards	840	15,163
Americans	819	29,506
English	39	4,103
French	87	8,790
Danes	25	1,722
Sardinians	3	284
Swedes	4	323
Dutch	7	231
Hanseatic	7	1,184
Totals	1,221	59,626

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of Havana, which see.

The Custom duties collected at the different ports of the island in 1830 amounted to 684,980 dollars. The city of Porto-rico has from 146 to 148 part of the trade of the island. The other principal ports are Mayaguez, Ponce, Aguadilla, Guayama, and Pinar. (These amounts have been taken from the Balance Merchants, published at Porto-rico, 20th of June, 1831.)

PORTS. See HARBOURS.

POSTAGE AND POST-OFFICE. Postage is the duty or charge imposed on letters or parcels conveyed by post; and the Post-office being the establishment by which such letters or parcels are conveyed.

1. *Establishment of Post-offices.*—Regular posts or couriers were instituted at a very early period, for the safe, regular, and speedy transmission of public intelligence. Herodotus informs us (lib. viii. c. 98.) that in Persia, men and horses, in the service of the monarch, were kept at certain stations along the public roads; and that the despatches, being given to the first courier, were by him carried to the second, and so on, with an expedition that neither snow, nor rain, nor heat, nor darkness could check. A similar institution, under the name of *curvus publicus*, was established at Rome by Augustus, and was extended and improved by his successors. Horses and carriages were kept in readiness at the different stations along the public roads, not only for the transmission of despatches, but also for the conveyance of official personages, or others who had obtained an order from authority allowing them to travel post. By this means government was speedily apprised of whatever took place in the remotest corners of the empire; and instructions or functionaries could be sent to, or recalled from, the most distant provinces, with a celerity that would even now appear considerable.—(Bergier, *Histoire des Grands Chemins*, liv. iv. c. 4.; *Bouchaud sur la Police des Romains*, pp. 136—151.)

Posts appear to have been established, for the first time, in modern Europe, in 1477, by Louis XI. They were originally intended to serve merely, as the ancient posts, for the conveyance of public despatches, and of persons travelling by authority of government. Subsequently, however, private individuals were allowed to avail themselves of this institution; and governments, by imposing higher duties or rates of postage, on the letters and parcels sent through the Post-office than are sufficient to defray the expense of the establishment, have rendered it productive of a considerable revenue. Nor, while the rates of postage are confined within due limits, or not carried so high as to form any serious obstacle to correspondence, is there, perhaps, a more unobjectionable tax.

English Post-office.—The Post-office was not established in England till the 17th century. Post-masters, indeed, existed in more ancient times; but their business was confined to the furnishing of post-horses to persons who were desirous of travelling expeditiously, and to the despatching of extraordinary packets upon special occasions. In 1635, Charles I. erected a letter office for England and Scotland; but this extended only to a few of the principal roads, the times of carriage were uncertain, and the post-masters on each road were required to furnish horses for the conveyance of the letters at the rate of 2½d. a mile. This establishment did not succeed; and at the breaking out of the civil war, great difficulty was experienced in the forwarding of letters. At length a post-office, or establishment for the *weekly* conveyance of letters to all parts of the kingdom, was instituted in 1649, by Mr. Edward Pridaux, attorney-general for the Commonwealth; the immediate consequence of which was a saving to the public of 7,000l. a year on account of post-masters. In 1657, the Post-office was established nearly on its present footing, and the rates of postage that were then fixed were continued till the reign of Queen Anne.—(Black. Com. book i. c. 8.)

From the establishment of the Post-office by Cromwell, down to 1784, mails were con-

* This does not mean a coasting trade from port to port in the island; but the trade carried on under the Spanish flag with St. Thomas and other foreign colonies.

belonging to any company, American provincial bill of credit, goldsmiths' or bankers' letter of credit, or note relating to the payment of money, or other bond, warrant, draft, bill, or promissory note whatever, for payment of money; or shall steal and take out of any letter, with which he shall have been entrusted, or which shall have come to his hand, the whole or any part of any such bank note, bank post-bill, &c. he shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

Any person stealing or taking away from any carriage, or from the possession of any person employed in conveying letters sent by the post, or from any receiving-house for the Post-office, or from any bag or mail sent or to be sent by the same, any letter, packet, bag, or mail, shall suffer death without benefit of clergy.

And all persons who shall counsel, command, hire, persuade, promise, aid, or abet such persons, or shall with a fraudulent intention buy or receive any such securities, instruments, &c., shall suffer in like manner: accessories may be tried before apprehension or trial of principals. Trials may be in the county where offences are apprehended.

Exemptions from postage, franking, &c.—The statutes for regulating the rates of postage, and the exemptions from postage, from the 9th of Anne to the 53d of Geo. 3., are too numerous to be inserted, but the principal regulations are as follows:—

The king, the person filling the principal offices of government, the public Boards, and the Post-office may send and receive letters duty free.

Also all members of either house of parliament during the sitting of the same, or within 40 days before or after any summons or prorogation, not exceeding 1 ounce in weight, on condition that the names of the member, and the post town from which sent, the day of the month at full length, and the year, shall be endorsed thereon; also that the member directing it shall be at, or within 20 miles of the post town, on the day, or day before, the letter is put into the post-office; and also on condition that no member send more than 10, or receive more than 15, letters in one day.

Printed votes of parliament, and newspapers in covers open at the sides, &c. are exempted from postage.

But the post-masters may search to see if any thing else be contained in the cover; and if there be any such found, it shall be charged treble postage.

Persons altering the superscription of franked letters, or counterfeiting the handwriting of members on them to avoid postage, guilty of felony, and to be transported for 7 years.

But nevertheless, members who from infirmity are unable to write, may authorize and depute another to frank for them, sending notice thereof under hand and seal, attested by a witness, to the post-master general.

Bills of exchange, invoices, merchants' accounts, &c. written on the same piece of paper with a letter, or several letters written to several persons on one piece of paper, to pay as one letter.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 21.)

By writs or other legal proceedings.

Papers and samples of goods in covers open at the sides, without any writing inside, to be charged as single letters. But by 55 Geo. 3., if not open at the sides, and weighing only 1 oz., an additional rate of 1d.; but if less than 1 oz. and open at the side only, the additional rate of 1d.

Foreign letters suspected to contain prohibited goods may be opened in the presence of a justice, or magistrate, of the place, or district, on oath of person suspecting. If contraband goods found, to be destroyed, and the letter sent to the commissioners of customs; if none found, the letter to be forwarded with an attestation of the circumstances by the justice or magistrate.

By 9 Anne, c. 10, no person except the post-master, and persons authorised by him, shall carry or convey any letters, on pain of 5s. for every offence, and a penalty of 100l. per week besides, to be recovered in any court of record. And by 5 Geo. 4. c. 20., no person shall send or tender, or deliver to be sent, otherwise than by the authority of the post-master or his deputies, or to the nearest or most convenient post town to be forwarded by the post, any letter or packet, on pain of 5s. for each letter so sent, to be recovered in any court at Westminster.

Except letters concerning goods to be delivered with such goods, sent by a common carrier; letters of merchants, owners of ships or merchant vessels with cargoes to be delivered; such letters being carried without hire or reward; any commission or return thereof; process or return thereof out of any court, or any letter sent by any private friend in their way of journey; or by any messenger sent on purpose concerning private affairs.

Post-masters may make private agreements with persons living in places (not being post towns), for the receiving and sending to them respectively, letters to and from the post town; but for the delivery of letters within the limits of the post town, he is entitled to no remuneration.

CONVEYANCE OF LETTERS BY POST.

RECEIVING AND DESPATCHING OF LETTERS.—Speaking generally, letters may be put into the receiving boxes of the different post-offices throughout the country at all hours of the day, and mostly, also, of the night. The mails for particular places are made up at certain specified hours, of which public intimation is given; and letters put in after those hours are not of course despatched till next mail.

General Post-Office, London.—Letters to be despatched that day are received at the general post receiving houses till 6 p. m.; by the letter-carriers ringing bells, on payment of 1d. with each letter or newspaper, from 5 to 6 p. m.; at the Branch post-offices, at Charing Cross, Vere Street, Oxford Street, and Borough, till 7 p. m.; and at the General Post-office, in St. Martin's-le-Grand, and the Branch Post-office, Lombard Street, till 7 p. m.

Sundays.—The date shows when the letters were received at the General Post-office.

The circular stamp of black ink, when the postage is to be paid on delivery. Dito of red ink, with the word "Paid," when the postage has been paid at the time of posting the letter.

Dito of red ink, with the word "Free," when letters are franked.

Overcharged Letters.—Overcharges returned, on presenting the letter at the window in the hall at the office, St. Martin's-le-Grand; or the letter may be sent to the office by the letter-carrier, and the overcharge will be returned with the letter in 2 days. When single letters are charged double, or double letters treble, if they are opened in presence of the letter-carriers who deliver them, that part having the directions and tax upon it will be sufficient to obtain return of the overcharge; but in cases of single letters being charged treble, such letters must be shown at the Post-office before return of overcharge can be made.

Ship Letter Office.—The postage for letters forwarded through this office, to the Cape of Good Hope, New South Wales, Isle of France, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, is the full inland rate of postage to the port where the ship may be, and 2d. sea postage in addition, for every letter not exceeding 3 ounces, and 1s. per ounce for every letter above that weight.

Letters from the country for the above places are charged with the full inland postage to London, and 2d. sea postage in addition, for every letter not exceeding 3 ounces, and 1s. per ounce for every letter above that weight.

All letters from abroad, except the Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, New South Wales, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, are liable to a sea postage of 6d. single, and 1s. 4d. double, and so on over and above all inland rates whatever; but those from the

Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, are liable to the full inland rates, and a sea postage of 4d. for every letter not exceeding the weight of 3 ounces and 14. per ounce for every letter exceeding that weight.

N. B.—All letters forwarded through this Office must be paid for at the time they are put into the office.

Seamen's and soldiers' single letters are forwarded through this office to the East Indies and New South Wales, on payment of 1d. at the time of putting in; and such letters from the East Indies are chargeable with 1d., or 3d. if the post-office have to pay the gratuity of 2d. to the commander when landed in the United Kingdom.

Seamen and Soldiers, within any part of his Majesty's dominions, to and from which there are regular mails, can send and receive single letters on their own private concerns only, while they are employed on his Majesty's service, for 1d.

Letters coming from a Seaman, or from a Sergeant, Corporal, Trumpeter, Fifer, or private Soldier.—The penny must be paid at the time it is put into the post-office. The name of the soldier or sailor, his class or description, and the name of the ship or regiment, corps, or detachment, to which he belongs, must be specified on the letter. And the officer having the command must sign his name, and specify the name of the ship or regiment, corps, or detachment, he commands.

Letters going to Seamen or Soldiers.—The penny must be paid at the time it is put into the post-office.

Printed votes and proceedings in Parliament sent from Great Britain and Ireland by packet boats to any of his Majesty's colonies are to be charged with a rate of one penny half-penny per ounce, and so on in proportion, in lieu of any sum payable under any former act, to be paid on putting the said votes and proceedings into the Post-office. Colonial legislative proceedings may be sent from the colonies to the United Kingdom by packet boat at the same rate.

Pamphlets, magazines, reviews, &c. may be sent by packet boat from Falmouth to any of His Majesty's colonies at the rate of 1s. if not exceeding six ounces in weight, and 3d. per ounce above that weight.

N. B.—If such printed vote, proceeding, pamphlet, magazine, &c. be not sent without a cover, or in a cover open at the sides, or if any writing be thereon, other than the superscription, or any other paper or thing be enclosed therein, the packet will be liable to the full rates of postage as a letter.

Bank Notes and Drafts.—Persons wishing to send bank notes or drafts by post, are advised to cut such notes or drafts in halves, and send them at two different times, waiting till the receipt of one half is acknowledged before the other is sent.

Money, Rings, or Lockets, &c.—When money, rings, or lockets, &c. are sent by the post from London, particular care should be taken to deliver the same to the clerk at the window at the General Post-office, and when any such letter is to be sent from the country, it should be delivered into the hands of the post-master: but it is to be observed, that this office does not engage to insure the penny from loss.

Cautions to Masters of Vessels.—Masters of vessels opening sealed bags or letters intrusted to them, or taking thereon letters, or not duly delivering the bags at the post-office of the first port of arrival, forfeit 200l. Masters or others having letters in their possession after the master's delivering the letters at the post-office, forfeit 5l. for every letter found on board.—(55 Geo. 3. c. 153.)

Masters and commanders of vessels are required to deliver their ship's letters to the person appointed by the post-master general to demand the same; and if any letters not exempted by law, not exceeding the weight therein mentioned, be found on board after any such demand, the same penalty is incurred as on masters and commanders in whose possession letters are found after delivering their letters at the post-office.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 81.)

Masters and commanders of vessels are bound to deliver at the post-office of the first port at which they arrive, all letters on board not exempted by law, if they shall not have been previously demanded by some person specially appointed for that purpose by the post-master-general.

RATES OF POSTAGE, GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Rates of Postage to be taken in the Currency of the United Kingdom for the Post and Conveyance of Letters and Packets by the Post, from any Place in Great Britain to any Place in Ireland, or from any Place in Ireland to any Place in Great Britain.

Distance.	Single Letter.		Double Letter.		Trible Letter, or other weight or other than an Ounce Weight.		For every Ounce Weight, and for every Packet not exceeding an Ounce in Weight.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
If the distance of such places shall not exceed 15 miles, British measure	0	4	0	8	1	0	1	4
Exceeding 15, and not exceeding 30 such miles	0	6	0	10	1	3	1	8
30	0	6	1	0	1	6	2	0
30	0	7	1	0	1	9	2	4
60	0	8	1	4	2	0	5	8
80	0	9	1	6	2	3	6	8
120	0	10	1	9	2	6	7	4
170	0	11	1	10	2	9	8	8
230	1	0	2	0	3	0	4	0
300	1	1	2	3	3	3	4	4
400	1	2	2	6	3	6	5	0
600	1	3	2	6	3	9	5	0
800	1	4	2	9	4	0	5	4
700	1	5	2	10	4	3	5	8
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats between the ports of Portpatrick and Donaghadee, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0	4	0	8	1	0	1	4
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats from or to Holyhead or Milford Haven, to or from any port in Ireland, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0	9	0	4	0	6	0	5
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats to or from Liverpool, from or to Dublin, or any other port in Ireland, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0	8	1	4	2	0	2	9
Provided that no letter sent by way of Liverpool shall be chargeable with a higher rate of postage than if it were sent by way of Holyhead.								
Letters and packets to and from any part of Great Britain or Ireland, by way of Dublin and Holyhead, in addition to all other rates (Menai Bridge)	0	1	0	9	0	3	0	4
Letters and packets to and from any part of Great Britain or Ireland, by way of Conway and Chester, in addition to all other rates (Conwy Bridge)	0	1	0	9	0	3	0	4
And so in proportion in all the several cases for any other letter or packet of greater weight than an ounce.								

Letters containing enclosed letters containing more than one chargeable with 3 single letters or 4 of an ounce above 14. per ounce.

Great Britain

From any post-office in Great Britain to any other post-office in Great Britain

For any distance above 15 miles, but not exceeding 30	—
30	—
60	—
120	—
170	—
230	—

From

Great Britain	to	France
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POSTAGE AND POST-OFFICE.

Letters containing 1 enclosure are chargeable with 2 single rates. Letters containing more than 1 enclosure, and not exceeding 1 ounce, are chargeable with 3 single rates. Letters exceeding 1 ounce, whether chargeable with 3 single rates, or with 4 single rates; and for every 14 ounces above that weight, an additional single rate is payable in addition to the above.

Letters to settlers and sailors, if single, and in conformity to the act of parliament, are chargeable with 1 penny only.

Great Britain.

From any post-office in Great Britain to any place not exceeding 15 miles from such office	4
Between any two offices, not exceeding 30 miles	6
30	8
60	7
80	8
100	9
170	10
230	11
300	12

Postage of a Single Letter in Post.

And so in proportion; the postage increasing progressively 1d. for a single letter for every 100 miles.

Ireland.

From any post-office in Ireland to any place within the same not exceeding 7 Irish miles from such office	2
Exceeding 7 and not exceeding 16 Irish miles	4
16	6
21	8
25	9
30	10
35	11
40	12
45	13
50	14

Postage of a Single Letter in Post.

And for every 100 miles, Irish measure, above 200 miles, a further sum of 1d. Double and treble letters charged according to the same scale of advance as in England.

Foreign Parts.—Postage of a single Letter to and from London.

France	0 10	Germany via France	1 4	Portugal	2 6
Spain and Cuba	0 8	Spain	1 4	Brazil	2 6
Italy	0 8	Spain via Cadix	2 8	Buenos Ayres	2 6
India, Java and Turkey via	1 7	Holland and the Netherlands	1 4	Chili	3 6
France	0 8	America	2 8	Peru	3 6
Germany	0 8	West India Islands	2 8	Colombia	3 6
Holland	0 8	St. Domingo	2 8	La Guayra	3 6
Italy	0 8	Gibraltar	2 8	Honduras	3 6
Spain	0 8	Malta and Mediterranean	3 2	Mexico	3 6
Portugal	0 8	Madeira	3 2	Tampico	3 6
Denmark	0 8	The Azores	3 2	Cuba	3 6
Sweden	0 8	The Canaries	3 2	Portugal and Gibraltar, via France	1 7
Norway	0 8				

Persons sending letters from the United Kingdom to any part of France may, and, send them prepaid, allowing the whole postage to be paid by the receiver; or, send, they may pay the whole postage in advance; or, send, they may pay the British postage only to the frontier of France. But the full postage must be paid in advance, on all letters for other countries passing through France, and on all letters sent to any of the places and parts specified, above, (except the West India colonies and British America) otherwise they will not be forwarded.

No letter addressed to any part in France will be chargeable with more than a single rate of British postage, whatever the number of enclosures may be, if it do not exceed 1 1/4 of an ounce weight; or double postage from 1 1/4 oz. and not exceeding 1 1/2 oz., and treble postage from 1 1/2 oz. and not exceeding 1 3/4 oz.

The postage in France is charged solely by weight, without reference to the composition of the letter, and is at the rate of a single penny under 1 1/4 oz., and so on in proportion. A single sheet of paper, weighing more than 1 1/4 oz. is therefore liable in France to additional charge.

Registered Letters.—Persons desirous of registering letters and notices for France, and passing through France, may have them entered in the letter-office; such letters will be liable to a registration fee of 2s. 6d. each, in addition to the ordinary British rates, and to

double the French postage, according to weight. The whole payment to the place of destination must be made in advance, and such letters must be brought to the General Post-office, for the purpose of being registered, before 8 o'clock in the evening on ordinary post-days, and before 10 o'clock on Tuesdays and Fridays.

Mails made up in London as follows:

France, daily.
Belgium, Ostend, Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday.
Holland, Hamburg, and Sweden, Tuesday and Friday.
America, first Wednesday, monthly.
Matritia, Brazil, and Buenos Ayres, first Tuesday, monthly.
Lisbon and Madeira, every Saturday.
Gibraltar, Malta, Spain, Greece, Corfu, Egypt, and India, 1st of every month.
Mexico and Havannah, 15th of every month.
Jamaica, Hayti, Leeward Islands, and Carthagena, 15th of every month.
Letters for Portugal, Brazil, and other foreign ports, will in future be received until the hour for closing the boxes for inland letters.

CONVEYANCE OF NEWSPAPERS BY POST.

The former act relating to this department of the Post-office have been repealed and consolidated by the 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 84., of which the following official abstract has been published:—

United Kingdom.—Printed newspapers liable to the stamp-duty, and duly stamped, sent by the General Post, within the United Kingdom, will be delivered free of all charges, being no longer subject to penny or temporary post rates as heretofore.

Newspapers not having passed, or to pass, through the general post, but which are put into and delivered through the penny or two-penny post of any city, town, or place, will be charged 1d. each on delivery.

British Colonies and Possessions.—Printed newspapers, duly stamped, addressed to any of his Majesty's colonies and possessions beyond seas, sent by his Majesty's packets, will be forwarded free of charge.

Foreign Parts.—In the former impressions of this work, we had occasion to point out and censure the objectionable practice that had long prevailed in the Post-office, of charging out the salaries of the clerks in the foreign department by allowing them to charge heavy sums on the newspapers transmitted to and received from foreign parts. To such an extent was this practice carried, that, while the annual cost of a daily London paper amounted (previously to the late reduction of the stamp-duty) to any part of Great Britain, to 9s. 1s. a year, it could not be had at Calais or Boulogne for less than 12s. 1s., the clerks in the Post-office being allowed to charge 4s. 4s. for their trouble in conveying it to the place of destination. The fees charged on the French papers brought to England were similar. It is not going too far to say, that this preposterous system opposed a far more serious obstacle to the diffusion of intelligence than any that could have grown out of the fears and efforts of the most arbitrary and powerful monarchs. Luckily, however, it is now wholly abolished; French papers being received in all parts of the United Kingdom on payment of 4d. of postage, and British papers being transmitted to all parts of France, subject only to a charge of 4 centimes on delivery. The regulations are as follows:—

Printed newspapers, duly stamped, addressed to the under-mentioned countries and places, may be forwarded by his Majesty's Packets free of charge, viz.—

France	Buenos Ayres
Hamburg	Colombia
Denmark	Caraccas
Greece	Carthagena
Corfu, and Ionian Islands	Bogota
	Hayti, or St. Domingo.

If sent by private ships, 1d. each must be paid on putting them into the post-office.

Newspapers published in any of the afore-mentioned countries and places, brought by his Majesty's packets, will be delivered free of charge, except those from France, which are liable to 1d. each on delivery; if brought by private ships, they will be charged 1d. each on delivery.

Printed newspapers, duly stamped, and sent by his Majesty's packets, or by private ships, to other foreign countries and places not enumerated in the preceding list must be charged 2d. each when put into the post; newspapers from such countries, brought into the United Kingdom by his Majesty's packets, or by private ships, will be charged 2d. each upon delivery.

Newspapers intended to be sent either to the British colonies and possessions, or to foreign parts, must be put into the post within 7 days after the day on which they were published; and foreign newspapers must be printed in the language of the country from which they have been forwarded. On failure of either of these provisions, they will be charged as letters.

If the person to whom a newspaper from the British colonies or foreign parts is directed, shall have removed from the place to which such newspaper shall be addressed prior to the delivery thereof at the place of its address, it may (provided it has not been opened or used, but not otherwise), be redirected and forwarded to any other person at any other place within the United Kingdom, free from any additional charge; but if it shall have been opened or used, it will, on re-direction, be charged with the rate of a single letter from

charge; if to be sent by private ships a postage of 1d. each must be paid on putting them into a post-office.

Newspapers sent to India, the Cape of Good Hope, New South Wales, &c. will no longer be charged by weight, but 1d. each.

Newspapers printed in the British colonies and possessions, brought to the United Kingdom by his Majesty's packets, will be delivered free of charge; if brought by private ships they will be charged 1d. each on delivery.

Newspapers may be sent from one British colony to another, via the United Kingdom, by his Majesty's packets, free of postage.

Newspapers intended to be sent either to the British colonies and possessions, or to foreign parts, must be put into the post within 7 days after the day on which they were published; and foreign newspapers must be printed in the language of the country from which they have been forwarded. On failure of either of these provisions, they will be charged as letters.

If the person to whom a newspaper from the British colonies or foreign parts is directed, shall have removed from the place to which such newspaper shall be addressed prior to the delivery thereof at the place of its address, it may (provided it has not been opened or used, but not otherwise), be redirected and forwarded to any other person at any other place within the United Kingdom, free from any additional charge; but if it shall have been opened or used, it will, on re-direction, be charged with the rate of a single letter from

Conveyance of

Ireland, or from

For every Ounce Weight, and for every Part not exceeding so Ounce in Weight.	4
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94 1/2	752
95	756
95 1/2	760
96	764
96 1/2	768
97	772
97 1/2	776
98	780
98 1/2	784
99	788
99 1/2	792
100	796

been so high as to force recourse to other channels, the revenue must have been decidedly greater now than at the end of the war. Were the rates moderate, the greater despatch and security of the post-office conveyance would hinder any considerable number of letters from being sent through other channels. But, in the estimation of very many persons, the present duties more than countervail these advantages; and the number of coaches that now pass between all parts of the country, and the facility with which the law may be evaded, by transmitting letters in parcels conveyed by them, renders the imposition of oppressive rates of postage quite as injurious to the revenue as to individuals.

The gross produce of the post-office revenue of Great Britain, exclusive of Ireland, in the under-mentioned years, has been as follows:—

Year.	Duty.	Year.	Duty.	Year.	Duty.	Year.	Duty.
	£		£		£		£
1782	201,604	1810	1,675,076	1828	2,048,042	1832	2,034,603
1785	110,663	1814	2,005,987	1829	2,024,418	1833	
1775	345,321	1820	1,993,985	1830	2,053,720	1834	2,079,509
1793	745,238	1825	2,160,390	1831	2,064,334	1835	2,107,677
1800	1,083,950						

The progress of the Scotch branch of the post-office revenue has been quite extraordinary. In 1698, Sir Robert Sinclair of Stephenson had a grant from William III. of its entire produce, with an extra allowance of 300*l.* a year, on condition of his keeping up the post; but, after trial, he abandoned the undertaking as disadvantageous. In 1709, the Scotch post-office revenue was under 2,000*l.*; its amount in 1835 was 209,307*l.* gross, and 197,988*l.* nett; having increased nearly a hundred fold, in little more than a century! In 1781, the Glasgow post-office produced only 4,341*l.* 4*s.* 9*d.*, while its revenue is at present nearly 40,000*l.*—(*Stark's Picture of Edinburgh*, p. 144; *Glasgow's Statistics of Glasgow*; *Finance Book for 1835*, &c.)

The expenses of collecting the post-office revenue amount, at an average, to from 24 to 30 per cent. on the gross receipt. In 1835, they were, for Great Britain, 582,509*l.*, being at the rate of about 27 per cent. After all deductions on account of collection, over-payments, drawbacks, &c., the total nett payments into the exchequer, on account of the post-office revenue of Great Britain, in 1835, amounted to 115,000*l.*

The British post-office is admitted on all hands to be managed with great intelligence. But there are several departments in which it is believed that a considerable saving of expense might be effected. In 1835, the packet service cost, freights deducted, 57,949*l.*; and the mileage to mail coaches, and the payments to gisrds, tolls, &c., amounted to about 90,000*l.* The conveyance of mails in Canada, Nova Scotia, and Jamaica, was an item of above 12,672*l.*

There may, in all, be about 3,000 persons employed in the carriage and distribution of letters in Great Britain only; besides about 180 coaches, and from 4,000 to 5,000 horses.

Account of the Gross Receipt of the Post-office Revenue at the following Cities and Towns in 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Place.	Years.						Place.	Years.					
	1833.		1834.		1835.			1833.		1834.		1835.	
	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.		L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.
London	642,971	0 7	660,411	11 4	664,189	5 9	Preston	5,190	8 11	5,148	8 6	5,230	1 8
Birmingham	38,814	4 0	29,258	1 7	30,202	1 11	Sheff.-ld	11,582	16 2	11,759	18 4	12,215	4 8
Bristol	33,242	18 8	33,310	17 6	33,730	4 6	Edinburgh	4,984	18 0	41,860	6 9 1/2	41,959	4 1 1/2
Coventry	4,357	8 10	4,481	8 7	4,548	18 4	Aberdeen	6,479	12 1	6,598	15 0 1/2	6,598	9 5
Hull	11,533	18 9	14,459	15 1	15,319	17 1	Inverdee	7,904	8 2 1/2	6,162	18 10 1/2	8,892	5 8
Leeds	91,331	18 0	90,870	8 5	92,198	11 10	Glasgow	36,481	0 3	36,433	3 5	39,914	4 5 1/2
Liverpool	6,089	8 6	6,443	8 5	6,710	14 4	Aberdeen	69,096	8 8	70,514	1 1	69,652	12 11 1/2
Manchester	74,080	11 1	77,313	1 4	82,639	1 3	Belfast	8,457	13 11	10,312	1 9	10,971	17 10
Metropolit.	1,965	8 6	2,054	10 8	2,063	8 0	Cardiff	11,721	10 11	12,618	19 8	13,022	5 0
Newcastle	58,267	18 11	60,621	12 5	61,373	7 3	Limerick	1,935	14 3	2,040	15 5	2,022	18 7
Newick	9,768	6 11	9,689	18 0	9,537	10 3	Drogheda	6,357	8 1	5,967	2 0	6,257	18 6
Nottingham	6,968	7 1	6,196	2 4	6,097	15 1	London-Jerry	3,510	19 10	3,664	3 8	3,798	19 7
Reading & New-castle (post)	6,958	7 8	6,891	11 9	7,106	10 6	Waterford	6,981	1 2	6,339	12 7	6,334	4 11

Irish Post-office.—The most gross and scandalous abuses were long prevalent in every department of the Irish post-office. The commissioners of Revenue Inquiry exerted themselves to abate the nuisance; but, as it would appear from the evidence of the Duke of Richmond before the committee of the House of Commons on public salaries, without much effect. His Grace, however, laboured with laudable activity and zeal to introduce something like honesty, order, and responsibility into this department. The gross revenue of the Irish post-office amounted, in 1835, to 245,665*l.*; the expenses of collection were 96,238*l.*; and the nett payments into the exchequer, 122,300*l.*

(Postage of Letters.)—We stated in our last Supplement that it was probable that the Post-office regulations with regard to the postage and transmission of letters, would speedily be placed on an entirely different footing; and in that anticipation we have not certainly been disappointed. It was obvious, indeed, to any one at all acquainted with what has been going on for these few years past, that the late rates of postage could not be much longer maintained. The fact that the Post-office revenue had continued nearly stationary during the twenty years ending with 1838, notwithstanding the vast increase in that period of population and of the intercourse between the different parts of the empire, was a conclusive proof that the rates of postage had been carried to a vicious excess; and that in the arithmetic of the Post-office, as well as of the Customs, two and two, instead of always making four, sometimes make only one. The effectual reduction of these rates was, therefore, urgently required, not only because of the importance to a commercial and manufacturing community

of having the charge for the conveyance of correspondence fixed at a moderate amount, but because it was all but certain that moderate rates of postage would be more productive of revenue. It did not however follow, that because an average charge of 7d. or 7½d. each, on all letters conveyed by post, was very decidedly too much, that an invariable charge of 1d., whether the letter were conveyed 1 mile or 1,000 miles, was the precise limit that should be adopted! This was to rush from one extreme to another, and to endanger a considerable amount of revenue without any equivalent advantage. It must, no doubt, be admitted that the proposal for a uniform penny rate of postage had many recommendations in its favour. Being calculated at once to obviate trouble and save expense, it could not fail to be acceptable (what reduction of taxation is not?) to a large portion of the public, particularly to persons engaged in business. We believe, however, that the scheme was more indebted for its popularity to the oppressiveness of the old rates of postage than to any intrinsic merits of its own. Had these been reduced four or five years ago to a reasonable amount—that is had letters of 1 oz. weight coming from Scotland or Ireland to London been reduced to 6d., and other letters in proportion, and mercantile circulars been allowed to pass under covers open at the ends at 1d. or 2d. each, we venture to say that the clamour for a uniform rate of penny postage would not have made any way. But in this, as usually happens on similar occasions, those who delay to make reasonable and necessary concessions, at the outset, are, in the end, compelled to concede a great deal more than would at first have been satisfactory. This, at all events, has been eminently true in this instance. The clamour for a uniform penny rate became too powerful to be resisted; and parliament, whether it were so inclined or not, was obliged to lend its sanction to the measure. The act 2d and 3d Victoria, cap. 52., for regulating the duty on postage, did not indeed enact that the charge for conveying letters of a given weight should, in all cases, be reduced to 1d.; but it was introduced for the avowed purpose of enabling the Treasury to take the necessary steps to bring the charge about with the least inconvenience to all parties. In this view it gave the Treasury power to alter and reduce the rates of postage, without reference to the distance which letters may be conveyed, according to the weight of the letters, and not to the number or description of their enclosures: it also gave them power to adopt such regulations as they might think expedient as to stamped covers or envelopes; to suspend parliamentary franking, &c.

In virtue of the powers so conveyed, the Treasury have issued regulations by which all inland letters, without regard to the number of enclosures or the distance conveyed, provided they be paid when posted or despatched, shall,

If not exceeding 1 oz. weight be charged 1d.; 1 oz. 2d.; 2 oz. 4d.; 3 oz. 6d.; and for every additional ounce up to 16 oz., beyond which, without the weight exceeding 16 oz., no packet, whether subject to postage or not, is received—

1. Parliamentary petitions and addresses to her Majesty.
2. Parliamentary proceedings.
3. Letters and packets addressed to or received from places beyond sea.
4. Letters and packets to and from public departments, and to and from public officers that formerly franked by virtue of their offices.
5. Deeds if sent open, or in covers open at the sides. They may be tied with string and sealed, in order to prevent inspection of the contents, but they must be open at the sides, that it may be seen that they are entitled to the privilege.

With these exceptions, all packets above the weight of 16 oz. will be immediately forwarded to the Dead Letter Office.

But all letters not paid when they are posted or despatched are charged double the above rates. All parliamentary and official franking has been put an end to; but members of either house of parliament are entitled to receive petitions to parliament free of charge, provided such petitions be sent in covers open at the ends, and do not exceed 6 oz. weight.

N. B. The regulations as to the postage of foreign letters depend to a considerable degree on the varying regulations of foreign states, and could not, therefore, be advantageously noticed in this place.

An important part of the new plan, suggested by Mr. Hill, of enclosing letters in stamped envelopes, has not yet come into operation. But it is in a forward state; and when it is carried into effect, it will, by affording an opportunity for purchasing envelopes beforehand, obviate the trouble that is now occasioned by the payment of letters when they are posted.

Such are the more prominent features of the new system; and none can deny that it has the recommendations of simplicity and cheapness in its favour, and that it will greatly facilitate correspondence. But it may notwithstanding be doubted, whether its adoption was expedient. It is no doubt very convenient for merchants, bankers, middlemen, and retail dealers to get letters for 1d. that previously cost them 7d. or 7½d.; but their satisfaction is not the only thing to be attended to in forming a fair estimate of the measure. The public exigencies require that a sum of above fifty millions a year should be raised, one way or other; and so long as we are pressed by an unreasoning necessity of this sort, it is not much to say in favour of the repeal or diminution of any tax, that those on whom it fell with the greatest severity are delighted with the reduction. Sugar has in England become a necessary of life; and its consumption, to say the least of it, is quite as indispensable to the bulk of the people, and especially to the labouring classes, as the writing of letters. But would it, therefore, be a wise measure to repeal the duty on sugar, or to reduce it to 1s. a cwt. It has been alleged, indeed, that taxes on the transmission of letters are objectionable on principle, and should therefore be repealed, independently altogether of financial considerations! But it is easier to make an allegation of this sort than to prove it. All taxes, however im-

posed, if they be carried within the limits are objectionable, as the food of the writer.

It has, however, been said that the increase so vast as fully to be increase in the number for short of this. Now here that letter-writing does not follow, who are proportionally in short to allow of any far as the experiment advocates.

The following was commenced.

The total gross charges and returns to the establishment for the Post-office will be less in all but certain, from materially increased will require the end of the Post-office to do letters would be required passing through the first of these amount to half the second.

Taking the return through the Post-office appears that, in the

General post letters
the old system
Penny post letters
London twopenny
Franked or pri

Now the question post, under the new hypothetical; and

General post -
Add for probable amount
steadfastly -

Total
Penny post letters
London twopenny and
Privileged letters and
New classes of advertisement
increase in commerce

Which, at 1d. per
ducting 680,000,000,
1,200,000,000, under

But it is material inasmuch as a very the new system, of made great number increase the amount 1840, that the total during the week 1,885,973; and the

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ceed, if they be carried (as was the case with the old rates of postage) beyond their proper limits are objectionable; but provided these be not exceeded, we have yet to learn why a tax on a letter should be more objectionable than a tax on the paper on which it is written, on the food of the writer, or on fifty other things.

It has, however, been contended, that in this instance there will be no loss of revenue, and that the increase of correspondence growing out of the reduction of the postage will be so vast as fully to balance the reduced rate of charge. That there will be a very large increase in the number of letters posted is abundantly certain; but, we apprehend, it will fall far short of this. Notwithstanding all that has been said about the *furor scribendi*, we believe that letter-writing is generally looked upon as a duty rather than a pleasure; and it does not follow, when the expense of postage is reduced, that the occasions for writing letters are proportionally increased. The period since the new system was introduced is much too short to allow of any fair estimate being formed of its results; though we believe that, in so far as the experiment has been tried, it has not realised the anticipations of its more sanguine advocates.

The following statement of the probable results of the new system was drawn up before it was commenced. Perhaps it will turn out not to be very wide of the mark.

The total gross receipt of the Post-office revenue of the United Kingdom, deducting overcharges and returned letters, amounted, in 1837, to 2,339,739*l.*: the expenses of the establishment for the same year amounted to 681,259*l.*, leaving a *net* revenue of 1,658,480*l.* It is almost needless to say that there is no probability whatever that the expenses of the Post-office will be lessened by the rate of postage being reduced to *1d.* On the contrary, it is all but certain, from the greatly increased number of letters, that these expenses will be very materially increased. Supposing, however, that the Post-office expenses remain constant, it will require the enormous number of 163,502,160 penny letters annually to pass through the Post-office to defray the cost of the establishment; and no fewer than 561,537,360 such letters would be required to prevent any loss of revenue. But though the number of letters passing through the Post-office under the penny rate may be fairly expected to exceed the first of these amounts, it is probable that a pretty long period will elapse before it comes up to half the second.

Taking the return published by the Postage Committee, of the number of letters passing through the Post-office in the week ending with the 22d of January, 1838, for a basis, it appears that, in the course of a year, the

General post letters in Great Britain and Ireland amounted, under

the old system, to	-	-	-	-	-	48,945,624
Penny post letters	-	-	-	-	-	7,320,093
London twopenny and threepenny letters	-	-	-	-	-	12,058,800
Franked or privileged letters	-	-	-	-	-	6,390,204

Total letters - - - - - 74,714,720

Now the question is, what will be the annual increase in the number of letters sent by post, under the new or penny rate? All answers to this question must, of course, be nearly hypothetical; and the following is precisely of this description:—

	Old System.	New System.
General post	48,945,624 letters per annum.	
Add for probable amount of those sent clandestinely	11,034,376	
Total	60,000,000	Supposed increase on general post letters 2½ times - - - say 150,000,000
Penny post letters	7,320,093	say 10,000,000
London twopenny and threepenny letters	12,058,800	30,000,000
Privileged letters and packets same as at present	-	7,000,000
New classes of advertisements, circular letters, &c.	-	60,000,000
Increase in commercial travellers' letters	-	10,000,000
		267,000,000

Which, at *1d.* per letter, would produce a gross revenue of 1,112,500*l.*; from which deducting 680,000*l.* for expenses, there remains a *net* revenue of 432,000*l.*, being more than 1,200,000*l.* under its late amount.

But it is material to observe that the falling off in the revenue will not be so great as this, inasmuch as a very considerable number of letters exceed ½ oz. weight. The facility, under the new system, of transmitting small parcels by post, instead of, as formerly, by mail, has made great numbers of them be so conveyed; and their postage will, in so far, contribute to increase the amount of revenue. It appears from the parliamentary papers, No. 129, session 1840, that the total number of letters passing through the Post-office in the United Kingdom during the week ending the 24th of November, 1839, when the old system was in force, was 1,585,973; and that the number passing through the Post-office in the week ending the

23d of February, 1840, under the new system, was 3,109,637, being an increase of about double. But, as already stated, the new system has been too recently introduced to allow of its being subjected to the test of experience. Six months will be necessary, even after the country has been saturated with envelope and stamps, to enable a fair experimental estimate to be formed of its merits. It may, also, be certainly anticipated, whatever be the amount of the Post-office revenue under the new system at the outset, that it will increase with the rapidly increasing commerce, wealth, education, and population of the country. But that does not show that the new plan has any peculiar merit; the revenue would have increased under any reasonably well-contrived system. All taxes on articles in general use are sure, provided they be not excessive, to increase with every increase of population and wealth.

Had there been a surplus revenue of one or two millions, the loss that will be occasioned by the adoption of the new postage system would have been of less importance; though, if we estimate the loss at a million, it may be matter of doubt whether it would not have been more advantageous to have repealed those duties that bear hard on the great branches of national industry, as those on glass, raw cotton, &c. But the reduction has been forced upon the government, when the revenue is unequal to the expenditure, and when, consequently, the deficiency that it will occasion must be otherwise provided for. We, however, incline to think that by a judicious reduction and modification of some of the more oppressive and impolitic duties that still continue to disgrace our tariff, the whole, or, at all events, the greater part of the existing deficiency in the revenue may be made good without the imposition of any new tax, and without adding any thing to any one of the existing taxes. Any proposal for a new tax to meet the deficiency occasioned by the falling off in the Post-office revenue, will not tend much to increase the popularity of the uniform penny system.

The abolition of franking is a very great improvement. Franked letters were generally addressed to those who could best afford the expense of postage, and who thus escaped a burden that fell with its full weight on their less opulent and less known neighbours.—(Sup.)

UNITED STATES.—We subjoin an account of the number of post-offices, the extent of post roads, the rates of postage, &c. in the United States.

Post-offices and Postage.	
Post-offices in 1790	75; extent of post roads in miles 1,876
— 1803	833 30,817
— 1810 2,309	36,406
— 1820 4,500	72,492
— 1828 8,004	115,000

Rates of Postage.	
For Single Letters, composed of One Piece of Paper—	
Any distance not exceeding 30 miles, 6 cents.	
Over 30, and not exceeding 80 — 10 —	
— 80 — 150 — 12 1/2 —	
— 150 — 400 — 18 3/4 —	
— 400 miles — 25 —	

Double letters, or those composed of 2 pieces of paper, are charged with double the above rates.
 Triple letters, or those composed of 3 pieces of paper, are charged with triple the above rates.
 Quadruple letters, or those composed of 4 pieces of paper, are charged with quadruple the above rates.
 All letters weighing 1 ounce avoirdupois, or more, are charged at the rate of single postage for each 1/4 of an ounce, or quadruple postage for each ounce, according to their weight; and no letter can

be charged with more than quadruple postage, unless its weight exceeds 1 ounce avoirdupois.
 The postage on ship letters, if delivered at the office where the vessel arrives, is 6 cents; if conveyed by post, 2 cents in addition to the ordinary postage.
 Newspaper Postage.—For each newspaper, not carried out of the State in which it is published, or if carried out of the State, but not carried over 100 miles, 1 cent.
 Over 100 miles, and out of the State in which it is published 1 1/2 cent.
 Magazines and Pamphlets.—If published periodically, cannot not exceed 1 1/2 miles, 1 1/2 cent per sheet.
 — over 100 — 2 1/2 —
 If not pub. period, distance not exceeding 100 miles, 4 cts. per sheet.
 — over 100 — 6 —
 Small pamphlets, containing not more than 1 1/2 sheet paper, are charged with 1/2 the above rates. Eight pages quarts are rated as one sheet, and all other sizes in the same proportion.
 The number of sheets in a pamphlet sent by mail must be printed or written on one of the outer pages. When the number of sheets is not truly stated, double postage is charged.
 Every thing not coming under the denomination of newspapers or pamphlets is charged with letter postage.

Account of the Postage received at the Post-offices of some of the principal Towns of the United States, during the Year ended the 31st of March, 1832.

Towns.	Dollars.	Towns.	Dollars.
New York	160,373	Richmond	18,775
Philadelphia	106,430	Cincinnati	15,400
Boston	62,270	Savannah	14,775
Baltimore	64,923	Pittsburgh	14,788
New Orleans	31,828	Albany	13,023
Charleston	30,423	Augusta	11,661

The post-master general of the United States stated, in a letter to a committee of Senate, 19th of May, 1833, that it was almost of daily occurrence, that a ton weight of newspapers was carried in one mail for hundreds of miles together. The total post-office revenue of the United States, in the year ended the 31st of March, 1832, amounted to 1,471,871 dollars; of which the newspaper postage made about 254,000 dollars.—(American Almanac for 1834.)

[The number of Post-offices in the United States, on the 1st of May, 1840, was 13,376. The revenue of the Post-office department for the year ending the 30th June, 1838, was \$12,233,077. The expenditures were 4,621,567.10

Excess of expenditures, 266,509.10
 The revenue of the year ending on the 30th of June last, was \$1,476,895.50
 The engagements and liabilities of the department for the same year, were 4,621,417.90

Excess of engagements and liabilities, 147,522.40

Table of Mail Services

State and Territories.	Length of Route.
Albany	3
New Hampshire	2
Vermont	2
New Brunswick	4
Rhode Island	4
Connecticut	5
New York	12
New Jersey	9
Pennsylvania	10
Delaware	1
District of Columbia	10
Ohio	10
Virginia	10
North Carolina	6
South Carolina	4
Georgia	6
Florida	2
Michigan	8
Illinois	6
Indiana	1
Missouri	1
Wisconsin	7
Minnesota	6
Lowell	6
Massachusetts	4
Alabama	2
Arkansas	2
Louisiana	1
Texas	1
Canada	1
Total	134
Compassion	—

* Exclusive of the Great Lakes Erie, Huron and St. Clair, the length of which is about the last of July,

POST ENTRY.

account thereof at the time of making a post or addition. As a merchant should take care to back the overplus, more paid or bonded surveyor must signify, that neither he or other entered on board; which oath must then compute the duties and then in figures, a POSTING, travel, carriages. Duties at the latter, see vol. 1. p. 1. Duties.—Every post let for hire by the mile, the sum charged for such bring back any person, successive days, or in either case, 1-3d part not exceeding 3 days; the sum of 1/4 for one day, 1/2 for two days, 3/4 for three days, and 1 for four days. Persons letting any stamps, are subject to a penalty, under a penalty of 100 dollars, on the front of renewable at the expiration of 10 days, and containing the name of the person who is going

POST-ENTRY, POSTING.

Title of Mail Service for the 1st of July, 1838, and the Finances of the Post-Office Department for the Year ending the 30th of June, 1838.

State and Territories.	Mail Service.*					Finances of the Post-Office Department.			
	Length of Routes.	Horse and Sulkey.	Stage and Coach.	Steamboat and Railroad.	Total.	Letter Postage.	Newspapers and Pamphlets.	Compensation of Postmasters.	Nett Amount of Postage.
Maine	3,436	816,184	687,088	-	903,252	22,831,697-27	213,575-36	22,831,697-27	67,835-77
New Hampshire	9,561	124,124	782,758	-	907,880	46,520-11	8,473-04	19,628-99	33,251-61
Vermont	2,388	86,112	864,804	-	950,716	60,953-90	10,107-11	22,784-71	37,638-54
Massachusetts	4,113	84,964	1,559,220	574,964	1,916,748	208,477-98	31,839-65	62,439-69	117,696-64
New York	373	11,932	89,892	-	79,984	38,477-65	4,342-21	7,169-24	52,315-69
Rhode Island	5,134	104,624	611,418	29,120	745,160	90,977-35	14,068-53	39,760-99	66,250-24
Connecticut	19,416	951,600	3,151,924	542,290	4,645,794	229,891-92	77,720-99	155,617-50	665,248-87
New Jersey	2,159	318,136	429,324	193,944	912,304	58,145-28	7,379-92	17,491-45	41,911-62
Pennsylvania	10,633	291,416	2,069,412	176,472	3,247,332	391,797-20	63,151-84	77,482-68	331,380-44
Delaware	607	27,141	140,712	84,282	292,068	11,153-47	2,350-56	6,010-32	8,227-07
Maryland	1,708	266,972	275,496	186,968	678,508	131,061-24	13,391-41	21,099-62	111,766-48
District of Columbia	-	-	-	-	-	40,735-15	2,747-23	4,544-11	22,818-96
Ohio	10,154	922,272	1,414,808	32,082	2,369,912	244,139-19	41,394-66	78,350-59	185,537-72
Indiana	10,233	936,620	1,170,005	113,508	1,980,572	181,870-05	29,143-33	55,959-96	138,333-11
Virginia	6,919	696,244	808,496	-	1,416,740	66,463-33	11,848-12	28,217-56	49,354-58
North Carolina	4,147	423,724	607,864	92,924	1,124,632	111,007-93	10,267-85	32,353-55	91,923-31
Georgia	6,260	584,276	775,188	-	1,366,464	187,412-14	18,379-53	36,598-85	122,694-56
Florida	5,781	53,300	84,916	109,304	247,600	23,623-36	1,901-00	7,332-75	18,000-11
Alabama	3,371	277,863	327,704	23,236	628,399	69,444-34	9,474-69	31,078-66	41,979-66
Mississippi	6,897	531,048	719,056	-	1,250,104	77,712-12	12,397-79	30,310-19	63,226-31
Illinois	4,573	286,914	1,151,072	87,836	1,717,994	91,617-20	10,793-27	28,514-11	58,942-61
Michigan	1,677	136,448	115,180	-	251,628	18,312-93	1,142-15	4,461-26	9,860-78
Wisconsin	4,532	373,360	314,166	-	687,526	66,159-81	6,675-84	14,488-96	41,136-61
Minnesota	1,009	146,665	769,364	220,980	1,233,009	114,870-69	14,246-75	32,870-47	85,159-66
California	4,915	689,410	769,548	56,144	1,525,108	107,872-31	13,234-84	35,699-85	75,610-57
Arizona	6,284	897,112	896,848	68,844	1,422,304	151,057-33	19,398-02	22,592-06	118,713-66
Washington	4,785	568,779	310,762	188,240	1,076,764	9,564-62	6,399-66	24,528-74	63,800-15
Oregon	3,851	138,673	158,673	-	297,346	15,309-56	1,773-07	5,146-90	9,469-11
Idaho	1,547	807,918	15,340	110,532	333,290	158,138-70	4,344-65	10,936-79	131,511-48
Montana	-	-	-	-	-	370-56	49-19	12-48	286-20
Nebraska	-	-	-	-	-	44,812-14	4,877-84	10,454-19	85,843-48
Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	134,819	11,573,819	30,693,192	2,415,092	44,600,902	3,776,126-24	458,737-78	935,948-11	2,906,823-49
Compensation		D. 831,028	1,889,782	410,485	3,131,306				

*Exclusive of the conveyance of letters and newspapers by steamboats on Long Island Sound, and Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, under the 5th and 6th sections of the act of 1825, the aggregate length of which is about 1,229 miles, and the amount paid for which is about \$16,000 for the year preceding the 1st of July, 1838.—Am. Ed.]

POST ENTRY. When goods are weighed or measured, and the merchant has got an account thereof at the Custom-house, and finds his entry, already made, too small, he must make a post or additional entry for the surplussage, in the same manner as the first was done. As a merchant is always in time, prior to the clearing of the vessel, to make his post, he should take care not to over-enter, to avoid as well the advance, as the trouble of getting back the overplus. However, if this be the case, and an over-entry has been made, and more paid or bonded for customs than the goods really landed amount to, the land-waiter and surveyor must signify the same, upon oath made, and subscribed by the person so over entered, that neither he nor any other person, to his knowledge, had any of the said goods over-entered on board the said ship, or anywhere landed the same without payment of custom; which oath must be attested by the collector or comptroller, or their deputies, who then compute the duties, and set down on the back of the certificate, first in words at length, and then in figures, the several sums to be paid.

POSTING, travelling along the public road with hired horses, and with or without hired carriages. Duties are charged upon the horses and carriages so hired.—(For the duties on the latter, see vol. l. p. 351.) The duties on post horses are regulated by the 4 Geo. 4. c. 62.

Duties.—Every post-master to pay 5s. annually for a licence. For every horse, mare, or gelding, let for hire by the mile, 14d. For every mile; if let to go no greater distance than 8 miles, 1-5th part of the sum charged for such letting, or 1s. 9d.; if let to go no greater distance than 8 miles, and not to bring back any person, nor deviate from the usual line of road, 1s.; if let for any time less than 28 successive days, or in any other manner than by the mile, or to go no greater distance than 8 miles, in either case, 1-5th part of the sum charged on every such letting; or the sum of 2s. 6d. for each day not exceeding 3 days; and the sum of 1s. 9d. for each day exceeding 3, and not exceeding 13 days; and the sum of 1s. 3d. for each day exceeding 13, and less than 28 days. If let for 28 successive days, or for any longer period, and returned in a less period of time than twenty-eight successive days, and not exchanged for another horse, mare, or gelding, in continuation of the same hiring, 1-5th part of the sum agreed to be received for such letting, or the sum of 2s. 6d. for each day not exceeding 3 days; and the sum of 1s. 9d. for each day exceeding 3, and not exceeding 13 days; and the sum of 1s. 3d. for each day exceeding 13, and less than 28 days, during the time every such horse, &c. shall have been under the direction of the person hiring the same.

The duties imposed by the act do not extend to horses used in stage or hackney coaches duly licensed; nor to any mourning coach or hearse, where the same is hired to go no greater distance than 10 miles from Temple Bar; nor to any cart or carriage kept for the conveyance of fish. Persons letting any horse, mare, or gelding, for hire, without licence from the commissioners of stamps, are subject to a penalty of 10l. No post-master to keep more than 1 horse by virtue of a licence, under a penalty of 10l.; and the words licensed to let horses for hire to be painted in legible characters on the front of their houses, under a penalty of 5l. Postmasters are to give security by bond, to be forfeited on the expiration of 3 years. The commissioners or collector of stamps to furnish blank tickets and certificates to postmasters, and exchange and check tickets to the toll-gate keepers; the former containing the name and abode of the post-master, the number of horses, whether let for a day or longer period; the latter, the name of the toll-keeper, the place where he lives, and the places the horses hired are going to. When horses are returned within the period for which they were hired,

check tickets are to be delivered up to the collector; penalty 20l. Improperly using a check ticket subjects to a penalty of 50l. Travellers are to deliver up their tickets at the first toll-gate, and to ask for and receive the necessary exchange and check tickets in return.

Letting of Duties to farm.—The commissioners of stamps, by authority of the Lords of the Treasury, are authorized to let the post-horse duties to farm for any period not longer than 3 years, either in whole, or divided into divisions or districts. The biddings are conducted under regulations issued by the commissioner; at least a month's notice being given of the time and place of letting the duties. The highest bidder being preferred, must forthwith execute a contract, and give bond with three or more securities for payment of the yearly rent contracted for at the head office of stamps in equal portions by eight several annual payments. The commissioners have also the power to appoint a time for making a deposit, and the amount thereof; and in case any bidder fail of making such deposit, or of executing a proper contract and giving security, the duties to be again put up. Duties not to be farmed by persons licensed to let post horses.

An Account of the Produce of the Duties on Posting, in each of the Eight Years ending the 1st of January, 1833.—(Parl. Paper, No. 669. Sess. 1830, and Annual Finance Accounts.)

Year ending 1st of Jan. 1829	£	s.	d.	Year ending 1st of Jan. 1830	£	s.	d.
1829	232,651	3	4	1831	230,773	2	3
1828	239,375	19	5	1832	230,337	12	10
1827	225,861	5	0	1833	231,563	3	4
1826	238,958	0	4	1833	243,068	16	5

POTASH (Du. *Potaske*; Fr. *Potasse*; Ger. *Pottasche*; It. *Potassa*; Pol. *Potaz*; Rus. *Potashk*). If vegetables be burned, the ashes lixivated, and the solution boiled to dryness in iron vessels, the mass left behind is the *potash* of commerce—the impure carbonate of potash of chemists. It is intensely alkaline, solid, and coloured brown by the admixture of a small portion of vegetable inflammable matter, which generally becomes moist. When potash is calcined in a reverberatory furnace, the colouring matter is destroyed, it assumes a spongy texture, and a whitish pearly lustre; whence it is denominated *pearl-ash*. The latter generally contains from 60 to 83 or 84 per cent. of pure carbonate of potash.—(See vol. i. p. 29.)

The ashes of those vegetables only which grow at a distance from the sea, are employed in the manufacture of potash. Herbaceous plants yield the largest portion, and shrubs more than trees. It is principally manufactured in America, Russia, and Poland, the vast forests of which furnish an inexhaustible supply of ashes.

Potash is of great importance in the arts, being largely employed in the manufacture of flint glass and soft soap, the rectification of spirits, bleaching, making alum, scouring wool, &c. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the entries of pot and pearl ashes, for home consumption, amounted to 188,477 cwt. a year. Of 228,757 cwt. imported in 1831, 169,891 cwt. were brought from the British possessions in North America; 15,835 from the United States; the remainder being almost entirely furnished by Russia. The ashes of the United States are the purest, and bring the highest price.

The prices of pot and pearl-ash in the London market, in December, 1833, was as under:—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.				
Canada, pot, 1st	-	-	1	4	6	0	0	0	0	United States, pearl, 1st	-	-	1	4	0	0
pearl, 1st	-	-	1	5	6	0	0	0	0	Russia, do. do.	-	-	1	3	0	1
United States, pot, 1st	-	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0							

ashes from Canada are duty free; and those from Russia and the United States pay a duty of 5s. a cwt.

POTATOES (Ger. *Kartoffeln*; Du. *Aardappelen*; Fr. *Pommes de terre*; It. *Potato*; Pomi di terra; Sp. *Patatas manchegas*; Rus. *Jablaki semenie*) the roots of the *Solanum tuberosum*, of innumerable varieties, and too well known to require any description.

1. **Historical Notice.**—The potato, which is at present to be met with everywhere in Europe, and forms the principal part of the food of a large proportion of its inhabitants, was entirely unknown in this quarter of the world till the latter part of the 16th century. It is a native of America, but whether of both divisions of that continent is doubtful.—(Humboldt, *Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 9.) Some authors affirm that it was first introduced into Europe by Sir John Hawkins, in 1545; others, that it was introduced by Sir Francis Drake, in 1573; and others, again, that it was for the first time brought to England from Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1586. But this discrepancy seems to have arisen from confounding the common, or Virginian potato (the *Solanum tuberosum* of Linnaeus), with the sweet potato (*Convolvulus batatas*). The latter was introduced into Europe long before the former, and it seems most probable that it was the species brought from New Granada by Hawkins. Sweet potatoes require a warm climate, and do not succeed in this country; they were, however, imported in considerable quantities, during the 16th century, from Spain and the Canaries, and were supposed to have some rather peculiar properties. The kissing comfits of Falstaff, and such like confections, were principally made of batatas and ensip roots. On the whole, we are inclined to think that we are really indebted for the potato (as well as for tobacco) to Sir Walter Raleigh, or the colonists he had planted in Virginia. Gerarde, an old English botanist, mentions, in his *Herbal*, published in 1597, that he had planted the potato in his garden at London about 1590; and that it succeeded there as well as in its native soil, Virginia, whence he had received it. Potatoes were at first cultivated by a very few, and were looked upon as a great delicacy. In a manuscript account of the

household expenses proceeded to have been mentioned at the extension of their 1684, they were raised and planted, for they have long been very

Potatoes, it is computed that a quantity was sent by Youghal. Their produce was estimated at 3 to 4 to the acre.

Potatoes were not introduced into the open fields by James VI. at Edinburgh in 1719. The extension of the potato in the year 1720. The quantity raised was great as it was not

very common in the year 1720. It was now very common in the Irish, the Swiss, and the

India some 60 or 70 years ago. It was introduced into the common potato does not grow above 4,000 feet above the level of the sea in these regions. It was introduced into the potato portion of the food of the people of the taste for, and will

kind.—(For further particulars see the *State of the Potato in the State of the Potato*, pp. 460—465. 2. *History of Cultivation*

2. *Influence of the Potato on the People.*—There is a number of individuals compared with those of the proportion as high as 1 lb. of whole potatoes are, under Newenham, who have

Population of Ireland, however, that the difference in favour of the potato in Ireland is equal to 22,960 lb. of nutritive produce of wheat, but 480 lbs. gives in all of potatoes.—(Tour

however, be somewhat better adapted to the potato as that here, "an acre of potatoes is an acre of wheat."

It is clear, therefore, that the potato in this country may be cultivated, and would have been, had it not been for the

whether an increase of potatoes is desirable. Its effects—producing a more abundant and inestimable advantage as a food, and a hardy and productive soil for making

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household expenses of Queen Anne, wife of James I., who died in 1618, and which is supposed to have been written in 1613, the purchase of a very small quantity of potatoes is mentioned at the price of 2s. a pound. The Royal Society, in 1663, recommended the extension of their cultivation, as a means of preventing famine. Previously, however, to 1684, they were raised only in the gardens of the nobility and gentry; but in that year they were planted, for the first time, in the open fields in Lancashire,—a county in which they have long been very extensively cultivated.

Potatoes, it is commonly thought, were not introduced into Ireland till 1610, when a small quantity was sent by Sir Walter Raleigh to be planted in a garden in his estate in the vicinity of Youghal. Their cultivation extended far more rapidly than in England; and have long furnished from $\frac{2}{3}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of the entire food of the people of Ireland!

Potatoes were not raised in Scotland, except in gardens, till 1728, when they were planted in the open fields by a person of the name of Prentice, a day labourer at Kilsyth, who died at Edinburgh in 1792.

The extension of the potato cultivation has been particularly rapid during the last 40 years. The quantity that is now raised in Scotland is supposed to be from 10 to 12 times as great as the quantity raised in it at the end of the American war; and though the increase

is not nearly so great as in Scotland, it has been greater than during any previous period of equal duration. The increase on the Continent has been similar. Potatoes are now very extensively cultivated in France, Italy, and Germany; and with the exception of the Irish, the Swiss have become their greatest consumers. They were introduced into India some 60 or 70 years ago; and are now successfully cultivated in Bengal, and have been introduced into the Madras provinces, Java, the Philippines, and China. But the common potato does not thrive within the tropics unless it be raised at an elevation of 3,000 or 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, so that it can never come into very general use in these regions. This, however, is not the case with the sweet potato, which has also been introduced into tropical Asia; and with such success, that it already forms a considerable portion of the food of the people of Java, and some other countries. So rapid an extension of the taste for, and the cultivation of, an exotic, has no parallel in the history of industry; it has had, and will continue to have, the most powerful influence on the condition of mankind.—(For further details with respect to the history of the potato, see *Sir F. M. Eden on the State of the Poor*, vol. i. p. 508.; *Humboldt, Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. pp. 460—465. 2d ed.; *Sir Joseph Banks on the Introduction of the Potato*; *Phillips's History of Cultivated Vegetables*, vol. ii. art. *Potato*.)

2. *Influence of the Cultivation of the Potato on the Number and Condition of the People.*—There is a considerable discrepancy in the statements of the best authors as to the number of individuals that might be supported on an acre of land planted with potatoes, as compared with those that might be supported on an acre sown with wheat; some stating the proportion as high as six to one, and others at only two to one. According to Mr. Arthur Young, 1 lb. of wheat is about equal in nutritive power to 5 lbs. of potatoes. But Mr. Newenham, who has carefully investigated this subject, states that "3 lbs. of good mealy potatoes are, undoubtedly, more than equivalent to 1 lb. of bread."—(*Newenham on the Population of Ireland*, p. 340.) and his estimate is rather above Mr. Wakefield's. Supposing, however, that 1 lb. weight of wheat is fully equal to four pounds of potatoes, still the difference in favour of the superior quantity of food derived from a given quantity of land planted with the latter is very great. According to Mr. Young, the average produce of potatoes in Ireland may be taken at 82 barrels the Irish acre; which, at 20 stone the barrel, is equal to 22,960 lbs.; and this being divided by four, to bring it to the same standard, in point of nutritive power, as wheat, gives 5,740 lbs. Mr. Young further estimates the average produce of wheat, by the Irish acre, at 4 quarters; which, supposing the quarter to weigh 480 lbs., gives in all 1,920 lbs., or about $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the solid nourishment afforded by an acre of potatoes.—(*Tour in Ireland*, Appen. pp. 12. 24. &c. 4to ed.) This estimate must, however, be somewhat modified when applied to Great Britain; the soil of which, while it is better adapted to the growth of wheat, is generally supposed not to be quite so suitable for the potato as that of Ireland. But it notwithstanding admits of demonstration, that even here, "an acre of potatoes will feed double the number of individuals that can be fed from an acre of wheat."—(*General Report of Scotland*, vol. i. p. 571.)

It is clear, therefore, on the most moderate estimate, that the population of a potato feeding country may become, other things being about equal, from 2 to 3 times as dense as it could have been, had the inhabitants fed wholly on corn. But it is exceedingly doubtful whether an increase of population, brought about by a substitution of the potato for wheat, be desirable. Its use as a subordinate or subsidiary species of food is attended with the best effects—producing both an increase of comfort and security; but there are certain circumstances inseparable from it, which would seem to oppose the most formidable obstacles to its advantageous use as a prime article of subsistence. The discussion of this subject can hardly be said properly to belong to a work of this sort; but its importance may, perhaps, excuse us for making a few observations with respect to it.

It is admitted on all hands, that the rate of wages is principally determined by the species of food made use of in a country. Now, as potatoes form that species which is produced at the very least expense, it may be fairly presumed, on general grounds, that wages will be reduced to a minimum wherever the labouring classes are mainly dependent on potatoes; and the example of Ireland shows that this conclusion is as consistent with fact as with principle. It is clear, however, that when the crop of potatoes happens to be deficient in a country thus situated, the condition of its inhabitants must be in the last degree unfortunate. During a period of scarcity men cannot go from a low to a high level: if they would elude its pressure, they must leave the dearer and resort to cheaper species of food. But to those who subsist on potatoes this is not possible; they have already reached the lowest point in the descending scale. Their wages being determined by the price of the least expensive sort of food, they cannot, when it fails, buy that which is dearer; so that it is hardly possible for them to avoid falling a sacrifice to absolute want. The history of Ireland abounds, unfortunately, in examples of this sort. Nothing is more common than to see the price of potatoes in Dublin, Limerick, &c. rise, because of a scarcity, to 5 or 6 times their ordinary price, and the people to be involved in the extreme of suffering; and yet it rarely happens, upon such occasions, that the price of corn is materially affected, or that any less quantity than usual is exported to England.

It may be said, perhaps, that, had potatoes not been introduced, wheat, or barley, or oats, would have been the lowest species of food; and that, whenever they happened to fail, the population would have been as destitute as if they had been subsisting on potatoes. It must, however, be observed, that the proportion which the price of wheat, or any species of grain, bears to the price of butcher's meat, tea, beer, &c. is always decidedly greater than the proportion which the price of potatoes bears to these articles: and it therefore follows, that a people who have adopted wheat, or any species of corn, for the principal part of their food, are much better able to make occasional purchases of butcher's meat, &c.; and will, consequently, be more likely to have their habits elevated, so as to consider the consumption of a certain quantity of animal food, &c. as indispensable to existence. And hence it appears reasonable to conclude, that a people who chiefly subsist on corn would, in most cases, subsist partially on butcher's meat, and would enjoy a greater or less quantity of other articles; so that it would be possible for them, in a period of scarcity, to make such retrenchments as would enable them to elude the severity of its pressure.

But, though the population in corn-feeding countries were dependent on the cheapest species of grain, not for a part only, but for the whole, of their food, their situation would, notwithstanding, be less hazardous than that of a population subsisting wholly on potatoes.

In the *first* place, owing to the impossibility, as to all practical purposes at least, of preserving potatoes, the surplus produce of a luxuriant crop cannot be stored up or reserved as a stock to meet any subsequent scarcity. The whole crop must necessarily be exhausted in a single year; so that, when the inhabitants have the misfortune to be overtaken by a scarcity, its pressure cannot be alleviated, as is almost uniformly the case in corn-feeding countries, by bringing the reserves of former harvests to market. Every year is thus left to provide subsistence for itself. When, on the one hand, the crop is luxuriant, the surplus is of comparatively little use, and is wasted unprofitably; and when, on the other hand, it is deficient, famine and disease necessarily prevail.

In the *second* place, the general opinion seems to be, that the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land planted with potatoes, are greater than the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land on which wheat, or any other species of grain, is raised.

And *lastly*, owing to the great bulk and weight of potatoes, and the difficulty of preserving them on shipboard, the expense of conveying them from one country to another is so very great, that a scarcity can never be materially relieved by importing them from abroad. In consequence, those who chiefly depend on potatoes are practically excluded from participating in the benevolent provision made by nature for equalizing the variations in the harvests of particular countries by means of commerce, and are thrown almost wholly on their own resources.

We should, therefore, be warranted in concluding, even though we were not possessed of any direct evidence on the subject, from the circumstances of the potato being a crop that cannot be kept on hand, from its natural fickleness, and from the incapacity of importing it when deficient, or of exporting it when in excess, that the oscillations in its price must be greater than in the price of wheat; and such, in point of fact, is the case. The oscillation in wheat is thought great when its price is doubled; but in a scarce year the potato is not unfrequently six times as dear as in a plentiful one!—(*Minutes of Evidence taken before the Agricultural Committee of 1821*, p. 212.) And the comparatively frequent recurrence of scarcities in Ireland, and the destitution and misery in which they involve the population, afford but too convincing proofs of the accuracy of what has now been stated.

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protection in years of scarcity, that they should not subsist principally on the potato. In this country, the pressure of a scarcity is evaded by resorting to inferior species of food, such as potatoes, and a lower standard of comfort; but if our people were habitually fed on the potato, this would be impracticable. The chances of famine would thus be vastly increased; while, owing to the low value of the potato as compared with most other things, the labourers would have less chance of preserving or acquiring a taste for animal food, or other necessaries and luxuries; and, consequently, of changing, at any future period, their actual condition for a better.

It is not easy to form any very accurate estimate of the profit and loss attending the cultivation of potatoes to the farmer, as compared with other crops. This is a point as to which the statements of those best qualified to give an opinion differ very considerably. Mr. Loudon says, "they require a great deal of manure from the farmer; while, generally speaking, little is returned by them; they are a bulky, unhandy article, troublesome in the sowing and carrying processes, and interfering with the seed season of wheat,—the most important one to the farmer. After all, from particular circumstances, they cannot be wanted unless when raised in the vicinity of large towns; hence they are in most respects an unprofitable article to the agriculturist. To him, the real criterion is the profit which potatoes will return in feeding beasts; and here we apprehend the result will be altogether in favour of turnips and rutabaga, as the most profitable articles for that purpose."

It seems difficult to reconcile this statement with the rapid progress of the potato cultivation; but those who assent to what has been previously advanced with respect to the mischievous consequences that arise from the mass of the population becoming dependent on the potato as a principal article of food, will not regret though it should turn out to be accurate.

Dr. Colquhoun estimated the entire value of the potatoes annually consumed in Great Britain and Ireland at the end of the late war at sixteen millions sterling. But it is needless to say that there are no materials by which to form an estimate of this sort with any pretensions to accuracy. The one in question has been suspected, like most of those put forth by the same learned person, of exaggeration: and we incline to think that, had he estimated the value of the yearly produce of potatoes in the empire at twelve millions, he would have been nearer the mark. But on a point of this sort it is not possible to speak with any thing like confidence.

POUND, the name given to a weight used as a standard to determine the gravity and quantity of bodies.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

POUND, a money of account, = 20s.

POWDER, GUN. See GUNPOWDER.

PRECIOUS METALS, a designation frequently applied to gold and silver. We have given, under the articles GOLD, and SILVER, a short account of each metal; and we now propose laying before the reader a few details with respect to their supply and consumption.

To enter fully into this interesting and difficult subject would require a long essay, or rather a large volume. Mr. Jacob has recently published an "Historical Inquiry into the Introduction and Consumption of the Precious Metals," in which he takes up the subject at the earliest period, and continues it to the present day. This work, though neither so complete nor satisfactory as might have been expected, contains a good deal of valuable information, and deserves the attention of all who take an interest in such inquiries. We confess, however, that several of the learned author's statements and conclusions seem to us to be not a little wide of the mark. We shall notice one or two of them in the course of this article.

1. *Supply of the Precious Metals.*—Since the discovery of America, the far greater part of the supplies of gold and silver have been derived from that continent. Previously to the publication of Humboldt's great work, *Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, several estimates, some of them framed by individuals of great intelligence, were in circulation, of the quantities of gold and silver imported from America. They, however, differed widely from each other, and were all framed from comparatively limited sources of information.* But these have been wholly superseded by the more extensive and laborious investigations of M. Humboldt. This illustrious traveller, besides being acquainted with all that had been written on the subject, and having ready access to official sources of information unknown to the writers already alluded to, was well versed in the theory and practice of mining, and

*Humboldt has brought these estimates together as follows:—

Author.	Epochs.	Dollars.	Author.	Epochs.	Dollars.
Castriz	- - 1492—1724	- 8,530,000,000	Gerboix	- 1724—1800	- 1,000,000,000
Solorzano	- - 1492—1628	- 1,500,000,000	The Author of the <i>Recherches sur le Commerce, Aniat.</i> 1770.	1402—1775	- 5,072,000,000
Moncada	- - 1492—1595	- 2,000,000,000			
Navarrete	- - 1519—1617	- 1,536,000,000			
Raynal	- - 1492—1700	- 5,151,000,000			
Robertson	- - 1492—1775	- 8,800,000,000	(Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne, tome II. p. 412.)		
Necker	- - 1763—1777	- 301,000,000			

There are so many sources of error attached to all investigations of this sort, that these results, though deduced from what may be reckoned good authority, cannot be altogether depended upon. The consular returns contain no account of the produce of the Peruvian mines, except in so far as they come under the head of Buenos Ayres; and in this respect they differ very widely from the statements given by Mr. Jacob, who estimates the produce of the mines of Peru and Buenos Ayres, during the 20 years ending with 1829, at about 18,500,000! We also incline to think that the mines and washings in Colombia are not quite so neglected as they are said to be by the consul. It will be observed, too, that the above account does not include the produce of the Brazilian mines. They are supposed to have yielded, since 1810, about 1,500,000 dollars a year; but this is not more than adequate for the wants of the country. The produce of the Russian mines were comparatively trifling till 1810; but it has since increased, and is continuing to increase with considerable rapidity.

Adding to the produce of the American, that of the Russian mines, and separating the gold from the silver, their total produce, according to the consular returns, during each of the 4 decennial periods ending with 1829, has been about—

Ten-year ending	Gold.	Silver.	Both.
	L.	L.	L.
1799	3,995,000	66,260,000	62,585,000
1809	4,160,000	85,367,000	89,547,000
1819	8,955,000	26,851,000	35,806,000
1829	6,752,000	23,712,000	31,464,000

This gives 3,146,000L for the average annual supply of the American and Russian mines during the 10 years ending with 1829. But the returns show that the produce of the Mexican mines had begun materially to increase in the latter years of this period; and we have to add to the above the produce of the Hungarian and Saxon mines. Hence, allowing for the increase that has taken place since 1829 in the productiveness of the Mexican and South American mines, exclusive of Brazil, and adding to their produce that of the Russian and other European mines, we may safely estimate (assuming the consuls not to have underrated the American returns) the present annual supply of gold and silver from these sources at considerably more than 4,000,000L.

Exclusive of the sources now mentioned, the United States have recently begun to afford considerable quantities of gold. It was first discovered in North Carolina, in 1804; and from that period till 1829, about 109,000 dollars had been found. It has since been discovered in other States. The following Table exhibits the value of the gold annually produced in the United States since 1829.—(*American Almanac* for 1834.)

States.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Virginia	Dollars, 2,500	Dollars, 24,000	Dollars, 26,000	Dollars, 24,000
North Carolina	134,000	204,000	294,000	418,000
South Carolina	3,500	26,000	22,000	45,000
Georgia	176,000	140,000
Alabama	1,000	..
Tennessee	1,000	1,000
Total	140,000	469,000	620,000	678,000

This Table shows a considerable increase; the produce in 1832 being above 135,000L. It is principally obtained by washing the soil in the valleys. Taking this new supply into account, and including, as was done by M. Humboldt, the produce of the Brazilian mines; and further adding 500,000L to the sums given in the consular returns, to cover the deficiencies which they certainly involve;* we may safely estimate the entire annual produce of the American, European, and Russo-Asiatic mines, as amounting, at this moment, to about 6,000,000L a year; being 6-10ths of their annual produce when greatest.

2. *Consumption of the Precious Metals.*—Gold and silver are supplied either to serve as coin, or are made use of in the arts. There are no means whatever by which to discover the proportion in which they are applied, at any given period, to these purposes; and the proportion is perpetually varying with the varying circumstances of each country; as, for example, with the greater or less abundance of paper money, and the degree in which the use of coins is saved by the various devices resorted to by means of banking and otherwise for economising currency, the greater or less wealth of the inhabitants, the fashion as to plate, the feeling of security at the moment, and a thousand other circumstances,—all of which are liable to great and sometimes sudden changes.

According to Mr. Jacob, the value of the precious metals annually applied to ornamental and luxurious purposes in Europe may be estimated as follows: viz. Great Britain, 2,457,221L; France, 1,200,000L; Switzerland, 350,000L; remainder of Europe, 1,605,499L; making in all, 5,612,711L. And adding to this the sums directly applied to the same purposes in America, the whole will be about 8,900,000L.

The data upon which this estimate has been founded, are in the last degree vague and

* Even with this addition, their produce is materially under the sum mentioned by Mr. Jacob.

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Ill. p. 423, 50 (ed.)

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Value of the Gold and Silver in Dollars.
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1829.	Total.
7,729	47,201,874
1,168	23,688
3,812	8,521,411
2,719	69,164,911
2,081	5,266,734
3,740	65,871,633

(*Bornier, Voyage de Mogol*, Amst. 1710, tome i. p. 209.; *Serafton on the Government of Hindostan*, p. 16. &c.) But it is not confined to that quarter. Wherever property is insecure, it is invariably resorted to. Mr. Wakefield tells us that it is common in Ireland.—(*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 593.) It has always prevailed to a considerable extent in Russia and France; and in the latter, during the revolutionary anarchy, immense sums were buried, of which it is abundantly certain a large proportion will never be resuscitated. The wars and convulsions by which Europe was desolated for more than 20 years extended the practice to all parts of the Continent; withdrawing in this way from circulation a very considerable part of the increased produce of the mines.—(*Storch, Economie Politique*, tome i. p. 221 Paris, 1823.)

2. *Exportation of the Precious Metals to the East.*—It must be well known to all our readers, that from the remotest era down to a comparatively late period bullion has always formed one of the principal and most advantageous articles of export to the East. Humboldt estimated that, of the entire produce of the American mines at the beginning of this century, as already seen, to 43,500,000 dollars, no less than 25,500,000 were sent to Asia—17,500,000 by the Cape of Good Hope, 4,000,000 by the Levant, and 4,000,000 through the Russian frontier.—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 443.) Latterly, however, this immense drain has not only entirely ceased; but the current has, in fact, begun to set strongly in the opposite direction. Thus it appears that the total imports of gold and silver from Europe and North and South America into Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, during the 3 years ending with 1830-31, amounted to 479,388*l.*; whereas the total exports of the precious metals from these 3 presidencies to Europe and America during the same 3 years were 1,119,973*l.*, being an excess of 640,585*l.*: so that India, instead of importing, as formerly, very large quantities of bullion from the Western World, supplied, during the period in question, about 213,000*l.* a year to its markets!—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 390. Sess. 1833.) The same is the case with China. During the year ending the 31st of March, 1832, silver was exported from Canton to England to the amount of 1,976,930 dollars, or 380,000*l.*, besides about as much more exported to India!—(*See* vol. i. p. 361.) A considerable part of this large export consists of native silver, of which there are mines in several provinces. China has also mines of gold; and in some late years her export of that metal have been considerable: she is, however, an importer as well as an exporter of gold, having for a lengthened period drawn considerable supplies of that metal from Borneo, Celebes, and the Malay peninsula. It appears, too, that the efflux of bullion from Russia to China has ceased; and that there, also, the current is setting the opposite way.—(*Jacob*, vol. ii. p. 320.) And if there be any sums still exported by way of the Levant, which is doubtful, they are certainly quite inconsiderable.

4. *Influence of the diminished Productiveness of the Mines on Prices.*—It has been customary in this country to ascribe almost the whole fall that has taken place in the price of most commodities since the peace, to the diminished supply of bullion from the mines. But we doubt whether this circumstance has not been fully counterbalanced by others, and whether it has had any influence in the way now mentioned. The cessation of the drain to the East, even admitting that M. Humboldt has somewhat over-rated its amount, would of itself have gone far to counteract the decreased productiveness of the mines; but we have just seen that it has not merely ceased, but that we are, in fact, deriving considerable supplies from that very quarter. In addition to this, the greater security and tranquillity enjoyed on the Continent since the peace, has not only checked that burying of money, formerly so prevalent, but has caused the bringing to light of a good many of the subterranean hoards. The institution of savings' banks, now so common everywhere, has also, no doubt, tended to prevent hoarding, and to bring a good deal of coin into circulation, that would otherwise have been locked up. These circumstances, coupled with others that might be mentioned, such as the cessation of the demand for military chests, the greater employment of bills in mercantile transactions, &c., afford the best grounds for doubting whether the quantity of the precious metals annually applicable to the purposes of circulation be not as great at present, as in 1809 or 1810. It is further to be observed, that the falling off in the produce of the mines has been in silver only; and that the supply of gold, instead of being diminished during the last 10 years, has been very materially increased: and as gold is the standard of our currency, it is obviously false to affirm that its value has been increased from its being less abundant than formerly.* It is contended, indeed, that in estimating the value of the precious metals, we cannot separate gold and silver; and that the fall that has taken place in the prices of all commodities since 1815, proves that the value of money has sustained a corresponding advance. But the value of gold is in no way dependent upon, or connected with, the value of silver. The exchangeable worth of each metal is wholly determined by the peculiar conditions under which it is supplied; and the circumstances of gold falling in value when silver is rising, is no more to be wondered at, than that lead should fall when iron rises, or conversely. Neither is it true that the fall in

* This fact shows the reliance to be placed on the information and opinions of those who recommend the adoption of a silver standard as a means of diminishing the public burdens!

the value of commodities since 1815 has been universal. We admit it has been very general; but we venture to affirm that there is not, without any exception whatever, a single commodity that has fallen in price since 1814, the fall of which may not be satisfactorily accounted for without reference to the supply of gold and silver.—(See vol. i. p. 81.) Multiplied proofs of what is now stated, will be found in various articles throughout this work. And we have little doubt that those who investigate the matter with any degree of care, will agree with us in thinking, that, even without distinguishing between gold and silver, were the influence of the decreased productiveness of the mines on prices estimated at from 3 to 5 per cent., it would be very decidedly beyond the mark. We believe its influence has been hardly perceptible.

5. *Probable future Supply of Gold and Silver.*—Nothing but conjectural statements can be made as to the probable future supply of the precious metals. On the whole, however, we should think that a very considerable increase may be fairly anticipated. The anarchy, in which the new South American States have hitherto been involved, will come to a close; and, with the increase of population and capital, renewed attention will, doubtless, be paid to the mines. It is reasonable also, we think, to anticipate that the supplies from the Russian mines will continue to increase.

[For the value of the gold received at the mint from the gold region of the United States, see article COINS.—*Am. Ed.*]

PREMIUM. See INSURANCE.

PRICES. By the price of a commodity is meant its value estimated in money, or simply, the quantity of money for which it will exchange. The price of a commodity rises when it fetches more, and falls when it fetches less money.

1. *Price of freely produced Commodities.*—The exchangeable value of commodities—that is, their power of exchanging for or buying other commodities—depends, at any given period, partly on the comparative facility of their production, and partly on the relation of the supply and demand. If any 2 or more commodities respectively required the same outlay of capital and labour to bring them to market, and if the supply of each were adjusted exactly according to the effectual demand—that is, were they all in sufficient abundance, and no more, to supply the wants of those able and willing to pay the outlay upon them, and the ordinary rate of profit at the time—they would each fetch the same price, or exchange for the same quantity of any other commodity. But if any single commodity should happen to require less or more capital and labour for its production, while the quantity required to produce the others continued stationary, its value, as compared with them, would, in the first case, fall, and in the second, rise; and, supposing the cost of its production not to vary, its value might be increased by a falling off in the supply, or by an increase of demand, and conversely.

But it is of importance to bear in mind, that all variations of price arising from any disproportion in the supply and demand of such commodities as may be *freely produced in indefinite quantities*, are *temporary* only; while those that are occasioned by changes in the cost of their production are *permanent*, at least as much so as the cause in which they originate. A general mourning occasions a transient rise in the price of black cloth: but supposing that the fashion of wearing black were to continue, its price would not permanently vary; for those who previously manufactured blue and brown cloths, &c. would henceforth manufacture only black cloth; and the supply being in this way increased to the same extent as the demand, the price would settle at its old level. Hence the importance of distinguishing between a variation of price originating in a change of fashion, or other accidental circumstances—such, for example, as a deficient harvest—and a variation occasioned by some change in the cost of production. In the former case, prices will, at no distant period, revert to their old level; in the latter, the variation will be lasting.

When the *price* of a freely produced commodity rises or falls, such variation may evidently be occasioned either by something affecting its value, or by something affecting the value of money. But when the generality of commodities rise or fall, the fair presumption is, that the change is not in them, but in the money with which they are compared. This conclusion does not, however, apply in all cases; and we believe that most part of that fall in the price of commodities, which has taken place since the peace, and which has been so generally ascribed to a rise in the value of money, occasioned by a decline in the productiveness of the mines, has been caused by the increased productiveness of industry, arising from the abolition of oppressive restraints on commerce, the opening of new and more abundant sources of supply, and the discovery of new means, and improved methods of production.—(See PREVIOUS METALS.)

2. *Price of monopolised Commodities.*—Exclusive, however, of the commodities now alluded to, there is a considerable class, whose producers or holders enjoy either an *absolute* or a *partial* monopoly of the supply. When such is the case, prices depend entirely or principally on the proportion between the supply and demand, and are not liable to be influenced, or only in a secondary degree, by changes in the cost of production. Antiquated statues and gems; the pictures of the great masters; wines of a peculiar flavour, produced

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in small quantities in particular situations; and a few other articles; exist under what may be called absolute monopolies;—their supply cannot be increased; and their price must, therefore, depend entirely on the competition of those who may wish to buy them, without being in the slightest degree influenced by the cost of their production.

Monopolies are sometimes established by law; as when the power to supply the market with a particular article is made over to one individual or society of individuals, without any limitation of the price at which it may be sold; which, of course, enables those possessed of the monopoly to exact the highest price for it that the competition of the buyers will afford, though such price may exceed the cost of production in any conceivable degree. Monopolies of this sort used to be common in England, particularly in the reign of Elizabeth: but they were finally abolished by the famous act of the 21 Jac. 1. c. 3.—an act which, by establishing the freedom of competition in all businesses carried on at home, has been productive of the greatest advantage.—(See *MONOPOLY*.)

The corn laws establish a partial monopoly of the supply of Great Britain with corn in favour of the agriculturists; but, as competition is carried to as great an extent in agriculture as in any other business, this monopoly does not enable them to obtain a higher price for their produce than is sufficient to pay the expenses of its production: though, owing to the peculiar circumstances under which this country is placed, this price is higher than the price in the surrounding countries. Hence it results that the monopoly is injurious to the public, without being of any advantage to those engaged in the business of agriculture. Neither, indeed, can it be truly said to be advantageous to the landlords.—(See vol. i. p. 495.)

The rights conveyed by patents sometimes establish a valuable monopoly; for they enable the inventors of improved methods of production to maintain, during the continuance of the patent, the price of the article at a level which may be much higher than is required to afford them the ordinary rate of profit. This advantage, however, by stimulating invention, and exciting to new discoveries, of which it is the natural and appropriate reward, instead of being injurious, is beneficial to the public.—(See *PATENTS*.)

There are also partial monopolies, depending upon situation, connection, fashion, &c. These, and other inappreciable circumstances, sometimes occasion a difference of 30 per cent., or more, in the price of the same article in shops not very distant from each other.

Generally speaking, the supply of monopolized commodities is less liable to vary than those that are freely produced; and their prices are commonly more steady. But there are various exceptions to this rule, and of these the corn monopoly is one. The great variations in the harvests of particular countries, and their average equality throughout the world, exposes a nation which shuts foreign corn out of its ports to destructive vicissitudes of price, from which it would enjoy a nearly total exemption were the ports open.—(See vol. i. p. 493.) Sometimes the expiration of a monopoly—a patent, for example—has occasioned a sudden and extraordinary increase of supply, and consequent fall of price; entailing, of course, a serious loss on the holders of large stocks of goods produced under the monopoly.

3. *New Sources of Supply.*—The effects on prices produced by the opening of new markets, or new sources of supply, are familiar to every one. The fall that has taken place in the price of pepper, and of most sorts of commodities brought from the East, since the opening of the trade in 1814, is a conspicuous proof of what is now stated.

4. *Influence of War on Prices.*—The effect of war in obstructing the ordinary channels of commercial intercourse, and occasioning extreme fluctuations in the supply and price of commodities, is well known. In this respect, however, the latter part of the late war is, perhaps, entitled to a pre-eminence. We had then to deal with an enemy who had extended his sway over most part of the Continent; and who endeavoured, by every means in his power, to shut us out of the Continental markets. Mr. Tooke has given, in his elaborate and valuable work on *High and Low Prices*, a variety of details which strikingly illustrate the effect that the regulations then adopted by the belligerent powers had on prices. "Among the means," says Mr. Tooke, "devised by the ingenuity and enterprise of adventurers to evade or overcome the obstacles presented by the decrees of the enemy, one in particular, which was resorted to on an extensive scale, deserves mention, as illustrating in a striking manner the degree in which those obstacles were calculated to increase the cost to the consumer. Several vessels laden with sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton twist, and other valuable commodities, were despatched from England at very high rates of freight and insurance to Malacca, where the goods were landed, and thence conveyed on mules and horses through Serbia and Hungary to Vienna, for the purpose of being distributed over Germany, and, possibly, into France. Thus it might happen that the inhabitants of that part of the Continent most contiguous to this country could not receive their supplies from us, without an expense of conveyance equivalent to what it would be, if they were removed to the distance of a sea voyage twice round the globe, but not subject to fiscal and political regulations." And in consequence of these, and other causes of the same sort, Mr. Tooke mentions that the price of sugar in France, and other parts of the Continent, during the latter years of the war, was as high as 6s. and 6s. a pound; that coffee rose to 7s.; indigo to 18s., and so on.

But the sums charged for freight and insurance were the most extraordinary. Mr. Tooke states, that he has known instances in which the licence, freight, and other charges on account of a vessel of about 100 tons burden, making a voyage from Calais to London and back, have amounted to the almost incredible sum of 50,000*l.* A ship of which the whole cost and outfit did not amount to 4,000*l.*, earned, during the latter period of the war, a gross freight of 80,000*l.* on a voyage from Bordeaux to London and back! The freight of indigo from London to the Continent does not at present exceed 1*d.* a pound; whereas it amounted, at the period referred to, to about 4*s.* 6*d.*—(*High and Low Prices*, 2d ed. p. 212.)

5. *Influence of Taxes on Prices.*—It is unnecessary to dilate on a topic so familiar to every one. When a tax is laid on a commodity, its price necessarily rises in a corresponding proportion; for otherwise the producers would not obtain the ordinary rate of profit, and would, of course, withdraw from the business. The rise in the price of several of the articles in the annexed Table, is principally to be ascribed to the increase of taxation.

These statements will probably suffice to give our readers a general idea of the principles which determine the value of commodities. To go deeper into the subject would involve us in discussions that belong to political economy, and are among the most intricate in that science. The influence of speculation on prices must not, however, be passed over in a work of this sort.

6. *Influence of Speculation on Prices.*—It very rarely happens that either the actual supply of any species of produce in extensive demand, or the intensity of that demand, can be exactly measured. Every transaction in which an individual buys produce in order to sell it again, is, in fact, a speculation. The buyer anticipates that the demand for the article he has purchased will be such, at some future period, either more or less distant, that he will be able to dispose of it with a profit; and the success of the speculation depends, it is evident, on the skill with which he has estimated the circumstances that must determine the future price of the commodity. It follows, therefore, that in all highly commercial countries, where merchants are possessed of large capitals, and where they are left to be guided in the use of them by their own discretion and foresight, the prices of commodities will frequently be very much influenced, not merely by the actual occurrence of changes in the accustomed relation of the supply and demand, but by the anticipation of such changes. It is the business of the merchant to acquaint himself with every circumstance affecting the particular description of commodities in which he deals. He endeavours to obtain, by means of an extensive correspondence, the earliest and most authentic information with respect to every thing that may affect their supply or demand, or the cost of their production; and if he learned that the supply of an article had failed, or that, owing to changes of fashion, or to the opening of new channels of commerce, the demand for it had been increased, he would most likely be disposed to become a buyer, in anticipation of profiting by the rise of price, which, under the circumstances of the case, could hardly fail of taking place; or, if he were a holder of the article, he would refuse to part with it, unless for a higher price than he would previously have accepted. If the intelligence received by the merchant had been of a contrary description—if, for example, he had learned that the article was now produced with greater facility, or that there was a falling off in the demand for it, caused by a change of fashion, or by the shutting up of some of the markets to which it had previously been admitted—he would have acted differently: in this case he would have anticipated a fall of prices, and would either have declined purchasing the article, except at a reduced rate, or have endeavoured to get rid of it, supposing him to be a holder, by offering it at a lower price. In consequence of these operations, the prices of commodities, in different places and periods, are brought comparatively near to equality. All abrupt transitions, from scarcity to abundance, and from abundance to scarcity, are avoided; an excess in one case is made to balance a deficiency in another, and the supply is distributed with a degree of steadiness and regularity that could hardly have been deemed attainable.

It is obvious, from what has now been stated, that those who indiscriminately condemn all sorts of speculative engagements, have never reflected on the circumstances incident to the prosecution of every undertaking. In truth and reality, they are all speculations. Their undertakers must look forward to periods more or less distant; and their success depends entirely on the sagacity with which they have estimated the probability of certain events occurring, and the influence which they have ascribed to them. Speculation is, therefore, really only another name for foresight; and though fortunes have sometimes been made by a lucky hit, the character of a successful speculator is, in the vast majority of instances, due to his only who has skilfully devised the means of effecting the end he had in view, and who has outstripped his competitors in the judgment with which he has looked into futurity, and appreciated the operation of causes producing distant effects. Even in the securest businesses, such as agriculture and manufactures, there is, and must be, a great deal of speculation. An unlooked for change of season frequently disappoints the apparently reasonable expectations of those who undertake the former; while the equally capricious variations of fashion have to be encountered by those engaged in the latter; and each is, besides, liable to be affected

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by legislative enactments, by new discoveries in the arts, and by an endless variety of circumstances which it is always very difficult, and sometimes quite impossible, to foresee. On the whole, indeed, the gains of the undertakers are so adjusted, that those who carry them on obtain, at an average, the common and ordinary rate of profit. But the inequality in the gains of individuals is most commonly very great: and while the superior tact, industry, or good fortune of some enable them to realise large fortunes; the want of discernment, the less vigilant attention, or the bad fortune of others, frequently reduces them from the situation of capitalists to that of labourers.

The great cotton speculation of 1825 took its rise partly and chiefly from a supposed deficiency in the supply of cotton, partly from an idea that there was a greatly increased demand for raw cotton in this country and the Continent, and partly from a belief that the stocks on hand were unusually low. Now it is obvious, that the success of those who embarked in this speculation, depended entirely on two circumstances; viz. first, that they were right in the fundamental supposition on which the whole speculation rested, that the supply of cotton was no longer commensurate with the demand; and second, that their competition did not raise the price so high as to diminish the consumption by the manufacturers in too great a degree to enable them to take off the quantity to be actually brought to market. If the merchants had been well founded in their suppositions, and if their competition had not raised the price of cotton too high, the speculation would certainly have been successful. Not, indeed, of being well founded, the hypothesis on which the whole thing rested was perfectly visionary.—There was no deficiency in the supply of cotton, but, on the contrary, a great superabundance; and though there had been such a deficiency, the excess to which the price was carried must have checked consumption so much as to occasion a serious decline. The falling off in the imports of cotton from America, in 1824, seems to have been the source of the delusion. It was supposed that this falling off was not accidental, but that it was a consequence of the price of cotton having been for a series of years so low as to be inadequate to defray the expenses of its cultivation. The result showed that this calculation was most erroneous. And besides, in entering on the speculation no attention was paid to Egypt and Italy,—countries from which only about 1,400,000 lbs. of cotton were obtained in 1824, but from which no less than 23,800,000 lbs. were obtained in 1825! This unlooked-for importation was of itself almost enough to overturn the combinations of the speculators; and, coupled with the increased importation from America and other countries, actually occasioned a heavy glut of the market.

The risk to which merchants are exposed, when they either sell off any commodity at a reduced price in anticipation of a fall, or buy at an advanced price in anticipation of a future rise, is a consequence principally of the extreme difficulty of ascertaining the true state of the fact with respect to the grounds on which an abundant or a deficient supply, or an increasing or decreasing demand, may be expected. Rules can here be of no service; every thing depends upon the talent, tact, and knowledge of the party. The questions to be solved are all practical ones, varying in every case from each other; the skill of the merchant being evinced by the mode in which he conducts his business under such circumstances, or by his sagacity in discovering coming events, and appreciating their character and the extent of their influence. Priority, but, above all, accuracy of intelligence, is, in such cases, of the utmost consequence. Without well authenticated data to go upon, every step taken may only lead to error. The instances, indeed, in which speculations, apparently contrived with the greatest judgment, have ended in bankruptcy and ruin, from a deficiency in this essential requisite, are so very numerous, that every one must be acquainted with them. Hence the importance of selecting acute and cautious correspondents; and hence, also, the necessity of maturely weighing their reports, and of endeavouring, by the aid of information gleaned from every authentic accessible source, to ascertain how far they may be depended upon.

When a few leading merchants purchase in anticipation of an advance, or sell in anticipation of a fall, the speculation is often pushed beyond all reasonable limits, by the operations of those who are influenced by imitation only, and who have never, perhaps, reflected for a moment on the grounds on which a variation of price is anticipated. In speculation, as in most other things, one individual derives confidence from another. Such a one purchases or sells, not because he has any really accurate information as to the state of the demand and supply, but because some one else has done so before him. The original impulse is thus rapidly extended; and even those who are satisfied that a speculation, in anticipation of a rise of prices, is unsafe, and that there will be a recoil, not unfrequently adventure, in the expectation that they will be able to withdraw before the recoil has begun.

It may, we believe, speaking generally, be laid down as a sound practical rule, to avoid having any thing to do with a speculation in which many have already engaged. The competition of the speculators seldom fails speedily to render an adventure that might have been originally safe, extremely hazardous. If a commodity happen to be at an unusually reduced price in any particular market, it will rise the moment that different buyers appear in the field; and supposing, on the other hand, that it is fetching an unusually high price, it will

An Account of the Contract Prices of the following Articles of Provision, &c. at the Royal Hospital, *Papers published by the*

Year.	Flesh, per Cwt.	Bread, per Lb.	Flour, per sack.	Butter, per Lb.	Cheese, per Lb.	Peas, per Bushel.	Oatmeal, per Bushel.	Salt, per Bushel.	Malt, per Quarter.	Hops, per Cwt.	Beer, per Bushel.	Average.	
												£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1729	1 5 8	ld. for 10 ¹³ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 4 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 0 0	2 5 0	- - -	- - -	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1730	1 5 8	ld. for 14 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 5 0	3 ¹ / ₂	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 0 6	2 5 10	0 3 9	0 3 9	- - -	- - -
1735	0 16 11	ld. for 12 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 3 ¹ / ₂	0 2 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 0 3	3 9 6	0 4 1 ¹ / ₂	0 4 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1740	1 8 0	ld. for 9 ¹³ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 6 0	3 ¹ / ₂	3 8	0 4 0	4 0	1 7 3 ¹ / ₂	2 10 7 ¹ / ₂	0 5 9 ¹ / ₂	0 5 9 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1745	1 2 2	ld. for 15 ⁹ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 3 ¹ / ₂	0 2 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 3 1	3 11 1	0 5 1 ¹ / ₂	0 5 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1750	1 6 6	ld. for 13 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 5 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 0	5 4 0	0 5 5 ¹ / ₂	0 5 5 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1755	1 7 9 ¹ / ₂	ld. for 14 ⁹ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 5 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 3 0	2 15 0	0 4 5 ¹ / ₂	0 4 5 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1760	1 11 6	ld. for 13 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 5 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 9	4 13 4	0 5 7 ¹ / ₂	0 5 7 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1765	1 7 3	ld. for 9 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 5 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 10 8	7 3 6	0 7 3 ¹ / ₂	0 7 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1770	1 8 8	ld. for 11 ⁷ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 6 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	4 3	0 4 9	4 8	1 8 3	5 18 4	0 5 10 ¹ / ₂	0 5 10 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1775	1 13 5	ld. for 9 ⁵ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 6 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 17 3	4 18 6	0 7 1 ¹ / ₂	0 7 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1780	1 12 6	ld. for 11 ⁵ / ₁₆ oz.	- - 0 6 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 11 1	2 14 8	0 7 3 ¹ / ₂	0 7 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1785	1 17 6 ¹ / ₂	ld. for 10 ¹ / ₂ oz.	- - 0 8 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	2 0 3	5 6 4	0 8 2 ¹ / ₂	0 8 2 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1790	1 16 10	- - -	- - 3 3 4	0 6 ¹ / ₂	4 7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 15 6	6 12 9	0 8 7 ¹ / ₂	0 8 7 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1795	2 2 10	- - -	- - 3 5 8	0 8 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	9 6	0 8 4 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂	2 8 3	7 7 10	1 0 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1800	3 4 4	- - -	- - 4 16 0	0 11 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂	13 5	0 14 0	14 0	4 4 0	16 15 6	1 0 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1805	3 0 4	- - -	- - 4 2 3	0 11 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	7 9	0 12 0	16 10 ¹ / ₂	4 5 7	6 11 6	0 17 0 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1806	3 1 0	- - -	- - 3 9 6 ¹ / ₂	0 11 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	8 4 ¹ / ₂	0 10 3	19 9	3 16 0	6 7 9	0 16 2 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1807	3 3 0	- - -	- - 3 3 8 ¹ / ₂	1 0 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	14 4 ¹ / ₂	0 9 4 ¹ / ₂	19 9	3 13 1 ¹ / ₂	5 19 0	0 13 5 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1808	3 3 0	- - -	- - 3 9 10 ¹ / ₂	1 0 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂	19 2 ¹ / ₂	0 10 10	19 9	3 16 1 ¹ / ₂	4 12 6	0 18 5 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1809	3 6 6	- - -	- - 4 5 1 ¹ / ₂	1 0 8	14 10 ¹ / ₂	0 11 9	19 9	4 4 5 ¹ / ₂	7 6 8	0 17 0	0 17 0	- - -	- - -
1810	3 12 0	- - -	- - 4 8 4	1 1 ¹ / ₂	8 ¹ / ₂	9 5	0 11 7	19 9	4 4 5	7 6 8	0 17 10	- - -	- - -
1811	3 14 0	- - -	- - 4 11 0	1 2 ¹ / ₂	8 ¹ / ₂	8 9	0 11 6	19 9	3 13 6	7 13 0	0 18 2 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1812	3 18 0	- - -	- - 5 7 5	1 3 ¹ / ₂	8 ¹ / ₂	12 8 ¹ / ₂	0 13 3	19 9	4 18 6	0 17 0	0 17 0	- - -	- - -
1813	4 5 0	- - -	- - 4 13 0	1 3 0	8 ¹ / ₂	13 8 ¹ / ₂	0 13 3	19 9	4 16 6	11 11 8	1 1 10 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1814	3 14 6	- - -	- - 3 10 6	1 2 0	8 ¹ / ₂	9 4	0 10 4	19 9	3 17 8	9 10 0	0 17 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1815	3 8 0	- - -	- - 2 4 9	1 2 0	8 6 7 ¹ / ₂	0 10 3	19 9	3 9 7 ¹ / ₂	9 13 7	0 13 4 ¹ / ₂	0 13 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1816	2 11 4	- - -	- - 3 4 1	0 9 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂	7 0 ¹ / ₂	0 9 2	19 0	3 9 4 ¹ / ₂	14 0 0	0 13 8	- - -	- - -
1817	2 11 4	- - -	- - 4 6 4	0 8 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	8 6 ¹ / ₂	0 13 9	19 0	4 6 10 ¹ / ₂	22 4 0	1 0 7	- - -	- - -
1818	2 17 1	Per lb. 2 ¹ / ₂	- - 3 8 5	0 11 0	6 9 3 ¹ / ₂	0 13 5	10 9	4 1 8 ¹ / ₂	8 8 0	0 19 11 ¹ / ₂	0 19 11 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1819	3 4 3	- - -	- - 2 17 5	0 11 0	8 7 8	0 12 9	19 9	3 12 11 ¹ / ₂	4 12 0	0 13 2 ¹ / ₂	0 13 2 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1820	3 10 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 15 1	0 9 ¹ / ₂	7 7 5 ¹ / ₂	0 13 4 ¹ / ₂	10 9	3 8 8 ¹ / ₂	4 0 0	0 13 10 ¹ / ₂	0 13 10 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1821	2 18 10	- - -	- - 2 5 3 ¹ / ₂	0 8 ¹ / ₂	6 5 9	0 8 8 ¹ / ₂	10 4	3 1 11	3 12 0	0 13 10 ¹ / ₂	0 13 10 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1822	1 19 5 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 1 17 5 ¹ / ₂	0 7 ¹ / ₂	5 5 0 ¹ / ₂	0 8 6	18 0	0 2 12 8 ¹ / ₂	3 10 0	0 11 3 ¹ / ₂	0 11 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1823	2 2 7 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 2 5	0 7 ¹ / ₂	4 5 6	0 19 0	1 4 10	2 19 11	9 19 0	0 12 3 ¹ / ₂	0 12 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1824	2 2 8 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 2 2	0 8 ¹ / ₂	4 ¹ / ₂	5 11	0 17 6	2 10	3 2 1	7 5 0	0 14 10 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1825	2 19 6 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 13 4	0 10 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	0 17 6	2 10	3 11 10 ¹ / ₂	23 0 0	0 16 4 ¹ / ₂	0 16 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1826	2 17 8	- - -	- - 2 5 2 ¹ / ₂	0 9 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂	11 0	0 19 0	1 10 ¹ / ₂	3 5 1	15 5 0	0 17 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1827	1 15 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 3 6	0 8 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	10 6	1 5 0	1 8 3	4 10 0	4 10 0	0 13 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1828	2 10 7 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 6 0	0 8 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	0 6	0 18 6	1 10 3	3 1 7	- - -	0 13 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1829	2 0 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 10 10 ¹ / ₂	0 8 0	5 8 9	0 18 6	1 8 3	1 10 ¹ / ₂	5 9 6	0 13 4	0 13 4	- - -	- - -
1830	2 3 6	- - -	- - 2 14 11	0 6 ¹ / ₂	4 8 0	0 16 11	1 8 2	2 16 1 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -	0 12 4 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1831	2 4 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 3 0	0 5 ¹ / ₂	0 9 ¹ / ₂	0 0	0 17 6	1 8 3	3 10 5 ¹ / ₂	5 11 0	0 16 0 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1832	2 6 2 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 2 13 1	0 8 ¹ / ₂	0 3 ¹ / ₂	8 9	0 17 0	1 8 2	18 6	6 15 0	0 13 11	- - -	- - -
1833	2 6 0	- - -	- - 2 4 1 ¹ / ₂	0 8 ¹ / ₂	0 4 ¹ / ₂	9 0	0 16 0	1 6 2	2 14 8	- - -	0 12 3	- - -	- - -
1834	2 3 0	- - -	- - 1 17 6 ¹ / ₂	0 7 ¹ / ₂	0 4 ¹ / ₂	8 6	0 13 6	1 0 2	15 1 ¹ / ₂	5 1 0	0 12 3 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -
1835	2 0 7 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - 1 11 0	0 7 ¹ / ₂	0 4 8 0	0 14 6	1 3 3	1 4 ¹ / ₂	5 11 0	0 13 9 ¹ / ₂	0 13 9 ¹ / ₂	- - -	- - -

It may be right to observe, that in the infancy of the Institution, the clothes and bedding were the blue cloth now used for the Penitents' coats, &c.

Greenwich for the Yearly Part of Trade.)

Year.	Companys, per Day.	Bricks, layers, per Day.	Masons, per Day.
1729	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1730	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1735	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1740	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1745	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1750	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1755	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1760	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1765	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1770	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1775	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1780	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1785	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1790	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1795	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1800	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1805	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1810	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1815	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1820	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1825	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1830	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2
1835	2 0 7	2 6 2	2 0 2

PRICES:

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Greenwich for the Years under-mentioned.—(From the *Parl. Papers*, Nos. 54. 72. and 87. Sess. 1830, and *Barst of Trade*.)

the Royal Hospital,
per published by the

Hope, per Cwt.	Beer, per Bushel.	Carpeting, per Day.	Brick- layers, per Day.	Masons, per Day.	Plumbers, per Day.	Caddies, per Doz. lbs.	Shoos, per Pair.	Coats, per Childron.	Mops, each.	Stockings, per Pair.	Hats, each.	Complete Suits of Bedding.	Suits of Clothes.	Cants, each.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
2 5 10	0 3 0	2 6	2 6	3 0	6 4	4 0	1 4	6 0	10 0	1 6	2 8	2 13 0	2 12 0	
3 9 6	0 4 11	2 6	2 6	3 0	4 2	4 0	1 5	0	10 6	1 6	2 3	0 4 0	2 3 6	
2 10 7	0 5 8	2 6	2 8	3 0	5 6	3 10	1 9	0	10 0	1 6	2 8	0 4 6	2 3 6	
3 11 1	0 5 11	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 0	3 6	1 10	0	11 0	1 6	2 0	0 4 6	-	1 2 4
5 4 0	0 5 5	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 2	3 9	1 7	7 1	0 10 0	1 6	2 0	0 4 6	-	1 1 5
2 15 0	0 4 5	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 10	4 0	1 8	7 1	0 11 0	1 8	2 0	0 4 4	-	1 1 6
4 13 4	0 5 7	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 6	4 0	1 12	8 0	0 12 0	1 8	2 0	0 4 4	-	1 1 0
7 3 6	0 7 2	2 4	2 8	3 0	6 2	4 0	1 12	4 1	0 11 3	1 8	2 6	0 4 6	-	1 1 0
5 16 4	0 5 10	2 4	2 8	3 0	6 10	4 0	1 9	1 1	0 11 0	1 6	2 6	0 4 6	-	1 0 3
4 16 6	0 7 12	2 4	2 10	3 0	6 3	3 10	1 10	1 1	0 10 6	1 4	2 2	0 5 4	-	0 19 11
2 14 8	0 7 3	2 4	2 10	3 0	6 9	3 11	1 17	3 1	0 12 0	1 6	2 2	0 5 4	-	0 19 5
5 6 4	0 8 2	2 4	2 10	3 3	6 6	3 6	1 14	2 1	0 11 0	1 6	2 4	0 5 4	-	1 0 3
6 13 9	0 8 7	2 4	2 10	3 3	7 9	3 11	1 14	4 1	0 14 0	1 6	2 6	0 5 4	-	1 0 8
7 7 10	0 10 4	3 0	2 10	3 3	9 3	4 0	1 19	9 0	0 15 0	1 6	2 3	0 6 6	-	1 0 2
6 15 9	1 0 4	3 0	2 10	3 3	10 4	5 8	2 11	7 0	0 15 0	1 6	2 3	0 6 6	-	1 0 0
6 11 0	0 11 4	4 6	4 0	5 0	10 7	5 9	2 11	8 1	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 10
6 7 9	0 10 3	4 6	4 8	5 0	10 3	5 9	2 13	4 0	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 10
5 10 0	0 15 3	5 0	4 8	5 0	9 10	5 0	2 14	0	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 6
4 12 6	0 16 3	5 0	5 0	5 0	13 2	5 0	2 15	0	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 4
7 6 8	0 17 0	5 4	5 1	5 1	14 5	5 6	3 0	0 9 1	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 4
7 6 8	0 16 3	5 8	5 2	5 3	12 0	5 6	3 0	0 8 1	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 1 4
7 13 6	0 16 3	5 6	5 5	5 9	10 0	4 11	3 1	6 0	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 2 2
9 17 0	1 0 8	5 6	5 5	5 9	12 6	4 11	2 16	1 0	0 17 0	2 6	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 2 2
1 11 6	1 1 10	5 6	5 5	5 9	14 2	4 8	2 16	7 1	0 18 0	2 6	3 0	0 8 9	-	1 2 2
9 10 0	0 17 3	6 6	5 5	5 9	14 6	4 8	3 2	2 1	0 10 0	3 3	3 0	0 11 6	-	1 4 6
9 13 7	0 15 4	5 6	5 1	5 9	11 7	4 7	2 15	6 1	1 10 0	3 3	3 0	0 11 3	-	1 4 9
4 0 0	0 13 6	5 2	5 1	5 3	9 3	4 7	2 9	6 1	1 10 0	2 9	3 0	0 9 4	-	1 4 9
2 4 0	1 0 7	5 2	5 1	5 3	9 10	3 10	2 6	7 1	1 10 0	2 9	3 0	0 9 4	-	1 0 7
8 8 0	0 19 11	5 3	5 1	5 3	11 5	3 10	2 8	6 0	0 2 6	2 10	3 0	2 19 10	2 1 0	1 1 7
4 12 0	0 13 3	5 3	5 1	5 3	8 6	4 2	2 6	8 0	0 2 6	2 11	3 0	2 19 10	2 1 7	1 1 10
4 0 0	0 13 10	5 3	5 1	5 3	8 2	4 4	2 5	9 0	0 1 10	2 9	3 0	2 19 10	2 3 3	1 2 7
3 12 0	0 12 10	5 3	5 1	5 3	7 1	4 3	2 6	6 0	0 1 4	2 8	3 0	2 19 10	2 1 9	1 1 11
3 10 0	0 11 5	5 1	5 0	5 1	6 1	4 2	2 4	6 1	0 1 3	2 5	3 0	2 19 10	2 0 2	1 1 3
9 19 0	0 12 3	5 0	4 10	5 0	5 6	4 7	2 6	7 0	1 2 2	2 2	3 0	2 19 10	1 19 11	1 1 1
7 5 0	0 14 10	5 0	4 10	5 0	5 6	4 9	2 3	8 0	1 1 2	2 1	3 0	2 19 10	1 19 11	1 1 2
3 0 0	0 10 4	5 0	4 10	5 0	6 0	4 6	2 3	2 0	1 2	2	3 0	2 19 10	2 0 8	1 1 8
5 5 0	0 17 3	5 9	4 10	5 6	5 9	4 5	2 0	4 0	0 1 1	2 0	3 0	2 19 10	2 1 6	1 2 2
4 10 0	0 13 5	5 9	4 10	5 6	5 10	4 3	2 1	5 1	0 1 1	1 10	3 0	2 8 3	1 19 10	1 1 4
-	0 12 1	5 4	4 10	5 6	5 10	4 3	2 0	8 1	0 1 2	1 9	3 0	2 5 9	1 18 1	1 0 7
5 9 6	0 13 4	5 6	4 10	5 6	5 10	4 3	2 0	8 1	0 1 1	1 9	3 0	2 5 9	1 18 6	
-	0 12 4	5 6	4 9	5 5	5 8	3 6	1 12	11 0	0 10 1	1 6	3 0	1 17 10	1 18 6	
5 11 0	0 16 6	5 6	do.	5 3	6 0	3 8	1 7	0	0 11 8	1 6	3 0	1 17 10	2 0 11	
6 15 0	0 13 1	do.	do.	5 3	5 2	3 6	1 4	3	0 1 1	1 7	3 0	1 19 3	2 3 4	
-	0 12 1	do.	do.	5 5	5 2	3 4	0 15	11	do.	17	do.	do.	2 3 8	
5 1 0	0 13 3	do.	do.	do.	5 6	do.	0 14	11	do.	1 8	do.	do.	2 7 2	
5 11 0	0 13 3	do.	do.	do.	5 2	3 3	0 16	8	do.	1 9	do.	do.	2 6 1	

None supplied
since 1822.

262 contracted for in suits; and it is so stated in the account. It is also necessary to remark, that of a quality very inferior to the ancient pattern. 46

fall, perhaps far below the cost of production, as soon as supplies begin to be poured in by different merchants. Whatever, therefore, may be the success of those who originate a speculation, those who enter into it at an advanced period are almost sure to lose. To have been preceded by others ought not, in such matters, to inspire confidence; on the contrary, it ought, unless there be something special in the case, to induce every considerate person to decline interfering with it.

The maintenance of the freedom of intercourse between different countries, and the more general diffusion of sound instruction, seem to be the only means by which those miscalculations, that are often productive of great national as well as private loss, can be either obviated or mitigated. The effects consequent to such improvident speculations being always far more injurious to the parties engaged in them than to any other class, the presumption is that they will diminish, both in frequency and force, according as the true principles of commerce come to be better understood. But, whatever inconvenience may occasionally flow from them, it is abundantly plain, that instead of being lessened, it would be very much increased, were any restraints imposed on the freedom of adventure. When the attention of many individuals is directed to the same line of speculation; when they prosecute it as a business, and are responsible in their own private fortunes for any errors they may commit; they acquire a knowledge of the various circumstances influencing prices, and give by their combinations a steadiness to them, which it is easy to see could not be attained by any other means. It is material, too, to bear in mind, as was previously stated, that many, perhaps it might be said most, of those who press so eagerly into the market, when any new channel of commerce is opened, or when any considerable rise of price is anticipated, are not merchants, but persons engaged in other businesses, or living, perhaps, on fixed incomes, who speculate in the hope of suddenly increasing their fortune. This tendency to gambling seldom fails to break out upon such occasions; but, fortunately, these are only of comparatively rare occurrence; and in the ordinary course of affairs, mercantile speculations are left to be conducted by those who are familiar with business, and who, in exerting themselves to equalise the variations of price caused by variations of climate and of seasons, and to distribute the supply of produce proportionally to the effective demand, and with so much prudence that it may not at any time be wholly exhausted, perform functions that are in the highest degree important and beneficial. They are, it is true, actuated only by a desire to advance their own interests; but the results of their operations are not less advantageous than those of the agriculturist who gives greater fertility to the soil, or of the mechanist who invents new and more powerful machines.

7. *Tables of Prices.*—It is superfluous, perhaps, to observe, that the precious metals are liable to all the variations of value already alluded to. Not only, therefore, are prices, as was already remarked, affected by variations in the cost and supply of commodities, but they are also affected by changes in the cost and supply of gold and silver, whether arising from the exhaustion of old, or the discovery of new mines, improvements in the art of mining, changes of fashion, &c. Hence it is, that *Tables of the prices of commodities*, extending for a considerable period, communicate far less solid information than is generally supposed, and, unless the necessary allowances be made, may lead to the most unfounded conclusions. The real value of any commodity depends on the quantity of labour required for its production; but supposing that we were to set about inferring this real value, or the ultimate sacrifice required to obtain the commodity, from its price, it might happen, (had the quantity of labour required for its production declined, but in a less degree than the quantity required to produce gold and silver), that its value would appear to rise, when it had really been diminished. When, however, the rate of wages, as well as the prices of commodities is given upon authentic data, a *Table of prices* is valuable, inasmuch as it shows the extent of the command over the necessaries and conveniences of life enjoyed by the bulk of the community during the period through which it extends. The preceding Table (pp. 352, 353.) of the prices of various commodities, and of the wages paid to different descriptions of tradesmen, at Greenwich Hospital, for the last 100 years, is the most complete of the sort that has been published; and is one of the few that is founded upon data, the accuracy of which cannot be questioned. Unfortunately, it applies only to a small part of the country. But many important conclusions may, notwithstanding, be deduced from it. The reader will find, under the more important articles described in this work, pretty ample accounts of their prices. Sometimes, as in the case of corn, these accounts go back to a very distant period.

Those desirous of detailed information as to the prices of commodities in Great Britain, in remoter ages, may consult the elaborate *Tables* in the 3d volume of Sir F. M. Eden's work on the *Poor*; and the 4th volume of *Macpherson's Annals of Commerce*. *Arbuthnot's Tables of Ancient Coins, Weights, Measures, Prices, &c.*, are well known; but the statements are not much to be depended upon. The *Traité de Métrologie* of M. Ponce, 4to, Paris, 1780, is the best work on this curious and difficult subject.

(Highest Wholesale)

Year.	Floor.	Corn.
1738	18-00	1-25
1739	18-00	1-25
1740	18-00	1-00
1741	18-00	1-00
1742	18-00	1-00
1743	18-00	1-00
1744	18-00	1-00
1745	18-00	1-00
1746	18-00	1-00
1747	18-00	1-00
1748	18-00	1-00
1749	18-00	1-00
1750	18-00	1-00
1751	18-00	1-00
1752	18-00	1-00
1753	18-00	1-00
1754	18-00	1-00
1755	18-00	1-00
1756	18-00	1-00
1757	18-00	1-00
1758	18-00	1-00
1759	18-00	1-00
1760	18-00	1-00
1761	18-00	1-00
1762	18-00	1-00
1763	18-00	1-00
1764	18-00	1-00
1765	18-00	1-00
1766	18-00	1-00
1767	18-00	1-00
1768	18-00	1-00
1769	18-00	1-00
1770	18-00	1-00
1771	18-00	1-00
1772	18-00	1-00
1773	18-00	1-00
1774	18-00	1-00
1775	18-00	1-00
1776	18-00	1-00
1777	18-00	1-00
1778	18-00	1-00
1779	18-00	1-00
1780	18-00	1-00
1781	18-00	1-00
1782	18-00	1-00
1783	18-00	1-00
1784	18-00	1-00
1785	18-00	1-00
1786	18-00	1-00
1787	18-00	1-00
1788	18-00	1-00
1789	18-00	1-00
1790	18-00	1-00
1791	18-00	1-00
1792	18-00	1-00
1793	18-00	1-00
1794	18-00	1-00
1795	18-00	1-00
1796	18-00	1-00
1797	18-00	1-00
1798	18-00	1-00
1799	18-00	1-00
1800	18-00	1-00

PRICE CURR... with their prices, the drawbacks occasion published periodical towns—(For exam work.)

PRIME, is a manners and maste pound; in others 6d. PRINTS, impressed, wood, stone, &c. Prints, like paintings, in which the giving, the fineness art seems to have the most beautiful of the here introduced it for of prints.

This is laid down in copyright of all sorts o twenty-eight years. T 25 years, engrave, etch bar to or diminishing fr sell, or otherwise disp etched, drawn or desig obtained in writing, sig credible witness: the against the person so o execution of a writ of I In questions as to the in those with respect to the Law of Patents and Regulations as to Imp

Highest Wholesale Prices at Boston, Massachusetts, of 14 articles of the best quality, from 1795 to 1834 inclusive, from a Table by Mr. John Hayward.

Year.	Flour.	Corn, North.	Rye.	Barley.	Rice.	Beef, No. 1.	Pork, No. 1.	Fish, Cod, No. 1.	Cotton, Upland.	Tobacco, Va. Leaf.	Coffee.	Ten, Hyson.	Sugar, Molasses.	Gal.	
1795	12-00	1-00	1-16	1-00	1-00	7-00	13-00	18-00	4-05	23	0-87	21	1-33	14-10	60
1796	16-00	1-25	1-30	1-00	1-00	8-00	14-00	18-00	6-00	30	7-00	25	1-25	13-16	60
1797	10-00	1-00	1-32	1-00	1-00	4-00	13-00	18-50	5-50	30	0-00	26	1-50	16-00	68
1798	7-00	60	75	90	90	2-25	10-00	18-70	4-25	26	12-00	24	1-42	15-50	56
1799	10-00	67	83	63	3-00	8-00	17-00	3-50	26	10-50	30	1-50	16-00	60	
1799	10-00	75	1-00	79	4-50	8-00	17-00	3-50	40	6-00	25	1-34	14-00	48	
1800	10-00	1-16	1-20	90	7-00	13-00	26-00	6-00	30	5-50	26	1-10	14-00	26	
1801	9-00	83	83	1-25	4-75	11-00	18-00	4-25	25	7-50	22	1-04	15-50	36	
1802	7-00	70	75	1-00	6-25	13-00	19-00	4-50	19	7-25	22	1-16	13-00	42	
1803	7-75	88	84	83	5-50	18-00	15-50	4-80	18	8-50	28	1-35	13-00	54	
1803	13-00	1-25	1-33	1-00	8-50	10-00	16-50	5-50	25	8-00	31	1-20	14-50	40	
1806	7-50	75	1-10	92	5-25	10-50	21-00	4-25	22	7-50	32	1-20	12-00	38	
1807	8-25	1-00	98	60	5-25	11-00	22-00	4-50	21	8-50	32	1-12	11-50	41	
1808	6-00	65	65	90	3-25	10-00	15-00	3-50	17	6-00	25	1-00	12-00	50	
1808	7-50	80	1-00	75	3-75	11-50	17-50	3-50	17	7-00	27	1-30	13-50	52	
1810	8-25	1-15	1-75	87	4-00	10-00	19-00	3-00	16	8-00	24	1-00	12-50	48	
1811	10-50	95	1-40	92	3-50	10-00	18-00	4-00	15	6-00	17	95	14-00	54	
1812	10-75	1-00	1-08	85	4-75	18-00	18-00	3-75	11	6-00	16	95	12-50	52	
1813	13-00	1-25	1-40	1-10	7-00	19-00	18-00	4-50	18	5-00	21	1-75	15-50	75	
1814	14-50	1-67	1-25	1-20	7-00	11-00	22-00	3-50	27	6-50	24	2-10	18-50	85	
1815	9-25	1-00	1-19	1-08	3-63	12-50	25-00	5-50	20	7-00	23	1-75	16-00	75	
1815	7-27	1-00	1-00	1-08	4-75	11-50	22-00	3-75	30	20-00	24	1-70	17-50	57	
1816	14-75	1-90	1-55	1-20	7-25	12-00	26-00	3-60	27	13-00	20	1-20	14-50	53	
1818	10-25	1-08	1-08	95	6-75	13-50	26-50	3-22	32	12-00	26	1-20	14-00	54	
1819	6-00	80	90	1-00	6-25	11-50	21-00	3-50	25	12-00	30	1-10	16-00	50	
1820	5-37	90	65	67	3-50	10-00	14-50	2-75	16	7-00	26	95	10-00	34	
1821	4-25	43	45	50	3-25	8-30	11-50	3-00	14	6-00	27	94	11-00	28	
1822	7-00	84	78	65	3-50	7-75	13-00	3-00	16	6-50	29	90	12-50	33	
1823	7-75	63	70	85	3-75	8-25	13-00	3-00	11	10-00	26	95	12-00	28	
1824	6-62	46	58	60	3-75	7-00	12-00	3-00	16	10-00	19	1-00	10-00	27	
1824	5-37	63	58	60	3-75	7-50	14-00	2-75	20	10-00	18	1-05	11-00	28	
1826	5-25	85	75	80	3-50	8-00	12-00	2-75	13	9-00	17	1-06	10-50	28	
1827	6-00	75	90	1-05	3-25	8-00	10-50	3-50	11	9-00	15	95	9-75	33	
1829	5-50	55	55	70	3-75	8-25	13-00	2-62	11	6-50	15	1-05	9-25	30	
1829	6-00	63	62	65	3-92	9-50	14-00	2-37	12	4-50	13	95	10-64	30	
1830	5-00	55	65	50	3-00	7-75	12-00	2-08	11	6-00	12	80	9-50	25	
1831	7-25	63	61	69	3-62	7-75	14-00	3-00	10	6-12	13	95	9-50	27	
1832	5-62	62	63	75	3-62	8-25	13-00	2-75	11	5-50	13	80	8-40	27	
1833	5-67	60	60	65	3-62	8-75	13-50	2-50	12	5-00	13	70	10-03	32	
1834	5-50	66	62	65	3-36	8-50	12-00	2-33	12	7-00	12	70	10-64	34	

Am. Ed.]

PRICE CURRENT; a list or enumeration of the various articles of merchandise, with their prices, the duties (if any) payable thereon when imported or exported, with the drawbacks occasionally allowed upon their exportation, &c. Lists of this description are published periodically, generally once or twice a week, in most great commercial cities and towns.—(For examples, see the articles CANTON, GENOA, HAVRE, SINGAPORE, &c. in this work.)

PRIMAGE, is a certain allowance paid by the shipper or consignee of goods to the mariners and master of a vessel, for loading the same. In some places it is 1/2. in the pound; in others 6d. for every pack or bale; or otherwise, according to the custom of the place.

PRINTS, impressions on paper, or some other substance, of engravings on copper, steel, wood, stone, &c., representing some particular subject or composition.

Prints, like paintings, embrace every variety of subject; and differ very widely in the manner in which they are engraved. Their prices vary according to the style of the engraving, the fineness of its execution, the goodness of the impression, its rarity, &c. The art seems to have taken its rise in the 15th century. But, as a dissertation on one of the most beautiful of the fine arts would be singularly out of place in a work of this sort, we have introduced it for the purpose merely of stating the law with respect to the copyright of prints.

This is laid down in the acts 8 Geo. 2. c. 13., 7 Geo. 3. c. 36., and 17 Geo. 3. c. 57. By these acts, the copyright of all sorts of prints, including maps and charts, is secured to the engraver, or author, for twenty-eight years. The last mentioned act declares that every individual who shall, within the said 28 years, engrave, etch, or work, or in any other manner copy in the whole or in part, by varying, adding to or diminishing from the main design; or shall print, reprint, or import for sale, or shall publish, sell, or otherwise dispose of any copy of any print whatever, which has been or shall be engraved, etched, drawn or designed in Great Britain, without the express consent of the proprietor thereof first obtained in writing, signed by him with his own hand, in the presence of, and attested by, two or more credible witnesses; then every such proprietor may, by a special action upon the case to be brought against the person so offending, recover such damages as a jury, on the trial of such action, or on the execution of a writ of inquiry thereon, shall give or assess, together with double costs of suit.

In questions as to the piracy of prints, the courts proceed upon the same principles that are followed in those with respect to the piracy of books.—(See BOOKS;) see also Mr. Godson's excellent work on the Law of Patents and Copyrights, pp. 287—301.)

Regulations as to Importation.—Where prints or maps are contained in, and form part of a book, and

Whether a ship taken be lawful prize, or not, shall be tried in the admiralty; and no ship or cargo, or part of a ship or part of a cargo, is to be sold, or disposed of in any way, till after judgment has been obtained.

If a ship with letters of marque accidentally meet with a prize at sea, though only one attack and take her, yet in amity with us, shall have an equal share of the prize, though he afforded no assistance in the capture; because his presence may be presumed to have struck terror into the enemy, and made him yield; which perhaps he would not have done, had his conqueror been single: so that all ships that are in sight, though they cannot come up to assist in the engagement, are entitled by the common law to a distribution of the spoil.—(Beaues, Lex Mercatoria, art. Privateers.)

If those to whom letters of marque are granted should, instead of taking the ship and goods appertaining to that nation against which the said letters are awarded, unlawfully take or spoil the goods of another nation in amity with us, this would amount to piracy; and the persons so offending would, for such faults, forfeit their vessel, and the penalties in which their securities are, according to custom, usually taking out such letters. But such penalties would not follow, unless the capture were made in a piratical manner. For if the circumstances incident to the captured vessel were such as to afford a strong presumption that she really belonged to the country against which the letters were granted, the captors would not be liable to punishment, though they might be to damages. "It be impossible," says Beaues, "always to determine an affair of this sort at sea, it is allowable to bring dubious captures into port, in order to more nice and just scrutiny and inspection; otherwise the goods of one enemy would often escape. However, to guard against unlawful seizures, the government have wisely directed sufficient caution to be given (as before-mentioned) for the due observance of the letters according to law, before they permit their issuing; and when there is a breach committed, the penalties are inflicted."—(Lex Mercatoria, art. Privateers.)

Regulations for the Government of Privateers, &c.—The following instructions to privateers were issued under an order in council, at the commencement of the last war with France, 16th of May, 1758:—

Art. I. Against sale, and where, Letters of Marque may not lawfully.—It shall be lawful for the commanders of ships authorized by letters of marque and reprisals for private men-of-war, in set upon by force of arms, and subject to the laws of the sea, and the laws of the French republic, arms, wares, and merchandise, belonging to the French republic, or any person being subjects to the French republic, or inhabitants within any of the territories or dependencies thereof, or any vessel or facility to be committed, nor prize attacked, seized, or taken within the harbours of ports or states in amity with us, or in their rivers or roads, within the sight of their coasts, unless by permission of such prince or states, or their commanders or governors in chief of such places.

Art. II. Captives to be brought into Port.—The commanders of ships authorized as aforesaid, shall bring into any port of Great Britain, or some other port of our dominions, as shall be most convenient for them, in order to be sold legally, sold by us, or our High Court of Admiralty of England, or before the Judge of any admiralty court, lawfully authorized, within our dominions.

Art. III. Conduct of the Captors after the Capture is brought into Port.—After such ships, vessels, and goods shall be taken and brought into any port, the taker, or one of his chief officers, or some other person present at the capture, shall be obliged to bring or send, as soon as possibly may be, 3 or 4 of the principal officers of the company (sworn the master, supercargo, mate, or boatswain, to be always if of any ship or vessel so brought into port, before the Judge of our High Court of Admiralty of England, or his surrogate, or before the Judge of such other admiralty court within our dominions, lawfully authorized as aforesaid, or such as shall be lawfully commissioned in that behalf, to be sworn and examined upon such interrogatories as shall tend to the discovery of the truth, concerning the interest or property of such ship or ships, vessel or vessels, and of the cargo, merchandise, and other effects found thereon; and the taker shall be further obliged, at the time he produces the company to be examined, and before any motion shall be issued, to bring in and deliver into the hands of the Judge of the High Court of Admiralty of England, his surrogate, or the Judge of such other admiralty court within our dominions, lawfully authorized, or others commissioned as aforesaid, all such papers, names, sea-briefs, charterparties, bills of lading, cook-books, letters, and other documents and writings, as shall be delivered up or found on board any ship; the taker, or one of his chief officers, or some other person who shall be present at the capture, and saw the said papers and writings delivered up, or otherwise found on board at the time of the capture, must bring with the said papers and writings are brought and delivered in as they are received and taken, without any fraud, addition, subtraction, or concealment whatever, or otherwise to account for the same upon oath, to the satisfaction of the court.

Art. IV. Not to break Bulk before Judgment.—The ships, vessels, goods, wares, merchandise, and effects, taken by virtue of letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall be kept and preserved and so out of them shall be sold, spoiled, wasted, or diminished, and the bulk thereof shall not be broken, before judgment be given in the High Court of Admiralty of England, or some other court of admiralty, lawfully authorized: in that behalf, that the ships, goods, or merchandise are lawful prizes.

Art. V. Prohibit Force on Ships in Distress.—If any ship or vessel belonging to us or our subjects, shall be found in distress by being in sight set upon or taken by the enemy, or by reason of any other cause, the commanders, officers, and company of such merchant ships or vessels as shall have letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall use their best endeavours to give aid and succour to all such ships and ships, and shall, to the utmost of their power, labour to rescue the same from the enemy's other distress.

Art. VI. Application to the Admiralty for Letters of Marque.—The commanders or owners of such ships and vessels, before the taking out letters of marque and reprisals, shall make application in writing, subscribed with their names, to our High Admiralty of Great Britain, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or the lieutenant or judge of the said High Court of Admiralty, or his surrogate, to cause letters of marque and reprisals to be issued, and such description of the ship or vessel for which the letters of marque and reprisals is requested, specifying the burden of such ship or vessel, and the number and nature of the guns, and what other warlike furniture and ammunition are on board the same, to what place the ship belongs, and the name or names of the principal owner or owners of such ship or vessel, and the number of persons intended to be put on board the same, and for what time they are intended; also the names of the commanders and officers of such ship or vessel, and the names of the commanders and officers of any other ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid.

shall hold and keep, and are hereby enjoined to hold and keep, in correspondence, by all conveniences, and upon all occasions, with our High Admiralty of Great Britain, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or their surrogate, to cause letters of marque and reprisals to be issued, and such description of the ship or vessel for which the letters of marque and reprisals is requested, specifying the burden of such ship or vessel, and the number and nature of the guns, and what other warlike furniture and ammunition are on board the same, to what place the ship belongs, and the name or names of the principal owner or owners of such ship or vessel, and the number of persons intended to be put on board the same, and for what time they are intended; also the names of the commanders and officers of such ship or vessel, and the names of the commanders and officers of any other ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid.

Art. VII. What Colours a Privateer is to wear.—No commander of any ship or vessel having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall presume, as they will answer it at their peril, to wear any flag, pennant, or other sign or ensign usually borne by our ships; but, besides the colours usually borne by merchant ships, they shall wear a red jack, with the Union Jack described in the caution, at the upper corner thereof, near the stick.

Art. VIII. To ransom a Captive.—No commander of any ship or vessel, having a letter of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall ransom, or agree in ransom, or quit or set at liberty, any ship or vessel, or their cargoes, which shall be seized and taken.

Art. IX. To deliver their Prizes to the proper Commissioners.—All captains or commanding officers of ships having letters of marque and reprisals shall send an account of, and deliver over, what prisoners shall be taken on board any prizes, to the commissioners appointed, or to be appointed, for the exchange of prisoners of war, or the persons appointed in the several towns to take charge of prisoners; and such prisoners shall be subject only to the orders, regulations, and directions of the said commissioners; and no commander or other officer of any ship, having a letter of marque or reprisals as aforesaid, shall presume, upon any prizes whatsoever, to ransom any prisoner.

Art. X. Commission forfeited for acting contrary hereto.—In case the commander of any ship, having a letter of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall act contrary to these instructions, or any such further instructions of which he shall have due notice, he shall forfeit his commission in all intents and purposes, and shall, together with his hull, be proceeded against according to law, and be condemned in costs and damages.

Art. XI. Copies of Journals.—All commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, by every opportunity, send exact copies of their journals to the secretary of the Admiralty, and preserve in the continuation of the prizes as soon as may be, and without delay.

Art. XII. To observe all Orders.—Commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, upon due notice being given in them, observe all such other instructions and orders as we shall think fit to direct from time to time, for the better carrying on this service.

Art. XIII. Violating these Instructions.—All persons who shall violate these, or any other of our instructions, shall be severely punished, and also required to make full reparation to persons injured contrary to our instructions, for all damages they shall sustain by any capture, embargo, detention, or otherwise.

Art. XIV. Bond to be given.—Before any letter of marque or reprisals for the purposes aforesaid shall issue under seal, ball shall be given with sureties, before the lieutenant and Judge of our High Court of Admiralty of England, or his surrogate, in the sum of £100 sterling, if the ship carries above 100 men; and if a less number, in the sum of £50 sterling, which ball shall be to the effect and in the terms following:—

Which day and place, personally appeared _____ who, submitting themselves to the jurisdiction of the High Court of Admiralty of Great Britain, do hereby declare, that they, their heirs, executors, and administrators, unto our Sovereign Lord the King, in the sum of _____ pounds of lawful money of Great Britain, to this effect: that is to say, that they, their heirs, executors, and administrators, are duly authorized by letters of marque and reprisals, with the ship called the _____ tons, whereof he the said _____ is the master, by force of arms to attack, surprise, seize, and take, all ships and vessels, goods, wares, and merchandise, chattels, and effects, belonging to the French republic, or in any persons being subjects of the French republic.

inhabiting within any of the territories of the French republic; excepting only within the harbours or roads within shot of the cannon of prizes and afloat in any of the Majesty. And whereas he hath a copy of certain instructions, approved of and passed by his Majesty in council, as by the tenour of the said letters of marque and reprisals, and instructions thereto relating, more at large appears; if therefore nothing be done by the said or any of his officers, mariners, or company, contrary to the true meaning of the said instructions, and of all other instructions which may be issued in this manner hereafter, and whereof due notice shall be given him; but that such letters of marque and reprisals aforesaid, and the said instructions, shall in all particulars be well and duly observed and performed, as far as they shall the said ship, master, and company, any way concern; and if they shall give full satisfaction for any damage or injury which shall be done by these or any of them to any of his Majesty's subjects, or of foreign states in amity with his Majesty, and also shall duly and truly pay,

or come to be paid, to his Majesty, or the customers or others appointed to receive the same for his Majesty, the small custom for his Majesty, of and for all ships and goods as aforesaid taken and adjudged as prize; and moreover if the said shall not take any ship or vessel, or any goods or merchandises, belonging to the enemy, or otherwise liable to confiscation, through consent or default, or by collusion, by virtue, colour, or pretence of his said letters of marque and reprisals, that then the said shall be void and of none effect; and unless they shall do so, they do all hereby severally consent that execution may be taken against them, their heirs, executors, and administrators, and their estates, wheresoever they shall be found, to the value of the sum of in testimony of the truth thereof they have hereunto subscribed their names.

By his Majesty's command, (Signed) FELIX.

PROMISSORY NOTES. See BANKS AND BANKING.

PROTECTION, in mercantile navigation, a privilege granted to certain descriptions of seamen, by which they are protected from impressment.—(See IMPRESSMENT.)

PRUNES AND PRUNELLOES, a species of dried plums, of which there are many varieties. The finest are imported from France, in the south of which this fruit is very abundant. The best prunes are packed in hampers or baskets made of white osiers, weighing from 6 to 10 lbs. each; the second quality in quarters, and the third in punchons. The entries of prunes for home consumption, in 1831 and 1832, amounted, at an average, to 6,285 cwt. a year. The duty is 1*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* a cwt., being more than 50 per cent. upon the price of the inferior qualities. There cannot be a doubt that it would be more productive were it reduced to 10*s.* or 12*s.*

Prunes, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are exported, on penalty of the forfeiture thereof and of 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 32. § 2, 23.)

(PRUSSIA.—*Trade of England with Prussia.*—A superficial observer may be disposed to feel surprise that the intercourse between Great Britain and Prussia should be so very limited, as our Custom-house accounts represent it to be. In point of fact, however, these accounts apply only to that portion of our trade with Prussia which is directly carried on through her ports on the Baltic, and which is quite insignificant, compared with that which is indirectly carried on through the channels of the Elbe, the Weser, the Rhine, &c., or by way of Hamburg, Bremen, the Netherlands, &c. Corn, timber, linseed and linseed oil, iron, flax and hemp, bristles, and other raw and bulky products of the northern provinces of Prussia, are principally exported from Königsberg, Mersele, Dantzic, Stettin, and the other ports of the Baltic; but her more valuable products, as the linens of Silesia, the cloths and other manufactured products of Saxony and the Rhenish provinces, the wools sold at the Breslaw and Frankfort fairs, and so forth, are all, or mostly all, exported from Hamburg, Bremen, and the ports on the Rhine and the Scheldt; while the sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, the dye-woods, cotton stuffs and yarn, hardware, earthenware, &c. supplied to her by England, are mostly all imported through the ports in question; as is the raw cotton and other raw articles furnished to her by the United States, with the greater part of the wines supplied by France, &c. But neither Hamburg, Bremen, Rotterdam, nor the Scheldt, belongs to Prussia. All of them are independent of her; and hence it is that nine tenths of the trade which we carry on with the Prussian dominions is set down in our Custom-house accounts under the head of the trade with Germany, and with the Netherlands and Belgium. There are no means by which to determine the exact portion of the aggregate amount of the exports from England to the whole of the Germanic countries, including Holland and Belgium, that falls to the share of each; but we shall not be far wrong if we suppose that they are divided proportionately to the population of the countries among which they are distributed. On this hypothesis, and taking the entire population of Germany, exclusive of Austria*, but inclusive of the Netherlands and Belgium, at 36 millions, Prussia will have about 14 of this number; so that about $\frac{1}{3}$, or $\frac{1}{3}$, of all the trade we carry on with Germany, the Netherlands, &c. must be set down to the account of Prussia. Now, at an average of the six years ending with 1835, our exports to Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Prussia, amounted to 7,410,133*l.* a year, of which, or 2,891,718*l.*, may be taken as the average amount of our exports to Prussia during that period!—(Ante, p. 23.) This statement shows the real value of the trade with this flourishing monarchy, and the importance of keeping up and extending our intercourse with her.

Prussian Commercial League.—Next to the efforts of the Prussian government to diffuse the blessings of education, their efforts to induce a free commercial system into Germany constitute their best claim to the gratitude and esteem of their own subjects, and of the world. Germany, as every one knows, is divided into a vast number of independent, and mostly petty, states. Until a very recent period, every one of these states had its own custom-houses, and its own tariff and revenue laws; which frequently

* We say exclusive of Austria, because almost all the English products made use of in the Austrian states are imported by way of Trieste. Switzerland is supplied through Genoa.

differed very widely, in consequence usually laid on the endeavoured either taxing or prohibiting officers and lines reciprocal and duties admitted in were admitted in much to the gro internal industry various parts of the other. How difficult independent state. But, until within the extraordinary commerce, and civ country, but that th But, thanks to system has been how established as the old system h interests have gro existed in its favor distant. The add over every obsta that would result ternal intercourse, that produced con The first treati principalities of S 1819, on the princ countries and Prussia and the principalities of the dominions produce of such entered into have the perfect freedo ance being confin Prussia; 2d, to a assumption in one patents, conferring granting the paten decreasing, the mo Since 1818, whi till it now compr Duca Hesse joine Bavaria, Saxony, all the smaller sta Mecklenburg Sch not included with At the commen

Prussia, without N tory surrounded Bavaria and her de Saxony (Kingdom of Württemberg and H Hesse (Electoral) Hesse (Duchy of) The Thuringian St Baden (duchy of) Nassau Frankfurt -

Throughout the confines of the Ne

differed very widely indeed from those of its neighbours. The internal trade of the country was, in consequence, subjected to all those vexatious and ruinous restrictions that are usually laid on the intercourse between distant and independent states. Each petty state endeavoured either to procure a revenue for itself, or to advance its own industry, by taxing or prohibiting the productions of those by which it was surrounded; and customs' officers and lines of custom houses were spread all over the country! Instead of being reciprocal and dependent, every thing was separate, independent, and hostile: the commodities admitted into Hesse were prohibited in Baden, and those prohibited in Wirtemberg were admitted into Bavaria. It is admitted on all hands that nothing has contributed so much to the growth of industry and wealth in Great Britain, as the perfect freedom of internal industry we have so long enjoyed, and that intimate correspondences among the various parts of the empire, which has rendered each the best market for the products of the other. How different would have been our present condition had each county been an independent state, jealous of those around it, and anxious to exalt itself at their expense! But, until within these few years, this was the exact condition of Germany; and, considering the extraordinary obstacles such a state of things opposes to the progress of manufactures, commerce, and civilization, the wonder is, not that they are comparatively backward in that country, but that they should be so far advanced as they really are.

But, thanks to the intelligence and perseverance of Prussia, this selfish anti-social system has been well nigh suppressed; and the most perfect freedom of commerce is now established among the great bulk of the Germanic nations. The disadvantages of the old system has long been seen and deplored by well-informed men; but so many interests have grown up under its protection, and so many deep rooted prejudices were enlisted in its favour, that its overthrow seemed to be hopeless, or, at all events, exceedingly distant. The address and resolution of the Prussian government have, however, triumphed over every obstacle. Being fully impressed with a strong sense of the many advantages that would result to Prussia and Germany from the introduction of a free system of internal intercourse, they pursued the measures necessary to bring it about with an earnestness that produced conviction, and with a determination, *coute qui coute*, to carry their point.

The first treaties in furtherance of this object were negotiated by Prussia with the principalities of Schwarzburg Sondershausen and Schwarzburg Rudolstadt, in 1818 and 1819, on the principle that there should be a perfect freedom of commerce between these countries and Prussia; that the duties on importation, exportation, and transit, in Prussia and the principalities, should be identical; that these should be charged along the frontier of the dominions of the contracting parties; and that each should participate in the produce of such duties, in proportion to its population. All the treaties subsequently entered into have been founded on this fair and equitable principle; the only exceptions to the perfect freedom of trade in all the countries comprised within the league or tariff alliance being confined, 1st, to articles constituting state monopolies, as salt and cards, in Prussia; 2d, to articles of native produce, burdened with a different rate of duty on consumption in one state from what they pay in another; and, 3d, to articles produced under patents, conferring on the patentees certain privileges in the dominions of the states granting the patents. With these exceptions, which are not very important, and are daily decreasing, the most perfect freedom of commerce exists among the allied states.

Since 1818, when the foundations of the alliance were laid, it has progressively extended, till it now comprises more than three fourths of the Germanic states, exclusive of Austria. Ducal Hesse joined the alliance in 1828, and Electoral Hesse in 1831: the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wirtemberg, joined it afterwards, as have Baden, Nassau, and almost all the smaller states by which it had not been previously joined, with the exception of Mecklenburg Schwerin, Mecklenburg Strelitz, Oldenburg, and Brunswick. Hanover is not included within the league.

At the commencement of 1836, the tariff alliance comprised

	German sq. Miles.	Population.
Prussia, without Neufchatel, but inclusive of the small parcels of her territory surrounded by other states	5,157	13,500,126
Bavaria and her detached territories	1,477	4,252,813
Saxony (kingdom of)	272	1,595,668
Wirtemberg and Hohenzollern Sigmaringen	385	1,631,779
Hesse (Electoral)	182	700,327
Hesse (Duchy of) and Hamburg	179	769,091
The Thuringian States	233	908,478
Baden (duchy of) and part of Hohenzollern	240	1,292,185
Nassau	23	373,601
Frankfort	4	60,000
Totals	8,252	25,324,668

Throughout the whole extent of this immense country, from Aix-la-Chapelle, on the confines of the Netherlands, eastward to Tilsit, on the confines of Russia, and from Stettin

and Dantzic southward to Switzerland and Bohemia, there is nothing to interrupt the freedom of commerce. A commodity, whether for consumption or transit, that has once passed the frontier of the league, may be subsequently conveyed, without let or hindrance, throughout its whole extent. Instead of being confined within the narrow precincts of their own territories, the products of each separate country of the alliance may now be sent to every one else; each will, in consequence, apply itself, in preference, to those departments in which it has some natural or acquired advantage; and each will have to depend for its success, not on the miserable resource of customs' regulations, but on its skill and industry. The competition thence arising will be most salutary; and, should the peace of Europe be preserved, we run little risk in saying, that all sorts of industry will make more progress among the states comprised within the tariff alliance, during the next ten years, than they have done during the previous half century.

An assembly of representatives from the allied states meet annually, to hear complaints, adjust difficulties, and make such new enactments as may seem to be required. The Prussian tariff has been adopted, with certain modifications, and is now the only one in force. The duties are received into a common treasury, and are apportioned according to the population of each of the allied states. In addition to its other advantages, the new system has reduced the cost of collecting the duties to a mere trifle, compared with its former amount; and has enabled hundreds of custom-houses, and thousands of customs' officers, to be employed in the different departments of industry.

The existing discrepancy in the weights and measures used in different parts of Germany occasions considerable inconvenience; and we are glad to observe that the equalisation of weights and measures and their reduction to a common standard in all the allied states, is declared to be one of the objects of the league.

It is also expressly provided that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall, in all cases, whether they belong to the public, or to private individuals, be limited to the sums required to keep the roads in a proper state of repair; and that the tolls existing in Prussia shall be considered as the highest that are to be levied, and shall not in any case be exceeded.

It was at first supposed by many persons in this country, and the opinion is not yet entirely abandoned, that the Prussian league was in some degree directed against us, and that, at all events, it threatened to be very injurious to our trade with Germany; we do not, however, believe that there is any foundation whatever for either of these opinions. The alliance was planned, and brought to its present advanced state, in the view, and with the intention, of putting down the galling and innumerable restraints by which the intercourse of the German states with each other was formerly interrupted; and not with the intention of throwing any obstacles in the way of the trade of the alliance with foreign countries: it is, indeed, quite absurd to suppose that it should have this effect. The freedom of internal commerce will do ten times more to promote the industry and prosperity of the allied states than any other measure, or system of measures, that their governments could have adopted; and, as population increases, and the inhabitants become more industrious and wealthy, there will, no doubt, be an augmented demand for foreign products. The league is now no new thing. It was formed several years since, and has been progressively augmented; but, hitherto, it has not had the slightest influence in diminishing our intercourse with Germany; our exports to it, including Holland and Belgium, being greater at present than at any other former period! (See *ante*, p. 23.) Generally speaking the duties on imports are reasonable; at least, on all the finer descriptions of goods. It never, in fact, can be the policy of the alliance to make them oppressive; for, though certain states might erroneously suppose that their interests would be promoted by such means, others would undoubtedly be of a different opinion, and would resist any attempt to carry them beyond a reasonable amount. It is a mistake to suppose that Prussia has an overwhelming influence in the assembly. She must conciliate the other states, and carry them along with her; and this can only be done by acting on liberal principles, and with a view to the common interest of the alliance.

Besides, if any of the existing duties be exorbitant, or if any of them, that are at present moderate, should be subsequently raised to an exorbitant pitch; does any one suppose that the over-taxed articles would not be immediately smuggled into all parts of the league? We, who occupy an island, and have revenue cruisers and coast guards on all the seas and shores most accessible to the smuggler, know from experience that it is not possible to hinder over-taxed commodities from making their way, in immense quantities, into our markets. But the facilities for smuggling into the territories of the league are incomparably greater. It has a land frontier of several thousand miles; and though the whole Prussian army were employed for that purpose, it would be found that it was utterly impotent to prevent the territories of the league from being deluged with such over-taxed commodities as were in demand by the inhabitants.

It must be admitted that we have done not a little to provoke Prussia, and that we had no reason to be surprised had she manifested symptoms of irritation. She has only three

great staple articles the last on any thing by a duty of no less than 10 per cent. The tariff of North America has been levelled but such is not reason to lower the oppressive influence to get the consent to moderate that Prussia will pay duties.

We are glad to see Prussian commercial work printed by order it is there said, "the which the smallest enlightened power by placing her interest league of Germany has been supposed, her treaties with whatever extent the ment of this community which the new Confederation of the Rhine costates as should every other branch which previously observed are now open to the with their officers an intercommunication own territories. To the finances of the league will grow out of collection, and from the prosperity so invariably

Prussian Duty on most interested, we amounts (see *post*) to respect to quality or dollar at 3s., it is elements obligingly furnished.

1st. That a quintal (100 lbs.) of wool costs 8l. 6s., and is at *valorem* duty of 90 per cent.

2d. That a quintal of raw cotton costs 17s. 7d., making the

3d. That a quintal of flax costs 12s., making the Prussian

4th. That a quintal of hops costs 9l. 15s., making the

It is plain, therefore, that Prussian or tariff alliance course goods is principally labour, being but little that we should export. No doubt, however, within the league, though assessed on an *ad valorem* basis should think that this

The subjoined table of March, 1833, is a point of view.

Customs' Treaty, concluded on the one part; and the Kingdom of Hanover, on the other part.

1. The existing customs of the German Confederation, limited by the Treaty of Commerce.

2. In this general re-union.

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great staple articles of export—corn, timber, and wool. Now, of these, we admit only the last on any thing like fair terms; in ordinary years we entirely exclude corn, and we levy a duty of no less than 55s. a load on Prussian timber, while we admit the inferior timber of North America on payment of a duty of 10s.! Had, therefore, the Prussian tariff been levelled against us, we should have had but slender grounds for complaint; but such is not really the case. It may, indeed, be fairly inferred that, by agreeing to lower the oppressive duties on timber and corn, we might prevail on Prussia to use her influence to get the alliance duties on cotton stuffs, hardware, &c. abated; but, till we consent to moderate our duties on the articles in question, it is not to be supposed that Prussia will pay much attention to the exceptions we may take to any of the duties.

We are glad to be able to strengthen our view of the influence and objects of the Prussian commercial league, by laying before the reader the following extract from a work printed by order of the House of Representatives of the American States. "Prussia," it is there said, "has evidently taken the lead in this wise and important measure, to which the smallest states have gradually acceded. The whole commercial policy of this enlightened power has been distinguished for its liberality, being founded on the desire of placing her intercourse with all nations on the basis of reciprocity. The commercial league of Germany is intended to carry out this principle, and not to be directed, as has been supposed, against any particular nation; as it is well known that Prussia, in her treaties with maritime powers, has invariably adopted the system of reciprocity, to whatever extent those with whom she negotiates are willing to carry it. The establishment of this community of commercial interest forms a part of the fundamental compact, by which the new Germanic confederation was created, after the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine; to be subsequently adopted, however, at the option of such of the states as should choose to accede to it. Its effects cannot fail to promote commerce, and every other branch of industry, as it removes all those vexatious and endless difficulties which previously obstructed the freedom of intercourse. Navigable rivers and highways are now open to the unfettered use of the German people; the customs' and toll houses, with their officers and barriers, have been withdrawn from the interior, and the whole intercommunication resembles that of the subjects of any one of the states within its own territories. To these benefits may be added the assured prospect of improvement in the finances of the great and smaller sovereignties composing the league. This advantage will grow out of the simplicity or unity of the new system, a saving in the cost of collection, and from the increased consumption which renovated industry and progressive prosperity so invariably cause."—(*Digest of Customs' Laws*, vol. iii. p. 227.)

Prussian Duty on Cottons.—The duty on cotton goods being that in which we are most interested, we have taken some pains to ascertain its real influence. This duty amounts (see *post*) to 50 six-dollars per Prussian quintal on all cotton goods, without respect to quality or price; and, taking the quintal at 113 lbs. avoirdupois, and the six-dollar at 3s., it is equal to 7l. 10s. per 113 lbs. Now, we have learned from statements obligingly furnished to us by a large wholesale house in the city,—

1st. That a quintal (113 lbs.) of *coarse shirting*, worth 4d. per yard, contains 467 yards; it consequently costs 5l. 6s., and the Prussian or tariff alliance duty of 7l. 10s. on it is, therefore, equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 90 per cent.

2d. That a quintal of *superior shirting*, worth 1s. a yard, contains 457-65 yards; it consequently costs 11l. 7s. 7d., making the Prussian duty on such goods 32½ per cent.

3d. That a quintal of *printed cottons*, worth 1s. 6d. a yard, contains 633 yards; it consequently costs 6l. 3s., making the Prussian duty on such goods 15½ per cent.

4th. That a quintal of *fine printed cottons*, worth 2s. 6d. a yard, contains 678 yards; it consequently costs 84l. 15s., making the Prussian duty on such goods 8½ per cent.

It is plain, therefore, that, except on the coarsest and cheapest species of goods, the Prussian or tariff alliance duty is very far from being oppressive; and, as the value of coarse goods is principally dependent on the cost of the raw cotton and the wages of labour, being but little influenced by superiority of machinery, it is not very probable that we should export them largely to Prussia, even were the duty materially reduced. No doubt, however, it would conduce greatly to the interests of the people comprised within the league, though we do not know that it would sensibly affect us, were the duty assessed on an *ad valorem* principle, and made 20 or 30 per cent. on all goods; and we should think that this might be done without any material difficulty.

The subjoined translation of the more important clauses of the customs' treaty of the 22d of March, 1833, sets the principles on which the alliance is founded in the clearest point of view.

Customs' Treaty, concluded the 22d March, 1833, between the Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, on the one part; and the King of Prussia, the Prince Electoral Co-regent of Hesse, and the Grand Duke of Hesse, on the other part.

1. The existing customs' unions between the states above named shall henceforth constitute a general Union, united by a common system of customs and commerce, embracing all the countries comprised therein.

2. In this general re-union are also comprised the states which have already adhered, either for the

whole of their territory, or for a part, to the system of customs and commerce of one or other of the contracting states, having regard to their special relations, founded upon the conventions of adhesion concluded with the states which have intervened.

III. But there will remain excluded from the general re-union the parts separated from the countries of the contracting states which, because of their situation, are not yet included either in the union of the Bavarian or Württemberg customs, nor in those of Prussia and Hesse. Nevertheless, the regulations now in force to facilitate the commerce of these territories with the principal country will be maintained. Other favours of this kind cannot be accorded without the unanimous consent of the contracting states.

IV. In the contracting states there shall be established uniform laws for the duties of import, of export, and of transit, except such modifications as, without injury to the common object, result necessarily from the particular legislation of each contracting state, or from local interests.

Thus, exceptions and modifications to the common tariff may take place, as to rates of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, (according as the direction of the routes of commerce may require), established upon articles recognized as of minor consequence in extensive commerce; provided always, that these modifications be preferred by separate states, and that they shall not be disadvantageous to the general interests of the Association.

The administration of the duties of import, export, and transit, as well as the organization of the authorities which are engaged therein, in all the states of the Association, shall be established upon a uniform footing, having regard, however, to the particular relations existing in those countries. The laws and ordinances which, according to those principles, ought to be uniform in the contracting states, and which are to constitute the law of the tariff and the regulations of the customs, shall be considered as an integral part of the present treaty, and shall be published at the same time.

V. There can neither be alterations, or additions, or exceptions, to the acts above mentioned (Art. IV.), but by the unanimous consent of all the contracting parties, and in the form required for the making (*confectio*) of the laws.

The preceding applies equally to all the ordinances which would establish, for the administration of the customs, dispositions entirely different.

VI. Liberty of commerce, and community of the receipts of customs, as regulated by the following article, will commence simultaneously with the operation of the present treaty.

VII. Dating from this epoch, all duties of import, of export, and of transit shall cease on the common frontier of the Bavaro-Württemberg and Prusso-Hessian customs' re-unions. All articles of free commerce in one of those territories may be imported freely and without duty into all the others, except only as follows:

A. Articles monopolized by the states (playing cards and salt) conformably to Articles IX. and X. B. Indigenous articles, now subject in the interior of the contracting states to different duties, or exempted from all duty in one state, and imported into another, and which according to Article II. ought consequently to be subject to a duty of compensation.

Finally, C. Articles which, without prejudice to patent rights or conceded privileges in one of the contracting states, cannot be imported, and ought consequently to be excluded during the existence of the patents and privileges from importation into the state which has granted them.

VIII. Notwithstanding the freedom of commerce, and the exemption from duties, established by Article VII., the transport of articles of commerce, subject by the common tariff to duties of import or export on the frontiers of the Association, cannot take place between the states of Bavaria and Württemberg, and the states of Prussia, of Electoral Hesse, or of Grand Ducal Hesse, and reciprocally, except by the public roads, military routes, and navigable rivers. For this purpose there shall be established, on the interior frontiers, common *bureaus* of verification, to which the conductors of merchandise must, on exhibiting their licences, declare what are the articles which they are employed to transport from one territory to another.

This disposition will not be applicable to retail commerce in raw materials, nor to the petty commerce of the frontiers or the fairs, nor to the effects of travellers. Process for the verification of merchandise will go no farther than is required for security of the duties of compensation.—(See Art. VII. B.)

XIII. The contracting parties reciprocally renew their adhesion to the principle, that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall only be sufficient to defray the expense of maintenance and repairs of the roads; whether the tax be for the state or for private rights. It was thus that has been approved the supplement to the duty of customs, created in Bavaria and Württemberg, to replace the duty of tolls, paving, causeways, bridges, and generally of all analogous taxes.

The tolls, &c., now existing in Prussia, according to the general tariff of 1828, shall be considered as the highest rates, and shall not be exceeded in any of the contracting states.

In accordance with the principle thus announced, the individual duty for closing the gates of cities shall be abolished; as also the duty of paving of causeways, where it still exists; and all paved roads will be considered as causeways of a description liable only to the duty on causeways established by the general tariff.

XIV. The contracting governments agree to unite their efforts to introduce into the states a uniform system of coins, weights, and measures; to commence immediately the requisite negotiations for this purpose; and, subsequently, to direct their efforts towards the adoption of uniform custom-house weights.

The contracting states, in the impossibility of establishing this uniformity before this treaty goes into operation, agree, for facilitating the forwarding of merchandise where it has not already been done, to revise their tariff as to weights and measures, assuming for a basis the tariffs of the other contracting states. They will cause such modifications to be published, for the government of the public and of their custom-house *bureaus*.

The common tariff (Art. IV.) shall be divided into two principal divisions, according to the system of weights, measures, and moines of Bavaria, and that of Prussia.

The declaration of the weights and measures of articles subject to duty shall, in Prussia, be according to Prussian weights and measures; in Bavaria and Württemberg, according to those of Bavaria; and in the two Hesses, according to the weights and measures there legally established.

In expediting custom-house acts, the quantity of merchandise must be expressed according to the two principal divisions of the common tariff.

Until the contracting states agree upon a system of common money, the payment of duties in each state shall be made in the same currency as is in use for payment of its other taxes.

But, from the present time, the gold and silver coins of all the contracting states, with the exception of small money (*schillingen*), shall be received in all the *bureaus* of receipt of the Association; and for this purpose, tables of value shall be published.

XV. The duties of navigation upon the rivers, comprising therein those which apply to reeds, shall always be mutually regulated according to the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or of special conventions, upon all the rivers to which these regulations apply, unless other determinations be adopted in this respect.

The contracting states agree to enter, without delay, into negotiations for that which particularly regards the navigation upon the Rhine and the neighbouring streams, in order to effect an arrange-

ment by which the line of navigation shall be, under the reserve of the advantages upon said stream. Upon the other side, the duties of navigation, which, nevertheless, be treated as a separate matter, shall be, in the territory, in the discharge of the regulations of the customs. XVII. No duties shall be established on the use of charges cannot be made, if the article XVIII. The contract industry by the adoption as possible, from the coming into trading or selling any import which objects who are only not simply patterned duty to pay in their domicile; When trading in heavy one of the states in all respects as subject XIX. The separate Union, on payments of states in the seaports with their advice and XX. To protect agreement of the duty of cartels, which shall be subject to the XXI. The common comprehend the production of Bavaria, and these countries which trading states. The following are the benefit of the respective 1. The imposta colle compensatory duties 2. The toll on rivers and special convention or weighing and storage 4. The fines and exact government thereof XXII. The products of the Association deduction, 1st, of the 2d, of the restoration tion. The population of one or other of the contributions, for the population of the There shall be made ration of the population thereof. XXIII. All restraints charged to the treasury Conventions, hereafter recorded. XXIV. In conformity natural commerce certain places in which be extended to those restricted and shalshalls heretofore favoured, can, on no account, be XXVII. There shall governments of the U authorized represent The plenipotentiary pre-eminence over the The first assembly At the close of each to the nature of those XXVIII. The assest-jects: A. To consider the containing the execution

ment by which the import, export, and transit of the productions of all the states of the Union upon said streams shall be, if not absolutely free, at least relieved as far as possible from duties of navigation, under the reserve of charges of reconnaissance.

All the advantages granted by one state of the Union to its subjects, in the exercise of the navigation upon said streams, shall extend equally to the navigation of the other associated states.

Upon the other streams to which neither the acts of the Congress of Vienna, nor any other treaties apply, the duties of navigation shall be according to the special regulations of the governments interested. Nevertheless, the subjects of the contracting states, their merchandise and vessels, shall, throughout, be treated on those streams with perfect equality.

XVI. Dating from the day on which the general custom-house regulations of the Union shall come into operation, the duties of public stores (*étapes*), and of trans-shipments (*umschlagrechte*), which still exist in the territories belonging to the Association, shall cease, no one shall be liable to forced delay, save to the discharging and storage of his merchandise, except in cases authorised by the common regulations of the customs or navigation.

XVII. No duties shall be claimed for canals, locks, bridges, ferries, cranes, weighing and storage; and the establishments destined to facilitate commerce shall not be allowed rent, except when actually used. Charges cannot be increased; and the subjects of the other contracting states shall be on a perfect equality with the subjects of the country having those establishments.

If the establishments for weighing, and cranes are only used by the custom-houses, no charge shall be made, if the articles have been previously weighed at a custom-house.

XVIII. The contracting states engage to continue their common efforts for the encouragement of industry by the adoption of uniform regulations, so that the subjects of each state may enjoy, as extensively as possible, the privilege of seeking work and occupation in every other state.

From the coming into operation of the present treaty, the subjects of any one of the contracting states, trading or seeking employ in the territory of any other of those states, shall not be subject to any impost which does not equally affect the native similarly employed. Manufacturers and merchants who are only making purchases for their trade, or travellers who have not goods with them, but simply patterns for the purpose of soliciting commissions, shall not, when thus employed, have any duty to pay in another state, if authorised to carry on such commerce in the state where they have their domicile; or if employed in the service of native manufacturers or merchants.

When trading in the markets and fairs, or when they are selling the produce of the soil and fabrics, in any one of the states of the Association, the subjects of the other contracting states shall be treated in all respects as subjects of the same state.

XIX. The seaports of Prussia shall be open for commerce to all the subjects of the states of the Union, on payments of the same duties as are paid by Prussian subjects, and the consuls of the several states in the seaports or places of the foreign commerce, shall be bound, in cases of need, to assist with their advice and support the subjects of the other contracting states.

XX. To protect against contraband their common custom-house system, and to insure the regular payment of the duty of consumption in the interior, the contracting states have concluded a reciprocal cartel, which shall be enforced as soon as possible, but, at the farthest, at the same time with the present treaty.

XXI. The community of receipts of the contracting states, stipulated by the present treaty, shall comprehend the product of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, in the Prussian states, the Kingdoms of Bavaria, and Württemberg, the Electorate, and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, comprising therein those countries which have down to the present time acceded to the custom-house system of the contracting states.

The following are excluded from the community of receipts, and remain preserved for the particular benefit of the respective governments:—

1. The imposts collected in the interior of each state on indigenous products, comprising therein the compensatory duties reserved in Article XI.

2. The toll on rivers, to which are applicable the regulations of the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or special conventions. (Article XV.)

3. Duties of paving, of causeways, of bridges, of ferries, of canals, of locks and ports, charges of weighing and storage, as well as similar receipts, whatever may be their name.

4. The fines and confiscations which, beyond the part allowed to informers, remain the property of each government throughout its territory.

XXII. The produce of the duties received into the common treasury shall be divided among the states of the Association, in proportion to the population which may be found in the Union, subject to deduction, first, of the expenses specified in Article XXX.; 2d, of the restitution of erroneous receipts; 3d, of the restoration of duties and diminutions made in consequence of special common conventions.

The population of every state which has entered or may enter into the Association, by treaty with one or other of the contracting states, under the engagement made by the latter, to make an annual contribution, for the participation of the former to the common revenue of the customs, shall be added to the population of the states which make this contribution.

There shall be made every three years, dating from a period to be hereafter fixed, an exact enumeration of the population of the associated states; the states shall reciprocally communicate the result thereof.

XXIII. All restitutions of duties not authorised by the legislation of the customs, shall remain charged to the treasury of the government which shall have granted it.

Conventions, hereafter to be concluded, will regulate in what cases similar restitutions may be accorded.

XXIV. In conformity with the object of this association of customs tending to facilitate a freer and more mutual commercial intercourse, the favours accorded for the payment of custom-house duties at certain places in which fairs are held, especially the privileges of *habus privilegii*, cannot be extended to those states of the Association where they do not exist; on the contrary, they shall be restricted and abolished as far as possible, regard being had to the means of subsistence of the places heretofore favoured, and to the commercial relations which they have with foreigners; but others can, on no account, be granted without the general consent of the contracting parties.

XXV. There shall every year, on the 1st day of June, be an assembly of plenipotentiaries of the governments of the Union empowered generally to deliberate; and each state may send thither a duly authorized representative.

The plenipotentiaries will choose from among themselves a president, who, however, shall have no pre-eminence over the other members.

The first assembly shall be held at Munich.

At the close of each annual assembly, the place of next meeting will be determined, having reference to the nature of those subjects which will then come under discussion.

XXVI. The assembly of plenipotentiaries will have under its consideration the following subjects:—

A. To consider the complaints which may have arisen in any of the states of the Association, concerning the execution of the general treaty, of special conventions, of the law, and of custom-house

PRUSSIAN TARIFF.

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Prussian Tariff—continued.

Names of the Articles.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.	Names of the Articles.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
	Weight for Number.	Importations.		Exportations.			Weight for Number.	Importations.		Exportations.	
		R. Dol.	Gr. Dol.					R. Dol.	Gr. Dol.		
of lacy wares (quincilleries), unless others are specified, with articles of glass, iron, silk, wool, which are connected with iron, glass, wood, paper, brass, or steel; by buttons, caps of cloth, and other stuffs, combined with leather, buttons, tassels, &c. &c.	Qt.					Cast iron; as bar, scrolled, flat, rolled, or hammered, iron, locks, &c. &c.; as also blistered and soldering steel, cast and refined steel, also rails for railways	Qt.				
Glass and articles of glass— Note.—When loosely packed, 51 cubic feet are reckoned as 1 quintal.	1	1				Facemasks— Unmanufactured steel, imported exclusively from the Russian frontiers to the mouth of the Vistula, is subject only to the general importation duty.					
When bottle glass, cut or with cut bottoms (Hollandsch, brinn, and blue glass, without distinction of colour			1	3		Hammered iron, which has been manufactured into fine sorts under the stretch and cut works, as also black iron sheeting and iron plates	1	3			11 in casks and chests, 7 in baskets, 4 in basins.
Colours, gilt, painted, &c., and all kinds of enamelled cut glass, drops for chandeliers, knobs, beads and ornaments						White iron sheeting, as also iron wire, anchors, and anchor chains					
Looking glasses, with or without quicksilver— Note.—If the piece does not measure more than 1 square foot						Lead— Lead, unwrought, in blocks	1	4			
Blown; if the piece does not measure more than 2 square feet, the table glass						Coarse articles of lead, as, kettles, pipes, shot, plates, &c. &c.	Qt.	2			7 in casks and chests.
Cast; if the piece measures more than 2 square feet, the table glass						Fine articles of lead; as, toys, &c. wholly or partly of lead; also Japanese articles of lead					22 in casks and chests, 14 in baskets.
14 to 200 sq. inches, as the square	Pe.	1	8			Molasses					12 lbs. in barrels.
20 to 500						Paper and articles of paste-board					
500 to 1,000						Gross blotting and packing paper, general importation duty is paid.					
1,000 to 1,400						Fluxes or flux printing paper, coarse white and coloured; packing paper, and pasteboard					
1,400 to 1,800						All other sorts of paper					
1,800 to 2,000						Note.—Paper which is lithographed, printed, or ruled (to be used in the state fine accounts, labels, invoices, &c. &c.) belongs to those sorts of papers mentioned above.					
2,000 to 2,500						Paper tapestry					
2,500 to 3,000						Bookbinders' work of paper and pasteboard, also coarse jappaned wares out of such prime materials (matras)					
3,000 to 3,500						Pepper, pimento, saffron, vanilla, cinnamon					
3,500 to 4,000						Potters' clay and potters' ware— Potters' clay for china manufactures					
4,000 to 4,500						Common potters' floor stones and crucibles (Stige) coloured or white crockery wares, earthen pipes					
4,500 to 5,000						Painted, printed, gilded or silvered crockery pipes					
5,000 to 5,500						White china					
5,500 to 6,000						Coloured china, and also white, with coloured stripes, painted or gilded					
6,000 to 6,500						Crockery and other earthenware, and whitening and enamel, concealed with the base metal					
6,500 to 7,000						This stone combined with gold, silver, platinum, stannic and other admixtures of fine metals, as also all other china wares combined with fine or common metals					
7,000 to 7,500						Silk and silk goods— Dyed and white or stored silk (wadded and unwadded), also thread of raw silk					
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ing 10l. with costs; and guilty of a *third offence* within 3 years, to forfeit not exceeding 50l. with costs; or the case in the last instance may be adjourned to the petty sessions, or the annual meeting, or the general quarter sessions; and if the offender is found guilty by a jury, he may be fined 100l. or adjudged to forfeit his licence, or both, and rendered incapable of selling any excisable liquor in any inn kept by him for 3 years.—§ 21.

Proceedings at the session in certain cases, may be directed by the justices to be carried on by the constable, and the expenses defrayed out of the county rates.—§ 22.

Witnesses refusing to attend without lawful excuse, may be fined not more than 10l.—§ 23.

Penalties against justices may be sued for in any court in Westminster; a moiety to the king, and a moiety to the party suing.—§ 24.

Penalties adjudged by justices may be recovered by distress, or the party imprisoned 1, 2, or 6 calendar months.—§ 25.

The next sections relate to the mode of prosecuting actions.

The last section of the act bears that the word "inn" shall include any inn, alehouse, or victualling house, in which is sold by retail any excisable liquor, to be drunk or consumed on the premises; and the words excisable liquor are to include all such fermented or spirituous liquors as may now or hereafter be charged with any custom or excise duty.—§ 27.

The act does not affect the two Universities, nor the privilege of the Vintners' Company, except those freemen who have obtained their freedom by redemption; and it does not alter the time of granting licences in the city of London.

Innkeepers are bound, by the tenor of their licence, to keep order in their houses, to prevent drunkenness and disorderly conduct, and gambling. If they fail in these respects, they forfeit their licence, and subject themselves to the penalties mentioned before. Allowing seditious or immoral books to be read in an inn, also forfeits the licence, and subjects to penalties.—(39 Geo. 3. c. 57. § 43.)

2. Duties of Innkeepers.—Innkeepers are bound by law to receive guests coming to their inns, and they are also bound to protect their property when there. They have no option to reject or refuse a guest, unless their house be already full, or they are able to assign some other reasonable and sufficient cause. Neither can they impose unreasonable terms on such as frequent their houses: if they do, they may be fined, and their inns indicted and suppressed. An innkeeper who has stables attached to his premises, may be compelled to receive a horse, although the owner does not reside in his house; but he cannot, under such circumstances, be compelled to receive a trunk or other dead thing. By the annual Mutiny Act, constables, or, in their default, justices of the peace, may quarter soldiers in inns, livery-stables, alehouses, &c., under the conditions and regulations set forth in the statute.

3. Responsibilities of Innkeepers.—An innkeeper is bound to keep safely whatever thing his guests deposit in his inn, or in his custody as innkeeper; and he is civilly liable for all losses, except those arising from *irresistible force*, or what is usually termed the act of God and the king's enemies. "It has long been holden," says Sir William Jones, "that an innkeeper is bound to restitution, if the trunks or parcels of his guests, committed to him either personally or through one of his agents, be damaged in his inn, or stolen out of it by any person whatever (except the servant or companion of the guest); nor shall he discharge himself of this responsibility by a refusal to take any care of the goods, because there are suspected persons in the house, for whose conduct he cannot be answerable; it is otherwise, indeed, if he refuse admission to a traveller because he really has no room for him, and the traveller, nevertheless, insist upon entering, and place his baggage in a chamber without the keeper's consent. Add to this, that if he fail to provide honest servants and honest inmates, according to the confidence reposed in him by the public, his negligence in that respect is highly culpable, and he ought to answer civilly for their acts, even if they should rob the guests that sleep in their chambers. Rigorous as this law may seem, and hard as it may actually be in one or two particular instances, it is founded on the great principle of public utility, to which all private considerations ought to yield; for travellers, who must be numerous in a rich and commercial country, are obliged to rely almost implicitly on the good faith of innholders, whose education and morals are usually none of the best, and who might have frequent opportunities of associating with ruffians or pilferers, while the injured guest could never obtain legal proof of such combinations, or even of their negligence, if no actual fraud had been committed by them. Hence the praetor declared, according to Pomponius, his desire of securing the public from the dishonesty of such men; and by his edict gave an action against them, if the goods of travellers or passengers were lost or hurt by any means except by inevitable accident (*damno facti*): and Ulpian intimates, that even this severity could not restrain them from knavish practices or suspicious neglect."—(*Essay on the Law of Bailments*, 2d ed. pp. 95, 96.)

Even if an innkeeper bid the guest take the key of his chamber and lock the door, telling him that he cannot undertake the charge of the goods, still, if they be stolen, he is held to be responsible. In all such cases it is not competent to the innkeeper to plead that he took ordinary care, or that the force which occasioned the loss was truly irresistible. A guest is not bound to deliver the goods in special custody to the innkeeper, nor, indeed, to acquaint him that he has any. If he have property with him, or about his person, the innkeeper must be responsible for it without communication. But the innkeeper may require that the property of his guest be delivered into his hands, in order that it may be put into a secure place: and if the guest refuse, the innkeeper is not liable for its safety. The guest exonerates the innkeeper from liability, when he takes upon himself the exclusive custody of the goods, so as to deprive the innkeeper of having any care over them.

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that, if a guest demand and have exclusive possession of a room, for the purpose of a shop or warehouse, he exonerates the landlord from any loss he may sustain in the property which he keeps in that apartment; but it is otherwise if he have not the exclusive possession of the room. The innkeeper cannot oblige the guest to take charge of his own goods; for this, in effect, would be a refusal to admit them into the inn. And it is no excuse for an innkeeper to say that he delivered the key of the chamber whence the property was stolen to the guest, who left the door open. A case of this sort occurred very recently, at Brighton.—A lady having left the door of her bed-room, of which she had the key, open for a few minutes, 50*l.* were abstracted from her reticule. The innkeeper contended that the plaintiff, by selecting particular apartments, and taking the key, had exonerated him from his liability. The jury found for the plaintiff; and upon a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said,—“By the common law of this country, and also by the civil law, the principle of the liabilities of innkeepers was founded on two reasons; first, to compel the landlord to take care that no improper company was admitted into his house; and, secondly, to prevent collusion.—The principle, as stated in the civil law, was this—‘*Ne quisquam pulet graviter hoc in eos constitutum esse; nam est in ipsorum arbitrio nequem recipiant; et nisi hoc esset statutum, materia daretur cum furibus, adversus eos quos recipiant, occundi: cum ne nunc quidem abstinere hujusmodi fraudibus.*’ It was true that in the present state of society, it was very difficult to prevent the intrusion of improper company into inns. But still the principle was such as he had stated it to be, and it would be dangerous to relax it; and he did not think that the taking rooms in this way was sufficient to discharge the landlord. Then, as to the objection that the cases did not extend to money, it was clear that money was as much within the principle as goods, and that no substantial distinction could be made. He was therefore of opinion that the verdict was right.”—Rule refused.

A landlord may exempt himself from liability, if he can show that the loss was occasioned by the misconduct of the guest; as, if his goods are stolen by his own servant or occupant.

It has been decided that a man is a guest at an inn, if he leave his horse at it, though he has not gone into it himself. If a man come to an inn, and make a contract for lodging for a set time, and do not eat or drink there, he is no guest, but a lodger, and, as such, not under the innkeeper's protection; but if he eat and drink, or pay for his diet there, it is otherwise. Any innkeeper or alehouse keeper, knowingly receiving and harbouring any person convicted of an offence against the revenue laws, for which he has been in prison, or for which he has fled, shall forfeit 100*l.* and have no licence for the future.

A Remedy of an Innkeeper against his Guest.—An Innkeeper may, without any agreement to that effect, detain the person of a guest who has eaten in his house, until payment; and he may do the same by the horses in his stable.

An innkeeper is not entitled to recover for spirits supplied to his guests, of the value of 20*s.* and upwards, unless applied or contracted for at one time.—(23 Geo. 2. c. 40.)

By the custom of London and Exeter, if a man commit a horse to an hostler, and the expense of his keep becomes equivalent to his price, the hostler may appropriate the horse to himself upon the appraisement of four of his neighbours, or may have him sold. But innkeepers in other parts of the country have no power to sell horses detained by them.

A horse committed to an innkeeper cannot be detained as a security for the board of his master. It is enacted by 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 15. that innkeepers, alehouse keepers, &c. refusing to specify in an account the number of pints or quarts for which demand is made, or selling in unmarked measures, shall have no power to detain any goods or other things belonging to the person from whom demand is made, but shall be left to their action for recovery of the same.

[In the United States, the system of licensing public houses has been adopted by the several states. For the details of the system the reader may consult *Purdon's Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania, the Revised Statutes of New York, &c.*—Am. Ed.]

PUMICE STONE (Ger. *Bimstein*; Fr. *Pierre ponce*; It. *Pietra pomice*; Sp. *Piedra pomez*; Lat. *Pumex*), a light, spongy, vitreous stone, found usually in the neighbourhood of volcanoes. It is used for polishing metals and unperle, and smoothing the surface of wood and pasteboard. It is said to form a good glaze for pottery. The lighter pumice stones swim on water, their specific gravity not exceeding .914. The island of Lipari, in the Mediterranean, is chiefly formed of pumice stone, and may be said to be the magazine whence all Europe is supplied with this useful article. There are several species of pumice stones; but those only that are light and spongy are exported. The price varies in the London market from 8*l.* to 10*l.* a ton.

PUTCHOCK. An article of this name is imported in considerable quantities from the north-west coast of India into China, and is regularly quoted in the Canton price currents. It is the root of a plant that grows abundantly in Sindh. When burned, it yields a fine smoke, and a grateful and diffusive smell. The Chinese beat it into a fine powder, which they burn as incense in the temples of their gods.—(*Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 126.)

the commerce of the country, than by constructing a proper quarantine establishment on the Thames.

Bills of Health.—The period of quarantine varies, as respects ships coming from the same place, according to the nature of their bills of health. These are documents, or certificates, signed by the consul or other competent authority in the place which the ship has left, describing its state of health at the time of her clearing out. A *clean* bill imports that, at the time of her sailing, no infectious disorder was known to exist. A *suspected*, or, as it is more commonly called, a *touched* bill, imports that rumours were afloat of an infectious disorder, but that it had not actually appeared. A *foul* bill, or the *absence of clean bills*, import that the place was infected when the vessel sailed.—(See *BILLS OF HEALTH*.) The duration of the quarantine is regulated by the nature of those instruments. They seem to have been first issued in the Mediterranean ports in 1665, and are obviously of great importance.

Quarantine Regulations.—The existing quarantine regulations are embodied in the act of Geo. 4. c. 78., and the different orders in council issued under its authority. These orders specify what vessels are liable to perform quarantine; the places at which it is to be performed; and the various formalities and regulations to be complied with. The publication in the *Gazette* of any order in council with respect to quarantine is deemed sufficient notice to all concerned; and no excuse of ignorance is admitted for any infringement of the regulations. To obviate, as far as possible, any foundation for such plea, it is ordered that vessels clearing out for any port or place with respect to which there shall be at the time any order in council subjecting vessels from it to quarantine, are to be furnished with an abstract of the quarantine regulations; and are to furnish themselves with quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and with materials and instruments for fumigating and immersing goods. The following are the clauses in the act as to signals:—

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel liable to quarantine shall, at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within two leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal to denote that his vessel is liable to quarantine; which signal shall in the day time, if the vessel shall have a clean bill of health, be a large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast-head; and if such vessel shall not have a clean bill of health, then a like yellow flag with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to the breadth of bunting; and in the night time, the signal shall in both cases be a large signal lantern with a light therein (such as is used on board his Majesty's ships of war), at the same mast-head: and every commander, master, or other person, shall keep such signals hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessels, or within 2 leagues of the said coast or islands and while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel so liable to quarantine shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure whereof, such commander, master, or other person, shall forfeit 100*l.*—*§* 8.

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel on board whereof the plague or other infectious disease highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects shall actually be, shall at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within two leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal, to denote that a vessel has the plague or other infectious disease; which signal shall be in the day time a flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 8 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast-head; and in the night time, the signal shall be 2 large signal lanterns, commonly used on board ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast-head: and such commander, master, or other person, shall keep such signal hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessel, or within 2 leagues of the coast or islands aforesaid, while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure thereof, such commander, master, or other person, shall forfeit 100*l.*—*§* 9.

Any commander, master, or other person, knowing that the same is not liable to the performance of quarantine, shall hoist such signal, by day or night, such commander or other person shall forfeit 10*l.*—*§* 10.

But, instead of printing the act, and the various orders in council that have grown out of it, it will be sufficient to lay the following abstract of them before the reader. This abstract has been prepared by the Custom-house; and contains a distinct summary of the various rules and regulations to be complied with.

ABSTRACT OF QUARANTINE REGULATIONS.

It is the first place to be observed, that all persons are presumed to know, and are bound to take notice, not only of the quarantine regulations established by act of parliament (as they are of any other public act), but likewise of every order in council made for the performance of quarantine, and published in the *London Gazette*: and as it is easily in their power to inform themselves of such regulations, and particular care is taken by this and other means to promulgate such of them as apply to their respective situations, *previous to their being actually put under quarantine*, when they will receive directions for their guidance from the quarantine officers, no plea of ignorance will be admitted as an excuse for any neglect, breach, or violation thereof; but for the sake of example, and for the security of the public health, the pains, penalties, and punishments of the law will be enforced with the utmost severity.

Duty of Commanders and Masters of Vessels.

Upon arrival off the coast of the United Kingdom, or the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man,

To deliver to the pilot who shall go on board, a written paper, containing a true account of the name of the place at which his ship loaded, and of all the places at which he touched on the homeward voyage. Neglecting or refusing to deliver such papers, or making any false representation or wilful omission therein, subjects him to a penalty of 500*l.*

Upon entering or attempting to enter any port, and being spoke by any quarantine officers, To give a true answer in writing or otherwise, and upon oath or not upon oath (according as he shall be required), to the preliminary questions put to him by such quarantine officers, for the purpose of ascertaining whether his vessel is or is not liable to quarantine. Neglecting or refusing to bring his vessel as soon as it can be done with safety, in obedience to the requisition of the quarantine officer, subjects him to the penalty of 300*l*.

Refusing to answer such questions, or giving any false answer thereto (if not upon oath), subjects him to the penalty of 200*l*.

If upon oath, to the punishment for wilful and corrupt perjury.

If any infectious disease shall appear on board, the master is to repair to such place as his Majesty shall direct, and make known his case to the officer of customs, and he is to remain at that place until directions are given by the Lords of the Privy Council. He is not to permit any of the crew or passengers on board to go on shore, and he, his crew, and passengers, are to obey such directions as shall be received from the Lords of the Privy Council.

Not acting in conformity to the regulations herein directed, or acting in disobedience to such directions as shall be received from the Privy Council, he incurs the penalty of 100*l*.

If informed by the pilot that his vessel has become liable to quarantine, by reason of any proclamation made subsequent to his departure, to hoist and keep hoisted a like signal, under the penalty of 100*l*.

To give to the pilot coming on board a written paper containing a true account of the different articles composing his cargo. Neglecting or refusing to do so, or making a false representation or omission, subjects him to a penalty of 50*l*.

Masters of vessels liable to quarantine, and other persons on board them or having communication with them, are to repair to the appointed quarantine station, and may be compelled to do so by force.

The master of any vessel having disease on board, on meeting with any other vessel at sea, or within 2 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, is to hoist a signal to denote that his vessel has such disease on board, and is to keep such signal hoisted during such time as he shall continue within sight of such vessels, or within 5 leagues of the coast or islands aforesaid, while so in sight or within such distance, until the vessel shall arrive at the port where she is to perform quarantine, and until she shall be legally discharged from the performance thereof. Failing herein, the master incurs the penalty of 100*l*.

If he shall refuse or omit to disclose the circumstances of such infection prevailing either at any place at which he has been, or on board his vessel, in his answers to the preliminary questions put to him by the quarantine officer, or if he shall wilfully omit to hoist, and to keep hoisted, the proper quarantine signal to denote that his ship is liable to quarantine, he incurs the penalty of 100*l*.

Upon attempting to enter any port, which is not the port at which he ought to perform quarantine, he may be compelled to desist therefrom, in order that he may proceed to the proper quarantine port, by guns being fired upon the ship, or any other kind of force being used that may be necessary for the attainment of that object.

Quitting or knowingly suffering any seaman or passenger to quit his ship, by going on shore, or going on board any other vessel or boat, before discharged from quarantine, or

Not repairing to the proper quarantine station within a convenient time after due notice given, incurs a penalty of 100*l*.

To repair in all cases to the proper quarantine port, as herein-after stated in the Appendix, according as he shall or shall not be furnished with a clean bill of health, and according to the port or place to which he shall be bound, as herein stated.

But if through ignorance, or by stress of weather, damage, loss, or accidents of the sea, he shall have passed the proper quarantine port, he may (having a clean bill of health on board, and giving satisfactory proof thereof upon oath, and by the oath of the pilot, if any on board, and if the same was not wilfully or intentionally done or occasioned) be permitted to proceed to any other quarantine port, in the discretion of the quarantine officer, keeping the proper quarantine signal hoisted during the whole time.

Upon his arrival at the proper quarantine port, to give true answers upon oath to all the quarantine questions, and to make oath to the truth of his log-book, and the times at which the entries therein made: failing herein, he incurs the penalty of wilful and corrupt perjury.

He is also to repair to the particular station which shall be appointed by the quarantine officer to the said ship or vessel.

To deliver up to the quarantine officer his bill of health, manifest, log-book, and journal.

Wilfully refusing or neglecting so to do, subjects him to a penalty of 100*l*.

If not bound to any port of the United Kingdom, or the Islands aforesaid, and attempting to enter any port thereof (except to wait for orders, or in consequence of stress of weather or accidents of the sea), he shall give satisfactory proof thereof to the quarantine officers, and give true answers upon oath to the preliminary questions, and strictly conform to all such directions as he shall receive from the quarantine officer, touching his continuance at such port, or departure from thence, or repair to any other; and also with respect to all other quarantine regulations; in default of which, he shall be compelled to proceed to sea by any means or by any kind of force that shall be necessary for that purpose.

Having performed quarantine in any foreign lazaret, the vessel is to be put under quarantine in some of the ports herein-after appointed, until the master shall produce to the quarantine officer the proper documents in proof thereof; upon production whereof the said vessel shall not be obliged to perform quarantine, but shall remain at such station until released by order in council.

Unshipping, or moving in order to unship, any goods from on board any vessel liable to quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 500*l*.

Chastelinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any letter, paper, or other article, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 100*l*.

Note.—Every commander or master of any vessel clearing out or about to sail for any port or place in the Mediterranean, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or for any port or place respecting which there shall at the time be any order of his Majesty in council in force, subjecting to quarantine coming from thence to quarantine, is to receive from the principal officer of the customs at such port or place, this printed Abstract of the Quarantine Regulations, which such commander or master is to cause to be affixed on some convenient and conspicuous part of his said vessel, and to remain so affixed until his return with his said vessel to some port or place in the United Kingdom or the Islands aforesaid.

And every such commander and master is likewise to provide and take on board at least one of the proper quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and likewise materials and instruments of sanitation, and immersion, and to keep the same on board, to be used upon his return to the United Kingdom or the Islands aforesaid.

Duty of Pilots.

Pilots are strictly to observe the following directions:—

To receive an account in writing from every commander or master of any vessel coming

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To give notice to sue

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Vol. II.—2 I

foreign parts, of the places at which his vessel loaded, and at which he touched on his said home-ward voyage.

To give notice to such commander or master of any proclamation, or order in council, made after the departure of such vessel from the United Kingdom or the islands aforesaid, and then in force, by which vessels coming from any place mentioned in such account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

To give a like notice of any proclamation then in force, by which vessels having on board any of the articles mentioned in the master's account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

To remain on board in the same manner as any of the officers, crew, or passengers, and not to quit the said vessel before or after the arrival, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until she is regularly discharged from quarantine; and they may be compelled by any persons whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the vessel. If they offend herein they incur a penalty of 300*l*, and 6 months' imprisonment.

To bring any such vessel into any port or place other than the port or place appointed for the reception of vessels so liable to quarantine, as stated in the Appendix, unless compelled by stress of weather, adverse winds, or accidents of the seas, of which the pilot, as well as the commander or master of the vessel, is to give satisfactory proof upon oath. If they offend herein they incur a penalty of 300*l*.

To bring the ship to, as soon as it can be done with safety in obedience to the requisition of the quarantine officer. Failing herein subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

Duty of other Persons.

When any infectious disease actually appears on board any vessel, all persons on board are to obey the direction of the privy council, under a penalty of 100*l*.

Not to quit such vessel, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until regularly discharged from quarantine; and if they quit the ship they may be compelled by any person whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the vessel, and are also liable to a penalty of 300*l*, and 6 months' imprisonment.

Whether liable to quarantine, or admitted to perform quarantine, or having had any intercourse or communication with any such persons as are liable to or under quarantine, all persons are to obey all such orders as they shall receive from the quarantine officer, and to repair to the lazaret, vessel, or place appointed for the performance of quarantine. Willfully refusing or neglecting to repair forthwith, when required so to do by such officers, or escaping from or out of such lazaret, vessel, or place, may be compelled to repair or return thereto by any kind of necessary force, and are subject to a penalty of 300*l*.

Loading or unshipping, or moving in order to the landing or unshipping, of any goods, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, books, letters, or any other articles whatever, from vessels liable to quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 500*l*.

Clandestinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any goods, letters, or other articles as aforesaid, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, or from the lazaret or other place where such goods or other articles shall be performing quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 500*l*.

Having quitted or come on shore from any vessel liable to or under quarantine, or having escaped from any lazaret or other place appointed in that behalf, may be seized and apprehended by any constable or other peace officer, or by any other person whatever, and carried before a Justice of the peace, who may grant his warrant for conveying such person to the vessel, lazaret, or other place from which he shall have escaped, or for confining him in any place of safe custody (not being a public gaol) until directions can be obtained from the privy council.

Knowingly and wilfully forging or counterfeiting, interlining, erasing, or altering, or procuring to be forged, &c., any certificate directed by any order in council touching quarantine, or publishing the same as true, or uttering any such certificate with intent to obtain the effect of a true certificate, knowing its contents to be false, are guilty of felony.

What Vessels are liable to Quarantines.

All vessels (as well ships of war as all others) with or without clean bills of health, coming—
From or having touched at any place in the Mediterranean, or the West Barbary on the Atlantic ocean.

From any other place from which his Majesty shall from time to time adjudge it probable (and shall so declare by proclamation or order in council) that the plague, or any other infectious disease or distemper highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects, may be brought.

Note.—They are considered as liable to quarantine from the time of their leaving any of the said places.

All vessels having communication with any of the before-mentioned ships or vessels, or receiving—
Any person whatever from or out of such vessel, whether such person shall have come from any of the said places, or shall have gone on board of such vessel, either in the course of her voyage, or upon her arrival off the coast of the United Kingdom, &c.—Or,

Any goods, wares, or merchandise, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, goods, letters, or any other articles whatever, from or out of such ship or vessel.

Note.—They are liable to quarantine from the time of their receiving any such persons or goods.

All vessels coming from any port or place in Europe without the Straits of Gibraltar, or on the continent of America, and lying on board—

Any of the articles enumerated (a list of which articles see in the Appendix);

And not producing a declaration upon oath, made by the owner, proprietor, shipper, or consignee, stating either that such articles are not the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or stating of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture.

Any vessels and boats receiving—

Any of the said goods, wares, or merchandise, or other articles enumerated.

Signals.

All vessels with the plague or other highly infectious disease actually on board—
In the day time—A flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 8 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time—Two large signal lanterns, with a light therein, such as are commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast-head.

All vessels with clean bills of health—

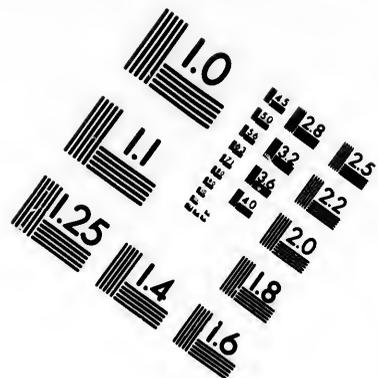
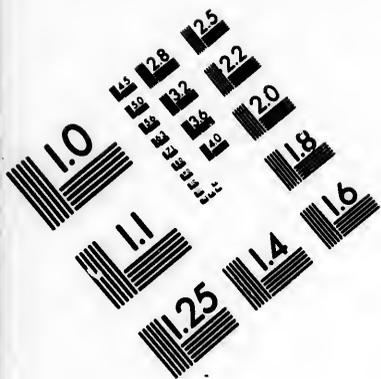
In the day time—A large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time—A large signal lantern, with a light therein, such as is commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, at the same mast-head.

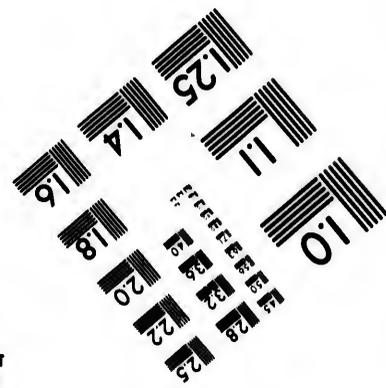
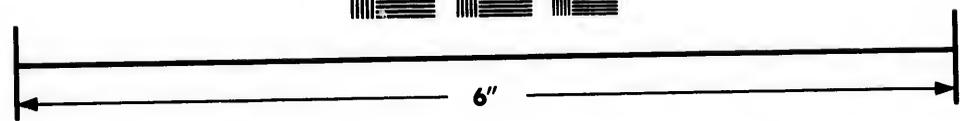
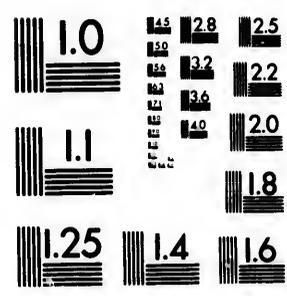
All vessels without clean bills of health—

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**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N. Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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In the day time—A large yellow flag, with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to 3 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast head.
 In the night time—Same as for vessels with clean bills of health.
Note.—Every commander or master of a vessel about to sail for the Mediterranean, or for any place respecting which an order in council shall be in force, subjecting vessels coming thence to quarantine, to be provided with the quarantine signals above mentioned, and to keep the same on board, to be used on his return to the United Kingdom.
 Any commander or master hoisting either of the said quarantine signals, by day or night, knowing that his vessel is not liable to quarantine, incurs the penalty of 50l.

APPENDIX.—A List of Articles enumerated considered as most liable to Infection.

Apparel of all kinds	Gold or silver on thread, cotton, hair, wool, or silk, or any other substance herein-before mentioned	Flattings of hat, cap, case, straw, or hair
Artificial flowers	Grass	Quills
Bast, or any articles made thereof	Grass	Shirts and all cloths
Beads, bracelets, or necklaces in strings	Hats, caps, or bonnets of straw, chip, case, or any other material	Silk, viz.—crapes and flannels, laces and silks, veils, shawls, and crapes
Beds and bed ticks	Hemp	Skins, hides, and furs, and parts or pieces of skin, hides, and furs, whether wet-dressed or in part or wholly tanned, tawed, or dressed
Books	Horns and horn tips	Stockings of all sorts
Brooms of all sorts	Flax of all sorts	Thread, raw, white, white, wool, washed raw or any way wrought
Brushes of all sorts	Leather	Yarns of all sorts
Burdets	Linen	And all other goods whatsoever, if they shall have arrived in or with packages containing wholly or in part of any of the said articles.
Canals	Late strings, bathings, or harp strings	
Canvases	Mattresses	
Carnicula wool	Mats and matting	
Carpets	Mobile yarn	
Coronals not tarred	Nets, saw or old	
Cotton wool	Paper	
Cotton yarn	Pack-thread	
Cotton thread	Parhamel	
All articles wholly made of or mixed with cotton, silk, wool, thread, or yarn	Peas	
Down		
Feathers		
Flax		
Furriers' waste		

QUARANTINE PORTS.—For Vessels liable to Quarantine not coming from any Place actually infected, or having any Infection actually on Board.

Without clean Bills of Health.
 All vessels, ships of war, &c. as herein-after specified, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek or Milford Haven.*
 Ships of war, transports, or other ships in the actual service of government, under the command of a commissioned officer in the service of his Majesty's navy, whithersoever bound, to perform quarantine at the *Motherbank, near Portsmouth*, at a place marked out with yellow buoy.

With clean Bills of Health.
 All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek* :—
 London, Rochester, Faversham, or any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.
 All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Witcham Wood, between Hull and Grimsby* :—

Leigh	Widnesch	St. Ives	Lisiansly
Maldoe	Boston	Padstow	Femina
Haverich	Grimsby	Bilford	Milford
Ipswich	Hull	Exmouth	Cardigan
Woodbridge	Bridlington	Hilcombe	Aberystwith
Aldbrough	Scarborough	Or any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.	
Southwell	Whitby		
Yarmouth	Stockton		
Blackney and Clay	Sunderland		
Walls	Newcastle		
Lynn	Berwick		

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Barnbor' Pool, near Liverpool, or Milford Haven* :—
 Carlisle
 Whitehaven
 Lancaster
 Preston
 And any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at the *Motherbank, near Portsmouth* :—
 Buxleich
 Deal
 Dover
 Rye
 Newhaven
 Shoreham
 And any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *St. Just's Pool, within the mouth of the harbour of Falmouth* :—
 Fowey
 Weymouth
 Lynne
 Exeter
 Dartmouth
 Plymouth
 Looe
 And any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *King Road and Portshute Pill* :—
 Bridgewater
 Minehead
 Bristol
 Gloucester
 And any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Milford Haven* :—
 St. Ives
 Padstow
 Bilford
 Exmouth
 Hilcombe
 Or any creeks or places belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Fowey, near Plymouth* :—
 Jersey
 Guernsey
 Or either of them, or any part of either of them.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Fowey, near Plymouth* :—
 The eastern coast of Scotland, comprehending the ports of
 Leith
 Berwick
 Alloa
 Dunbar
 Kirkcaldy
 Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Holy Loch, in the Firth of Clyde* :—
 The western coast of Scotland, comprehending the ports of
 Glasgow
 Greenock
 Campobell Town
 Oban
 Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Strathclyde Bay* :—
 The northern ports of Scotland, comprehending the ports of
 Inverness
 Orkney
 Caithness
 Moray
 Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Holy Loch, in the Firth of Clyde* :—
 The south-west ports of Scotland, comprehending the ports of
 Dundee and Kirkcaldy, or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any of the above ports.
 Bound in any port of Ireland, but not in Mission Head and Valentia, to perform quarantine at the *Bay of Bantry*.
 Bound between Tynard and Rathlin, to perform quarantine at *Lough Larne and the Bay of Carrigrohilly, near Kilconnor Point, opposite to the town of Carrigrohilly*.
 Bound to Rathlin and Tory Island, to perform quarantine at *the Harbour of Killybegs*.
 Bound to Tory Island and Blackrock Bay, to perform quarantine at the *Harbour of Killybegs*.
 Bound to Loop Head and Nieveen Head, to perform quarantine at *Scattery Bay, in the river of Limerick*.
 Bound in any place on the coast of the United Kingdom, or within any of the ports or limits herein-before mentioned or specified, to perform quarantine at such places herein-before specified, or to perform quarantine, as shall be ordered in the port or ports which such vessels respectively shall be so bound.

Provisionary Questions.
 1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of the commander or master?
 2. Are you the commander or master? Where does she belong?
 3. From whence do you come?
 4. To what place are you bound?

1. At what ports have you called on your passage?
 2. What time were you at each port?
 3. Did the place or any part of it appear to be infected with the disease?
 4. If so, what measures were taken?
 5. How many persons were on board?
 6. How many of them were sick?
 7. How many died?
 8. How many recovered?
 9. How many were discharged?
 10. How many were buried?
 11. How many were taken on board?
 12. How many were taken on board?
 13. How many were taken on board?
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[For Information referred to the QUASSIA (C) tree tree (Quassia) The wood is of s

To Three Rivers, or above Fort Neuil, 4l. currency. For vessels not exceeding 200 tons - If above 200 tons and not exceeding 250 tons - If above 250 tons - St. 10s.

From Three Rivers, and above Fort Neuil, 4l. currency. - 4l. 10s.

To Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 11l. currency. For vessels not exceeding 200 tons. - From Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 7l. 10s. currency. - 10l. 10s.

If above 200 tons and not exceeding 250 tons - If above 250 tons - 10l.

Pilots are at liberty to leave vessels 48 hours after they arrive at the place of their destination. Quebec Almanac, for 1833.

EXPORTS TO BRITISH AMERICA.

Quantity and Declared Value of the different Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufacture exported to the North American Colonies in 1831. (Parl. Paper, No. 550, Sess. 1833.)

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Apparel, slops, &c.		163,752	Saddlery and harness		5,370
Arms and ammunition		16,941	Linens manufactures	3,309,185	117,333
Bacon and hams	cwt.	145	Thread, tapes, &c.		5,118
Beef and pork	barrels	8,534	Machinery and mill work		4,320
Beer and ale	tone	274	Paints, pigments, &c.		12,097
Books, printed	cwt.	448	Wool, raw		7,991
Brass and copper manufactures		1,759	Wool, manufactory	1,559,964	2,642
Butter and cheese		3,973	Silk manufactures		9,013
Coal, culm, and cinders	tons	31,134	Sawp and canlins		1,267,663
Cordage	cwt.	46,116	Stationery of all sorts		3,263
Cotton manufactures	yards	15,616,106	Sugar, refined	cwt.	16,513
Hosiery, lace, &c.		10,376	Tin, unwrought		30
Cotton wool and yarn	lbs.	307,597	Do. and pewter wares		19,811
Earthenware	pieces	2,333,451	Wool, sheep's and lambs'	lbs.	11,337
Fish	barrels	62	Woolen and worsted yarn		5,543
Glass	cwt.	17,853	Do. manufactures; viz. entered by the piece	pieces	89,203
at value		1,360	do. by the yard	yards	600,124
Hardware and cutlery		29,492	Hosiery and small wares		19,811
Hats, beaver and felt	dozen	7,491	All other articles		15,791
Iron & steel, wrought & unwrought	tons	18,000			
Lead and shot		320			
Leather, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	429,296			
			Total declared value	L.	2,932,371

Immigrants.—The number of immigrants arrived at Quebec, in 1829, was 15,945; in 1830, 32,000; in 1831, 50,354; in 1832, 51,746; [in 1833, 22,002; in 1834, 30,917; in 1835, 30,017; in 1836, 27,513; in 1837, 21,835; in 1838, 9,950; and in 1839, 7,513.—*Am. Ed.*]

MONTREAL, the second town of Canada, is situated on the south side of an island of the same name, in the St. Lawrence, about 180 miles above Quebec, in lat. 45° 31' N., lon. 73° 35' W. Population 57,800. The harbour is not large, but it is safe and commodious; the facilities for navigation afforded by the noble river on which it is situated being such, that vessels of 600 tons burden may ascend thus far without difficulty. The North American fur trade principally centres in Montreal; which also enjoys the principal share of the commerce between Canada and the United States. It is increasing faster than Quebec, or than any city in British America. Imports and exports included in those of Quebec.

QUEBEC.—A comparative Statement, for the Seven Years ending with 1835, of the Tonnage and Seamen employed in the Export Trade of the Province of Canada, distinguishing the Proportions thereof cleared in each Year for the United Kingdom from those of other Ports; the Tonnage cleared for the United Kingdom with Wood and other Goods separately; together with the Value of the Exports under each Head.—(Customs' Returns.)

Years.	Cleared for the United Kingdom.						Cleared for other Ports.						Total cleared.		
	Laden with Wood.			Laden with other Goods.			Laden with Wood, Fish, Flour, Provisions, &c.								
	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1829	745	220,068	3,611	54	15,902	678	308	20,624	1,200	1,005	395,992	11,448			
1830	719	210,324	3,135	59	24,287	625	361	22,870	1,266	4,031	357,311	11,677			
1831	715	213,325	3,255	108	41,768	9,070	922	21,489	1,246	1,103	376,592	12,571			
1832	805	231,505	10,261	199	25,610	1,321	163	19,465	1,165	1,077	380,518	12,737			
1833	812	210,620	10,339	101	34,323	1,219	844	22,375	1,290	1,157	375,410	12,910			
1834	970	236,613	12,377	69	17,942	909	350	24,376	1,257	1,259	385,441	14,820			
1835	967	301,571	12,973	56	15,015	738	243	20,630	1,545	1,266	341,216	15,598			

Years.	Cargo laden for the United Kingdom.				Cargo laden for other Ports.				Total Exports.	
	Tons of Wood.		Value Sterling.		Tons of other Goods.		Value Sterling.		Tons.	
	Tons.	Value Sterling.	Tons.	Value Sterling.	Tons.	Value Sterling.	Tons.	Value Sterling.	Tons.	Value Sterling.
1830	348,436	648,365	21,058	814,403	67,850	193,578	402,141	955,708		
1831	332,657	448,823	28,453	821,873	35,277	193,600	417,239	1,164,76		
1832	317,764	461,674	66,135	786,114	34,025	160,315	453,925	1,411,82		
1833	372,850	465,966	40,448	415,998	30,819	145,969	44,247	1,022,56		
1834	380,421	496,455	39,511	477,941	33,512	161,977	45,075	1,095,63		
1834	416,970	676,596	29,167	518,325	36,361	194,549	521,718	1,166,60		
1835	453,410	811,164	23,772	872,202	32,663	163,908	646,214	1,037,64		

Note.—The Returns from Gaspe had only been received to the 5th July last, and from New Carlisle to the 10th of October, 1835.—(Sup)

QUERCITRON BARK, the bark of a species of oak growing in many parts of North America. It is used in dyeing yellow colours.—(See BARK.)

QUILLS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Posen*; It. *Penne da scrivere*; Rus. *Stilniki*; Sp. *Canones para escribir*), the hard and strong feathers of the wings of geese, ostriches, swans, turkeys, crows, &c. used in writing. They are classified according to the order in which they are fixed in the wing; the second and third quills being the best. Crow quills are chiefly used for drawing. The goodness of quills is judged partly by the size of the barrels, but more by the weight; hence the denomination of quills of 14, 15, &c. *solts*, per *mille*, each mille consisting of 1,200 quills. The duty on goose quills produced

in 1833, 4,002, the number of 33,688,000. Those from Rigas city paid, was 17 16 15 14 Hamburg quill

RAGS (Du. *Lampen*; It. *St.*) of (generally de estimation, rags especially in the mode in which statements apply. *Woolen Rags* continent of Europe in the curv are unravelled favourable to the wool is introduced in this process pulp for paper; them out into so Hamburg and the The total average 7l. per ton, duty 13s. to 15s. for description.

Linen Rags Ancona, Messina, Spain, and Portugal; worth, at Exclusive of the very recently, e some years been into the London time of the long preservative amount.—(See PAPER.)

The imported almost exclusive difference in quantity of the process has rendered for that purpose, of colour.

There is a general, those from the northern ports, whitened by ex does not much are chiefly collected in America.

Freights are, at 10s. 4d. Ancona selected and prices per cwt

in 1833, 4,202l. 11s.; which, as the duty is at the rate of 2s. 6d. the 1,000, shows that the number of quills entered for home consumption that year must have amounted to 33,868,000. Quills are principally imported from the Netherlands and Germany; but those from Riga are the finest. The price of Riga quills in London, in February, 1834, duty paid, was as under:—

Quills, goose, 17 loth per mille	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Quills, goose, 13 loth per mille	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
16	2 15	0 to 3 0 0	12	0 13	0 to 0 14 9
15	1 12	0 to 1 15 0	11	0 9	0 to 0 10 0
14	1 3	0 to 1 4 0	10	0 6	0 to 0 12 0
			Pinions	0 5	0 to 0 6 0

Hamburgh quills are about 40 per cent. lower.

R.

RAGS (Du. *Lampen, Vodden*; Fr. *Chiffes, Chiffons, Drapeteux, Drilles*; Ger. *Lampen*; It. *Siracci, Strazze*; Rus. *Treppe*; Sp. *Tropos, Harapos*), shreds or fragments of (generally decayed) linen, woollen, or cotton cloth. Though commonly held in little estimation, rags are of great importance in the arts, being used for various purposes, but especially in the manufacture of paper, most of which is entirely prepared from them. As the mode in which British rags are collected must be well known to every one, the following statements apply only to the trade in foreign rags.

Woollen Rags.—Woollen and linen rags are imported in considerable quantities from the continent of Europe, and from Sicily. The woollen rags are chiefly used for manure, especially in the culture of hops; but rags of loose texture, and not too much worn or decayed, are unravelled and mixed up with fresh wool in the making of yarn; a practice more favourable to the cheapness than to the strength and durability of the fabrics into which this old wool is introduced. Woollen rags are also used for making flocks or stuffing for beds, &c.: this process is performed chiefly by the aid of the same kind of engines that prepare pulp for paper; these wash the rags thoroughly, at the same time that they grind and tear them out into separate threads and fibres. The chief importation of woollen rags is from Hamburgh and Bremen; and there are some got from Rostock, but the quantity is trifling. The total average importation varies from 300 to 500 tons, and the price ranges from 6l. to 7l. per ton, duty (7s. 6d.) and freight paid on such as are used for manure; and from 13l. to 15l. for coloured woollens of loose texture, and 18l. to 20l. for white of the same description.

Linen Rags are principally imported from Rostock, Bremen, Hamburgh, Leghorn, Ancona, Messina, Palermo, and Trieste. Their export from Holland, Belgium, France, Spain, and Portugal, is strictly prohibited. The imports usually amount to about 10,000 tons; worth, at an average, from 21l. to 22l. per ton, duty (5s.) and freight included. Exclusive of the very large quantity collected at home, all the rags imported were, until very recently, employed in the manufacture of paper; but the Americans, who have for some years been large importers from the Mediterranean and Hamburgh, have lately come into the London market, and purchased several cargoes: a circumstance sufficiently indicative of the languid state of the paper manufacture in this country, occasioned by the oppressive amount of the duties with which it is burdened, and of the duty on advertisements. —(See PAPER.)

The imported rags are coarser and inferior in appearance to the English; but, being almost exclusively linen, they are stronger, and bear a price disproportioned to the apparent difference in quality: this disproportion has been materially augmented since the introduction of the process of boiling the rags in ley, and afterwards bleaching them with chlorine, has rendered foreign rags fit for making fine paper, and, indeed, in some respects preferable for that purpose, by their affording greater strength of texture combined with equal whiteness of colour.

There is considerable variety in the appearance of rags from different ports; but, in general, those from the north of Europe are darker and stronger than those from the Mediterranean ports. The latter are chiefly the remains of outer garments, and have become whitened by exposure to the sun and air; but since the improvements in bleaching, this does not much enhance their value in the British market. The rags shipped from Trieste are chiefly collected in Hungary. It is only within these few years that we have brought rags from this port, which now furnishes us with considerable supplies. Most part of the rags collected in the Tuscan states, to the extent of 10,000 or 12,000 bags a year, goes to America.

Freights are, at an average, about—Hamburgh and Bremen, linen 20s. per ton, woollen, 25s.; Rostock, 40s.; Ancona and Leghorn, 38s. to 40s.; Trieste and Sicily, 45s. to 46s. Linen rags are almost all selected and assorted previously to their shipment from the foreign port. Their distinguishing marks and prices per cwt. in the London market, January, 1832, were as follow: viz.

and (From Montreal) and above Three M. one vint, M. one one rancy. 101. 12s. hours after they arrive at Quebec, ditto, for 1833.

ce and Manufacture Soap, 1833.)

Quantity.	Value.
3,009,105	117,332
6,114	6,114
4,200	4,200
12,967	12,967
7,891	7,891
5,042	5,042
9,013	9,013
36,130	36,130
1,569,864	1,569,864
1,267,803	1,267,803
16,519	16,519
30	30
17	17
22,379	22,379
11,537	11,537
5,553	5,553
717	717
89,200	89,200
271,454	271,454
500,134	500,134
65,28	65,28
19,81	19,81
127,71	127,71
9,293,527	9,293,527

in 1830, 38,000; in 1830, 27,513; in 1837,

d of the same year, Population 27,000 tion afforded by the ascend thus for which also enjoys the increasing faster than case of Quebec.

of the Tonnage and along the Proportions Ports; the Tonnage ther with the Value

Total cleared.		
No. of ships.	Tons.	Me.
1,005	943,992	11,48
4,051	27,721	11,87
1,103	276,583	18,51
1,077	260,578	12,77
1,157	281,418	12,99
1,730	382,441	14,81
1,256	341,116	14,89
Total Exports.		
Tons.	Value Sterling.	£.
402,147	98,758	98,758
417,239	1,354,76	1,354,76
453,915	1,411,83	1,411,83
444,247	1,027,28	1,027,28
435,074	1,059,55	1,059,55
531,718	1,168,60	1,168,60
540,254	1,207,01	1,207,01

th of October, 1838.—Sup)

any parts of North

da scribere; Rus the wings of geese, ed according to the hills being the best, duced partly by the uills of 14, 15, &c so quills produced,

	Rostock.			Hamburg.			Breven.			Triebs.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
S P F F	1	15	0	1	13	6	1	13	0	1	3	0
S P F F	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	7	6	1	5	0
F F	1	0	0	1	3	6	1	3	0	1	3	0
F X or F M	0	17	6	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	10	0
F B	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	15	0

RAIL-ROAD, TRAM or WAGON ROAD, a species of road having tracks or ways formed of iron, stone, or other solid material, on which the wheels of the carriages passing along it run. The object in constructing such roads is, by diminishing the friction, to make a less amount of power adequate either to impel a carriage with a greater velocity, or to urge forward a greater load.

Construction of Railroads.—The friction on a perfectly level rail-road, properly constructed, is estimated to amount to from $\frac{1}{10}$ th to $\frac{1}{4}$ th only of the friction on an ordinary level road; so that supposing the same force to be applied in both cases, it would move a weight from 10 to 7 times as great on the former as on the latter. But if there be a very moderate ascent, such as 1 foot in 50, which in an ordinary road would hardly be perceived, a great increase of power on the rail-road is required to overcome the resistance that is thus occasioned. The reason is, that the ordinary load on a level rail-road is about seven times as great as on a common turnpike road; so that when the force of gravity is brought into operation by an ascending plane, its opposing power, being proportioned to the load, is 7 times as great as on a common road. Hence the vast importance of having rail-roads either level, or as nearly so as possible.

It is also of great importance that rail-roads should be straight, or, at least, free from any abrupt curves. Carriages being kept on the road by *flanges* on the wheels, it is obvious, that where the curves are quick, the friction on the sides of the rails, and consequent retardation, must be very great. In the Manchester and Liverpool rail-road, the curves form segments of a circle which, if extended, would embrace a circumference of 15 miles.

Iron rail-roads, the kind now generally used, are of 2 descriptions. The *flat rail*, or *tram road*, consists of cast-iron plates about 3 feet long, 4 inches broad, and $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch or 1 inch thick, with a flaunch, or turned up edge, on the inside, to guide the wheels of the carriage. The plates rest at each end on stone *sleepers* of 3 or 4 cwt. sunk into the earth, and they are joined to each other so as to form a continuous horizontal pathway. They are, of course, double; and the distance between the opposite rails is from 3 to 44 feet, according to the breadth of the carriage or wagon to be employed. The *edge rail*, which is found to be superior to the tram rail, is made either of wrought or cast iron; if the latter be used, the rails are about 3 feet long, 3 or 4 inches broad, and from 1 to 2 inches thick, being joined at the ends by cast metal sockets attached to the sleepers. The upper edge of the rail is generally made with a convex surface, to which the wheel of the carriage is attached by a groove made somewhat wider. When wrought iron is used, which is in many respects preferable, the bars are made of a smaller size, of a wedge shape, and from 12 to 18 feet long; but they are supported by sleepers, at the distance of every 3 feet. In the Liverpool rail-road the bars are 15 feet long, and weigh 35 lbs. per lineal yard. The wagons in common use run upon 4 wheels of from 2 to 3 feet in diameter. Rail-roads are either made double; 1 for going and 1 for returning; or they are made with *sidings*, where the carriages may pass each other.—(See the able and original *Essays on Rail-roads*, by Charles Maclaren, Esq., in the *Scotsman* for 1824, Nos. 511, 512. and 514.; see also Mr. Booth's Pamphlet on the Liverpool and Manchester Rail-road.)

Speed of Carriages on Rail-roads, &c.—The effect of rail-roads in diminishing friction is familiar to every one; and they have long been used in various places of this and other countries, particularly in the vicinity of mines, for facilitating the transport of heavy loads. But it is only since the application of locomotive engines as a moving power, that they have begun to attract the public attention, and to be regarded as of the highest national importance. These engines were first brought into use on the Darlington and Stockton rail-road, opened on the 27th of December, 1825. But the rail-road between Liverpool and Manchester is by far the greatest undertaking of this sort that has hitherto been completed. This splendid work, which is executed in the most approved manner, cost between 800,000l. and 900,000l.; and, as far as speed is concerned, has completely verified, and, indeed, far surpassed, the most sanguine anticipations. The road has the advantage of being nearly level; for, with the exception of a short space at Rainhill, where it is inclined at the rate of 1 foot in 96, there is no greater inclination than in the ratio of 1 foot in 880. The length of the rail-road is 31 miles; and it is usual to perform this journey in handsome carriages attached to the locomotive engines, in an hour and a half, and sometimes less! So wonderful a result has gone far to strike space and time out of the calculations of the traveller: it has brought, in so far, at least, as respects the facility of passing from the one to the other, Liverpool as near to Manchester as the western part of London is to the eastern part!

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Comparati results of the whether there establish one level rail-road ally; but betw between any formation of it and them i taken place be engines, whic every considu hitherto atten tion of simila their intimate entire cotton passengers and the one to the empire. - If w to attempt the the fact that affords but a now ashot.

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Steam Ca collected a g engines or st very sanguin that "what coaches by horses, at a "that steem the cost of th good deal m ture on whic We may, ho

The extraordinary speed of carriages on rail-roads depends on the fact, that the friction, which on a perfectly level rail-road is the only resistance to be overcome, is the same for all velocities; so that, abstracting from the resistance of the air, which is so trifling as not to require to be taken into account, we have merely, in order to double or treble the velocity, to double or treble the power. But in vessels at sea, or in canals, which have to make their way through a comparatively dense medium, the resistance to be overcome increases as the square of the velocity; so that, to double the speed, the power must be multiplied by 4, and to treble it, it must be multiplied by 9, and so on.

Comparative Advantages of Railroads and Canals.—Astonishing, however, as are the results of the performances on the Manchester and Liverpool rail-road, we doubt much whether there be many more situations in the kingdom where it would be prudent to establish one. That carriages with passengers may be safely impelled along a perfectly level rail-road at a speed of 20 or 30 miles an hour, is a fact that is now proved experimentally; but before deciding as to the expediency of opening such a mode of communication between any two places, it is necessary to look carefully into the expense attending the formation of a rail-road with a suitable establishment of carriages, at the expense of keeping it and them in repair, and at the probable returns. The outlay, judging from what has taken place between Liverpool and Manchester, is quite enormous; the wear and tear of the engines, which is great under all circumstances, is increased in an extraordinary degree with every considerable increase of speed. We do not, therefore, consider the success that has hitherto attended the Liverpool and Manchester rail-road as at all warranting the construction of similar roads in most other places. The great size of these two towns, and still more their intimate connection,—Liverpool being, in fact, the port of Manchester and of the entire cotton district—occasions a very great intercourse between them: the number of passengers and the quantity of goods that are always in the course of being conveyed from the one to the other, is far greater than between any two equally distant places in the empire. If a rail-road had not succeeded in such a situation, it would have been madness to attempt the formation of one, at least as a mercantile speculation, anywhere else: and the fact that the dividend upon this very road has never hitherto exceeded 8½ per cent., affords but a slender presumption in favour of the success of several of the rail-road projects now afoot.

No general estimate can be formed of the comparative cost of canals and rail-roads; as it must, in every given instance, depend on special circumstances. It is, however, certain, that the cost of rail-roads, and particularly of keeping up the locomotive engines, is far greater than it was supposed it would be a short time since. It is reasonable, indeed, inasmuch as these engines are only in their infancy, to suppose that they will be gradually improved, and that ultimately their expense will be materially reduced; but at present it is a heavy drawback from the other advantages of rail-roads.

In as far as respects the conveyance of heavy goods, we believe that, even between Manchester and Liverpool, canals are generally preferred. It is not very material whether a ton of lime, or coal, or of manure, be moved with a velocity of 3 to 10 miles an hour; at least, the advantage of superior speed would, in such a case, be effectually overbalanced by a small additional charge.

The wonderful performances of the engines between Liverpool and Manchester struck, in the first instance, every one with astonishment, and led to the most extravagant speculations. It was supposed that the whole country would be forthwith intersected by rail-roads; that locomotive engines would be as common as stage coaches; and that the only way in which the canal proprietors could escape ruin, would be by converting canals into rail-roads! Soberer and sounder views are now entertained. The price of canal stock has recovered from the depression which it suffered in 1826. And it seems to be admitted by every one not expecting to profit by the prosecution of some scheme, that rail-roads between distant places, at least where a canal has already been constructed, must depend for returns chiefly on the conveyance of passengers and light goods; and that it would not be prudent to undertake their construction, except between places that have a very extensive intercourse together.

Steam Carriages on Common Roads.—A late committee of the House of Commons collected a good deal of evidence as to the probability of advantageously using locomotive engines or steam carriages on common roads. Most of the witnesses seem to have been very sanguine in their expectations. Mr. Farey, a very eminent practical engineer, declares that "what has been done proves to his satisfaction the practicability of impelling stage coaches by steam on good common roads, in tolerably level parts of the country, without horses, at a speed of 8 or 10 miles an hour." Mr. Farey further states, that he believes "that steam coaches will, very soon after their first establishment, be run for one third of the cost of the present stage coaches." We suspect that the latter part of this statement is a good deal more problematical than the first; but since there is nothing better than conjecture on which to found an opinion, it would be useless to indulge in further speculations. We may, however, remark, that though 3 years have elapsed since this evidence was given,

Trials.

a.	d.	£	s.	d.
9	0	10	1	13
5	0	1	8	0
2	0	1	8	0
16	0	0	10	0
15	0	0	18	0

there does not appear to be any material progress made towards realizing the anticipations of the witnesses.

The subjoined list of the principal existing and projected rail-roads, showing the number and amount of the shares in each, the sum paid up, the selling price of the shares, &c. is taken from the *Share List*, for the 15th of October, 1833, published by Mr. Edmunds, Broker, No. 9 Exchange Alley, Cornhill.

No. of Shares.	Railways.	Shares.	Amount paid.	Sale price.	Dividends.	Time of Payment.
		£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
5,100	Liverpool and Manchester	100	100 0 0	210 0 0		Jan. July.
1,600	Cromford and High Peak	100	100 0 0	20 0 0	8 8 0	
300	Canterbury	50	50 0 0	35 0 0		
350	Cheltenham	100	- - -	78 0 0		
1,000	Croydon	65	- - -	- - -	- - -	July.
1,000	Surrey	60	- - -	- - -	- - -	July.
2,702	Severn and Wye	50	- - -	16 0 0	0 16 0	Mar. Sept.
2,500	Forest of Dean	50	50 0 0	24 0 0	1 0 0	June, Dec.
1,000	Stockton and Darlington	100	100 0 0	205 0 0	8 0 0	May, Nov.
653	Monmouth	50	- - -	- - -	- - -	Ap. 1. Oct. 1.
2,000	Clarence (Durham)	100	100 0 0	115 0 0	- - -	
1,500	Leicester and Swannington	50	50 0 0	37 0 0	- - -	
	Newcastle-upon-Tyne & Carlisle	100	100 0 0	- - -	- - -	
660	Bolton and Leigh	100	- - -	107 0 0	- - -	
	Grand Junction	-	10 0 0	19 0 0	- - -	
	Greenwich	30	1 0 0	1 3 6	- - -	
25,000	London and Birmingham	100	3 0 0	8 15 0	- - -	
	Bolton, Bury, &c.	100	15 0 0	- - -	- - -	

(The railway from London to Birmingham, and from the latter to Manchester, which had only been commenced at the date of the publication of our last Supplement, is now completed. This is at once the longest and by far the most important railway in the empire. It has cost an immense sum; but the magnitude of the places which it connects, and the vast intercourse carried on between them, will no doubt render it one of the principal thoroughfares in the kingdom. Hence, notwithstanding the great outlay upon it, shares in both divisions of the road, but especially in that between London and Birmingham, are eagerly sought after, and bring a very high premium. The work is admirably executed, and does credit, not to the proprietors only, but to the nation.

Projects are now on foot for extending the London, Birmingham, and Manchester line as far as Glasgow. It has, in fact, been already carried to Preston; and, though the difficulties to be encountered in the more northerly part of the road are of a very formidable description, it seems most probable that it will be completed in its whole extent. Should this be accomplished, the journey from London to Glasgow will be performed in eighteen or twenty hours!

Besides this great line, railways have been projected, and are now (January 1840) nearly completed, between London and Bristol; London and Southampton; Carlisle and Newcastle, &c. Numbers have also been, or are in the course of being, made in other parts of the country. In 1834, 1835, and 1836, a vast number of acts for railways were passed, but it is doubtful whether several of them will ever be carried into effect. It would be premature to speculate as to the chances of their success; but the probability seems to be that, like canals, some of them will be exceedingly profitable; while others, and probably the greater number, will yield a very inadequate return. No doubt it may be fairly anticipated that great improvements will be made in the construction of railways, and especially of locomotive engines; and in consequence, even comparatively unfavourable lines may come, in the end, to yield large profits. But taking the chances as they now stand, and abstracting from future contingencies, railways promise to be, at the outset, quite as advantageous for the public as for their proprietors.

The most eligible lines for railways in Ireland have been surveyed, and an able report upon the subject drawn up by commissioners appointed by government. There seems, however, but little probability that any of these lines will be executed by private associations; and the proposal for executing them at the public expense, is of a very questionable description. It may perhaps be expedient, under the peculiar circumstances of Ireland, for government to co-operate in the formation of a few great lines of railway, somewhat on the plan that it has followed as respects the formation of roads in the Highlands; that is, by assisting individuals and companies; but we doubt whether government can go further without opening a door to all sorts of abuse.

Railway Legislation.—Our legislation as to railways, and most other descriptions of public works, appears to be as defective as can well be imagined. It is, it must be admitted, no easy matter to decide how far interference should be carried in such cases, and where it should stop. But still it seems sufficiently obvious, that in this case the public interests have been too little protected; or rather, that they have been sacrificed in a way not very creditable to parliament. At present the practice is for a railway act to authorize the company in whose favour it is granted to charge certain specified rates of toll on the passengers and goods to be conveyed by their road, not for 15, 20, or even 50 years, but in *all time* to

come! Now of the public railway line to this line will the latter a vi calculated to ing. But the by most lines past; and it of roads and the fair presu tive. But, if excluded from tions will be the expense of remedy a grie two places; a this were not threatened, re level. Suppo come to an instrumentalit was the second traffic to be ca been merely re in fact, for doi pounds; wh act authorizin sion of the toll.

We are cle or canal, to h ought ever to granted under improvements and it would of this sort a probability, of because it is reasonable pro than this at the little indeed, and, while a the history of vice to the pu respecting the has been sub may arise ou arrangements. But if parlia viduals or ass its error, to interests it h taken away b property, with right; and sh tion should a Though w pvements o ing other par of railways, conveyed by modes of con sition of tax be obliged to

* By Mr. Mc containing a l cases of this

come! Now, as it appears to us, this is a singularly injudicious arrangement on the part of the public. There is, between any two or more places that may be named, a certain railway line that is preferable to any other that can be pointed out. The probability is that this line will be the first to be selected; and the act that gives it up to a company confers on the latter a virtual and substantial monopoly. The rates of charge imposed by the act are calculated to remunerate the projectors, supposing every thing to remain on the present footing. But the probability is that manufactures and population, in the places communicating by most lines of railway, will continue to increase in time to come, as they have done in time past; and it is all but certain that great improvements will be effected in the construction of roads and engines. Whatever, therefore, may be the chances of success at the outset, the fair presumption is, that most great lines of road will in the end be exceedingly productive. But, if we continue to abide by the present system, the public will be effectually excluded from all participation in these prospective advantages; and a few private associations will be able to make enormous profits, by monopolising improvements, and keeping up the expense of transit at an exorbitantly high level. It is idle to trust to competition to remedy a grievance of this sort. There may only be one practicable line of railway between two places; and if so, no other can, of course, come into competition with it. But though this were not the case, a company in possession of the best line might, if an opposition were threatened, reduce its rates till the opposition was defeated, and then raise them to the old level. Supposing, however, that a second road is made, its managers would most likely come to an understanding with the first, so that the tolls, instead of being reduced by the instrumentality of the new road, may be raised; and, were it otherwise, the question is, was the second road really necessary? Could not the first road have sufficed for the whole traffic to be carried on by both lines? If this be the case, it is clear the second road has been merely resorted to as a device for reducing the tolls charged on the first; as a means, in fact, for doing that, by an outlay of some hundreds of thousands, or it may be millions, of pounds, which might have been quite as effectually done by limiting the duration of the act authorising the first road, or by inserting a clause in it providing for the periodical revision of the tolls.

We are clear, indeed, that no act, authorising a private association to construct a railway or canal, to lay down gas pipes, to convey water into a town, or for any such purpose, ought ever to be passed without reserving to parliament power periodically to revise the tolls granted under it. Such revision would secure to the public a participation in future improvements, not in the contemplation of the parties when the project was entered upon; and it would do this without in any degree clogging the spirit of enterprise. Undertakings of this sort are not engaged in because there is a vague expectation, or even a considerable probability, of their yielding 20 or 30 per cent. of profit some 30 or 40 years hence; but because it is believed that they will immediately, or in the course of a few years, yield a reasonable profit; that is, a return of 8, 10, or 12 per cent. The chances of realising more than this at the distance of 20 or 25 years are rarely taken into account, and are worth very little indeed. This, however, is all that would be taken away by the revision in question; and, while a reservation of this sort would not stand in the way of any legitimate enterprise, the history of some of our existing companies shows that it may come to be of essential service to the public. We are therefore glad to have to state that, though late, the question respecting the propriety of reserving power to make periodical revisions of tolls on railways has been submitted to the consideration of parliament.* Some of the inconveniences that may arise out of the existing system as to railways, have already been experienced in the arrangements as to the conveyance of mails, and parliament has been obliged to interfere. But if parliament be short-sighted enough to concede certain rights and privileges to individuals or associations, without qualification or reservation, it has no right, on discovering its error, to endeavour to repair it by enacting new regulations to the detriment of the interests it has created. Its act has established rights in certain parties, which cannot be taken away by any new act, so long, at least, as any respect is entertained for the law of property, without granting the parties full compensation. To this, they have an indisputable right; and should any disagreement take place, the question as to the amount of compensation should always be left to the decision of a jury.

Though we should be the last to propose throwing any obstacles in the way of new improvements or contrivances, still we do not see any good reason for promoting them by treating other parties unfairly. This, however, has been done to an enormous extent in the case of railways. We do not presume to say whether it is expedient that passengers and goods conveyed by railway should be subjected to any tax. But if one of the most desirable modes of conveyance be exempted from taxation, on what pretence do we justify the imposition of taxes on other modes? If passengers by mail or post coaches impelled by horses be obliged to pay a certain duty, why are passengers by mail or post coaches impelled by

* By Mr. Morrison, who brought it before the House of Commons in the course of 1836, in a speech containing a fulsome exposition of the principles which justify the interference of the legislature in cases of this sort.

ing the anticipations

the number and amount
from the *Share List*,
George Alley, Cornhill.

Dividends.	Time of Payment.
1840	Jan. July.
1841	July.
1842	July.
1843	Mar. Sept.
1844	June, Dec.
1845	May, Nov.
1846	Apr. 1. Oct. 1.

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with a cwt. on the cheapest sorts, and 10s. or 12s. on the dearest, we are well assured that they would be very largely consumed by the middle classes; and that they would not infrequently be used even by the lower. Nothing but the magnitude of the duties prevent them from becoming of very considerable importance as an article of food; and it is really quite monstrous, that the public should be debarred from the use of a desirable article, on the stale and stupid pretence of its being necessary, in order to keep up the revenue; that it should be loaded with an oppressive duty. We admit the importance of keeping up the revenue; but so far from exorbitant duties having such an effect, they contribute more than any thing else to its reduction. They either limit the consumption of the articles on which they are laid to the very richest classes, or they cause them to be clandestinely supplied; reducing the revenue as well as the consumption far below the level to which it would attain were the duties moderate. But it is needless to reason speculatively on such a point. Have we not seen the revenue derived from spirits increased, by reducing the duty from 3s. 6d. a gallon to 2s. 6d. 1 and the revenue derived from coffee increased, by reducing the duty from 1s. 7d. per lb. to 6d. 1 And, as neither of these would be more grossly overtaxed than raisins, have we not every reason to expect that a like effect would be produced by an adequate reduction of the duties by which they are burdened?

Exclusive of raisins, a considerable quantity of undried grapes is annually imported from Spain and Portugal, in jars, packed in sawdust. The duty on these grapes, which is 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, produced, in 1837, 1,720*l*.

Raisins, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are imported, on forfeiture of the goods, and of 100*l*. by the captain of the ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54. §§ 3, 32.)

No abatement of duty is made on account of any damage received by raisins.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. 13.)

(The duty on *all* raisins, without distinction of quality, brought from a foreign country, has been reduced to 15s. a cwt.; and to half that sum on those brought from a British possession.—(1 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89. § 15.) This measure will, no doubt, materially increase the consumption of raisins. The tax ought, however, to have varied with the quality. A duty of 15s. a cwt. is not too much on Malaga muscades; but, to be in proportion, the duty on Smyrna blacks should not exceed 5s. a cwt. For the quantities imported, exported, and cleared for consumption in 1836 and 1837, see *ante*, p. 33.—*Sup.*)

(Nearly a million of dollars worth of raisins was last year imported into the United States; chiefly from Malaga, and the other Mediterranean ports.—*Am. Ed.*)

RANGOON, a commercial port and town of the Burmese dominions, situated about 26 miles from the sea, on the left bank of the eastern branch of the river Irawaddy, in lat. 16° 47' N, lon. 96° 20' E. The town and suburbs extend lengthwise about 1 mile along the bank of the river, being about 3/4 of a mile in depth; but the houses are very unequally scattered over this area. The fort, or rather wooden stockade, which contains the town, properly so called, is a regular square about 14 feet high, composed of heavy beams of teak timber. It appears from a census, taken a short time previously to the commencement of the war in 1824, that the population was 18,000, which, probably, is not far from its present amount.

Rangoon is the chief, and, indeed, almost the only, port of foreign trade in the Burmese dominions, which extend from between the 15th and 16th, up to the 26th and 27th degrees of N. lat., and from the 90th to the 96th degree of E. lon., containing an area of about 184,000 square miles, with a population of about 4,000,000. Its situation is extremely convenient for commercial purposes, being situated so near the sea, and commanding the navigation of the Irawaddy, which extends to Ava, the capital, a distance of nearly 500 miles. Rangoon is accessible to ships of even 1,200 tons burden; the navigation, although somewhat intricate, being safe and practicable with the assistance of the ordinary native pilots.

The town has many advantages for ship building. At neaps the tide rises and falls about 18 feet; and at springs from 25 to 30 feet. The principal teak forests are, at the same time, at a comparatively short distance, and there is a water conveyance for the timber nearly the whole way. Ship-building has, in fact, been carried on at Rangoon since 1786, and in the 38 years which preceded our capture of it, there had been built 111 square-rigged vessels of European construction, the total burden of which amounted to above 35,000 tons. Several of these were of from 800 to 1,000 tons. Under the direction of European masters, the Burmese were found to make dexterous and laborious artisans; in this respect, greatly surpassing the natives of our Indian provinces.

There are 5 considerable markets, where the ordinary necessaries of life, according to Burmese usage, are cheap and abundant: these are rice, excellent fish, and poultry.

Money.—The Burmese currency consists, for small payments, of lead; for larger ones, of gold and silver, but chiefly of the latter. There are no coins. At every payment, the metal must be weighed, and very generally assayed,—a rude and very inconvenient state of things. The weights used in the weighing of money are the same as those used on ordinary occasions; the *kyat* or *taul*, and the *peikha* or *ta*, being by far the most frequent. Silver may be considered as the standard. Gold is generally held to be about 17 times more valuable than silver. The weighing and assaying of the metals, and as currency, gives employment to a class of persons as brokers, money changers, and assayers. Every new assay costs the owner, if the metal be silver, 2*l*. per cent.; 1*l*. per cent. being the established remuneration of the assayer, while 1 per cent. is lost, or supposed to be lost, in the operation. If it be repeated 40 times, it follows that the original amount is wholly absorbed—a fact which shows the enormous waste of metal arising out of this rude substitute for coin.

Weights.—The weights in use at Rangoon, and throughout the Burman dominions, are as follow:—

1 Small <i>Kwa</i> (red beans) = 1 Large <i>Swa</i> .	2 <i>Mus</i> = 1 <i>Ma</i> .
1 <i>Large Swa</i> = 1 <i>Bal</i> .	4 <i>Ma</i> 's = 1 <i>Kyat</i> , outgo <i>Tical</i> .
1 <i>Bal</i> = 1 <i>Ma</i> .	100 <i>Kyats</i> = 1 <i>Peikha</i> , outgo <i>Vin</i> , = 355 <i>lbs.</i> avoird.

Measures of capacity are as follow:—

1 <i>Loupa</i> = 1 <i>Lau</i> .	4 <i>Sala</i> = 1 <i>Pyt</i> .	2 <i>Sarots</i> = 1 <i>Sat</i> .
1 <i>Lau</i> = 1 <i>Sala</i> .	2 <i>Pys</i> = 1 <i>Sarot</i> .	4 <i>Sats</i> = 1 <i>Tun</i> .

The last measure is what is usually called by us "a basket," and ought to weigh 18 *lbs.* of clean rice; of 36*l*. *avoirdupois*: it has commonly been reckoned at 4 cwt. All grains, pulses, certain oils, nutmeg, salt, and lime, are bought and sold by measure; other commodities by weight.

Commercial Regulations.—The following commercial treaty, entered into between the governments of England and the Court of Ava, in 1826, regulates the intercourse between the two countries: Art. 1.—Peace being made, &c. &c.—when merchants with an English certified pass from the ocean

try of the English ruler, and merchants from the kingdom of Burma pass from one country to the other, selling and buying merchandise, the sentinels at the passes and entrances, the established gatekeepers of the country, shall make inquiry as usual, but without demanding any money; and all merchants coming truly for the purpose of trade, with merchandise, shall be suffered to pass without hindrance or molestation. The governments of both countries, also, shall permit ships with cargoes to enter ports and carry on trade, giving them the utmost protection and security. And in regard to duties, there shall none be taken beside the customary duties at the landing places.

Art. 2.—Ships, whose breadth of beam on the inside (opening of the hold) is royal Burman cubits, of 19½ inches each, and all ships of smaller size, whether merchants from the Burman dominions, entering an English port under the Burmese flag, or merchants from the English country, with an English stamped pass, entering a Burmese port under the English flag, shall be subject to no other demands beside the payment of duties, and 10 ticals, 25 per cent. (10 sicca rupees), for a passport on leaving. Nor shall pilotage be demanded, unless the captain voluntarily requires a pilot. However, when ships arrive, information shall be given to the officer stationed at the entrance of the sea. In regard to vessels, whose breadth of beam exceeds 8 royal cubits, they shall remain, according to the 9th article of the treaty of Yandabo, without unshipping their rudders or landing their guns, and be free from trouble and molestation as Burmese vessels in British ports. Besides the royal duties, no more duties shall be given or taken than such as are customary.

Art. 3.—Merchants belonging to one country, who go to the other country and remain there, shall, when they desire to return, go to whatever country and by whatever vessel they may desire, without hindrance. Property owned by merchants they shall be allowed to sell. And property not sold, and household furniture, they shall be allowed to take away, without hindrance, or incurring any expense.

Art. 4.—English and Burmese vessels meeting with contrary winds, or sustaining damage in navigation, rigging, &c., or suffering shipwrecks on the shore, shall, according to the laws of charity existing in both, assistance from the inhabitants of the towns and villages that may be near, the master of the wrecked ship paying to those that assist suitable salvage, according to the circumstances of the case; and whatever property may remain, in case of shipwreck, shall be restored to the owner.

Commerce.—A considerable intercourse is carried on between the Burmese and Chinese dominions by an annual caravan, of which the merchants are all Chinese. The imports from China consist of manufactured articles, the chief export from Burma being cotton wool. The trade with foreign countries seaward is carried on with the ports of Chittagong, Dacca, and Calcutta, in Bengal; Madras and Masulipatan, on the Coromandel coast; the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; Penang, in the Straits of Malacca; and occasionally with the Persian and Arabian Gulfs. The largest trade is with Calcutta, owing to the great consumption of teak timber in the latter, and the facility with which it supplies the demand of the Burmese for Indian and British cotton goods. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1822-23, being those which immediately preceded the war with the British, there entered inwards at Calcutta, from the Burmese dominions, 25 ships, of the burden of 3,401 tons; and in the 3 years ending with 1829-30, 33 ships, of the burden of 8,990 tons. No direct trade has yet been carried on between Burma and any European country. The ships and tonnage which entered inwards at Madras from Burma were, in the 3 years ending with 1822-23, 5 ships, of the burden of 683 tons; and in the 3 years ending with 1829-30, 8 ships, of the burden of 1,170 tons. The articles exported to foreign countries from Rangoon are the following:—Teak wood, terra Japonica, or catechu, stick lac, bees' wax, elephants' teeth, raw cotton, opium, commonly called in India hural, gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, and horses, or rather the small, hardy pony of the country, which is much esteemed, particularly at Madras. By far the most important of these commodities is teak timber; the quantity of this wood annually exported is said to be equal to 7,500 full-sized trees, which, for the most part, consist of what India ship-builders call *akhita*, which are planks hewn out of the log with the ends at an immense waste. The teak forests of Pegu are by far the most abundant in India. The teak is nowhere to be found in the low alluvial lands to which the tide reaches, but abounds in the high lands beyond its influence. It seems to be very generally disseminated throughout the Burmese dominions. In the territory ceded to the British in Martaban, there are some fine forests, the timber of which is cut down for exportation, and where it is believed that saw-mills have very recently been established by some European settlers. The most accessible and extensive forests of teak in the Burmese dominions are in the province of Sarawadi, about 150 miles to the north of Rangoon, with which there is a vast communication. The principal imports into Burma are cotton, piece goods from India and Britain, British woollens, iron, steel, quicksilver, copper, cordage, borax, sulphur, gunpowder, saltpetre, fine-ware, earthen porcelain, English glass ware, opium, tobacco, cocoa and areca nuts, sugar, and spirits. Of these, by far the most important is cotton piece goods. The Burmese have few cotton manufacturers of their own, and appear from very early times to have been furnished with the principal part of their supply from the Coromandel coast. To these were afterwards added the cheaper fabrics of Bengal; and both are now, in a great measure, superseded by British manufactures, the use of which has spread very rapidly since the opening of the trade in 1814. In 1826-27, the exports and imports of the port of Rangoon were estimated each at the rate of 300,000*l.*—(We are indebted for this valuable article to our esteemed friend, John Crawford, Esq., who ascertained the particulars on the spot.)

RAPE, a biennial plant of the turnip kind (*Brassica napus* Lin.), but with a woody fusiform root scarcely fit to be eaten. It is indigenous, flowers in May, and ripens its seed in July. It is cultivated in many parts of England, particularly in Lincoln and Cambridge; partly on account of its seed, which is crushed for oil, and partly for its leaves as food for sheep. The culture of rape for seed has been much objected to by some, on account of its supposed great exhaustion of the land; but Mr. Loudon says that, where the soil and preparation are suitable, the after-culture properly attended to, and the straw and offal, instead of being burnt, as is the common practice, converted to the purpose of feeding and littering cattle, it may, in many instances, be the most proper and advantageous crop that can be employed by the farmer. The produce, when the plant succeeds well, and the season is favourable for securing the seed, amounts to from 40 to 50 bushels an acre. The seed is sold by the last of 10 quarters; and is crushed in mills constructed for that purpose.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

In addition to the rape-seed raised at home, we import considerable quantities, principally from Denmark. In 1831, our imports amounted to 407,375 bushels; of which 290,368 were from Denmark, 57,910 from Germany, 41,061 from France, with smaller quantities from Prussia, the Netherlands, and Italy. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the duties on foreign rape-seed for home consumption amounted to 491,708 bushels a year, producing an annual revenue of 3,105*l.* The price of English rape-seed in December, 1833, varied from 28*l.* to 39*l.* per last; the duty on foreign rape-seed is 10*l.* a last.

Rape-seed, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British

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Rape-Cakes, is the adhering masses of the huks of rape-seed, after the oil has been expressed. They are reduced to powder by a malt mill or other machine; and are used either as a top dressing for crops of different kinds, or are drilled along with turpentine seed. Rape cakes were worth, in December, 1833, from 5s. to 6s. a ton; and rape oil from 12. 15s. to 11. 17s. a cwt. In 1830, we imported about 230,000 cwt. of rape and other oil cake. It is charged with a duty of 2s. a cwt.

RATTANS, or **CANES**, the long slender shoots of a prickly bush (*Calamus rotang* Lin.), one of the most useful plants of the Malay peninsula, and the Eastern islands. They are exported to Bengal, to Europe, and above all to China, where they are consumed in immense quantities. For cane work they should be chosen long, of a bright pale yellow colour, well glazed, and of a small size, not brittle, or subject to break. They are purchased by the bundle, which ought to contain 100 rattans, having their ends bent together, and tied in the middle. In China they are sold by the picul, which contains from 9 to 12 bundles. Such as are black or dark coloured, snap short, or from which the glazing flies off on their being bent, should be rejected. When stowed as dunnage, they are generally allowed to pass free of freight.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com., &c.*) The imports into this country are very considerable. In 1830, the number imported was 2,414,562; in 1831, 3,908,423; and in 1832, 3,922,955.—(*Parl. Paper*. No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

"The rattan," says Mr. Crawford, "is the spontaneous product of all the forests of the Archipelago; but exists in great perfection in those of the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, and of the Malay peninsula. The finest are produced in the country of the *Bataks* of Sumatra. The wood-cutter, who is intended to deal in this article, proceeds into the forest without any other instrument than his *parang* or cleave, and cuts as much as he is able to carry away. The mode of performing the operation is this:—He makes a notch in the tree at the root of which the rattan is growing, and cutting the latter, strips off a small portion of the outer bark, and inserts the part that is peeled into the notch. The rattan soon being pulled through as long as it continues of an equi size, is by this operation neatly and readily freed from its epidermis. When the wood-cutter has obtained by this means from 300 to 400 rattans,—being as many as an individual can conveniently carry in their moats and undried state,—he sits down, and ties them up in bundles of 100, each rattan being doubled before being thus tied up. After drying they are fit for the market without further preparation. From this account of the small labour expended in bringing them to market, they can be sold at a very cheap rate. The Chinese junk owners obtain them in Borneo at the low rate of 5 Spanish dollars per 100 bundles, or 5 cents for each 100 rattans, or 27 for 1d. The natives always vend them by tale; but the resident European residents, and the Chinese, by weight, counting by piculs. According to their quantity, and the relative state of supply and demand, the European merchants dispose of them at from 1½ to 2½ dollars the picul. In China, the price is usually about 2½ dollars per picul, or 75 per cent. above the average prime cost. In Bengal they are sold by tale, each bundle of about 100 rattans bringing about 30d."—(*Indies Archipelago*, vol. III. p. 423.)

REAL, in the Spanish monetary system, is of two sorts; viz. a *real of plate* and a *real vellon*. The former is a silver coin, varying in value from about 6½d. to 5d.—(See *Coin*.) A real vellon is a money of account, worth about 2½d.

REAM, a quantity of paper. The ream of writing paper consists of 20 quires, each of 24 sheets; but the ream of printing paper, or, as it is sometimes called, the *printers' ream*, extends to 21½ quires, or 516 sheets. Two reams of paper make a *bundle*.

RECEIPT, is an acknowledgment in writing of having received a sum of money, or of other valuable consideration. It is a voucher either of an obligation or debt discharged, or of one incurred.

The 35 Geo. 3. c. 55. enacts, that every note, memorandum, or writing whatever, given to any person on the payment of money, acknowledging such payment, on whatever account it be, and whether receipt or not, shall be considered a receipt, and liable to a stamp duty.

And every person who shall write, or cause to be written, any receipt for money on unstamp'd paper, (except in certain accepted cases hereafter enumerated), or on a lower stamp than the proper one, shall forfeit 10s. if for a sum under 100s.; if above, 20s.

Giving receipts for less than actually paid, writing off sums, or other fraudulent contrivances, penalty 50s.; but receipts may be stamped if brought within fourteen days after date, on payment of a penalty of 5s. over and above the duty; and if brought within one calendar month, on payment of a penalty of 10s. and the duty.

Any person refusing to give a receipt upon demand, or to pay the amount of the stamp, is liable to a penalty of 10l.

Book of Stamp Duties per 55 Geo. 3. c. 154.

Receipt or discharge, given for or upon the payment of	£.	s.	d.
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20s. — 50s.	0	0	6
50s. — 100s.	0	1	0
100s. — 200s.	0	1	6
200s. — 300s.	0	2	0
300s. — 500s.	0	4	0
500s. — 1,000s.	0	7	6
1,000s. or upwards	0	10	0

And where any sum shall be therein expressed to be received in full of all demands for any debt or demand, therein specified, any note, memorandum, or writing whatever, given to any person for or upon the payment of money, whereby any sum of money, debt, or demand, or any part of any debt or demand, therein specified, and amounting to 5l. or upwards, shall be expressed to have been paid, settled, balanced, or otherwise discharged or satisfied, or which shall import or signify any such acknowledgment, and whether the same shall or shall not be signed with the name of any person, shall be deemed to be a receipt for a sum of money of equal amount with the sum so expressed to have been paid, settled, balanced, or otherwise discharged or satisfied, and shall be charged with a duty accordingly.

Previously to 1833 all receipts for sums of 5l. and under 5l. were charged with a stamp duty of 8d.; but the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 23, exempts all receipts for sums under 5l. from the duty.

Exceptions—Receipts exempted from stamp duty by any act relating to the assessed taxes. Receipts given by the Treasurer of the Navy. Receipts on account of the pay of the army or militia. Receipts by any officer, seaman, marine, or soldier, or their representatives. Receipts for the consideration money for the purchase of any manumission stock or funds, and for any dividend paid on any shares of the said stocks or funds. Receipts on Exchequer Bills. Receipts given for money deposited in the Bank of England, or in the hands of any banker, to be accounted for on demand; provided the same be not expressed to be received of, or by the hands of, any other than the person to whom the same is to be accounted for. Receipts written upon promissory notes, bills of exchange, drafts, or orders for the payment of money. Receipts given upon bills or notes of the Bank of England. Letters by the general post acknowledging the safe arrival of any bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other securities. Receipts indorsed upon any bond, mortgage, or other security, or any conveyance whatever. Releases or discharges for money by deeds duly stamped. Receipts or discharges for drawbacks or bounties. Receipts or discharges for the return of duties of customs. Receipts indorsed upon navy bills. Receipts upon victualling and transport bills. Receipts given solely for the duty on insurances against fire.

In 1832, the nett produce of the receipt duty was as follows:—Great Britain, 184,501l. 10s.; Ireland, 17,083l. 7s. 6d.

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Exceptions—Receipts exempted from stamp duty by any act relating to the assessed taxes. Receipts given by the Treasurer of the Navy. Receipts on account of the pay of the army or militia. Receipts by any officer, seaman, marine, or soldier, or their representatives. Receipts for the consideration money for the purchase of any manumission stock or funds, and for any dividend paid on any shares of the said stocks or funds. Receipts on Exchequer Bills. Receipts given for money deposited in the Bank of England, or in the hands of any banker, to be accounted for on demand; provided the same be not expressed to be received of, or by the hands of, any other than the person to whom the same is to be accounted for. Receipts written upon promissory notes, bills of exchange, drafts, or orders for the payment of money. Receipts given upon bills or notes of the Bank of England. Letters by the general post acknowledging the safe arrival of any bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other securities. Receipts indorsed upon any bond, mortgage, or other security, or any conveyance whatever. Releases or discharges for money by deeds duly stamped. Receipts or discharges for drawbacks or bounties. Receipts or discharges for the return of duties of customs. Receipts indorsed upon navy bills. Receipts upon victualling and transport bills. Receipts given solely for the duty on insurances against fire.

In 1832, the nett produce of the receipt duty was as follows:—Great Britain, 184,501l. 10s.; Ireland, 17,083l. 7s. 6d.

REGISTRY, in commercial navigation, the registration or enrolment of ships at the Custom-house, so as to entitle them to be classed among, and to enjoy the privileges of, British built ships.

The registry of ships appears to have been first introduced into this country by the

Navigation Act (12 Car. 2. c. 18. anno 1660). Several provisions were made with respect to it by the 7 & 8 Will. 3. c. 22.; and the whole was reduced into a system by the 37 Geo. 3. c. 19.

It may be laid down in general, that a vessel, in order to be admitted to registry, and consequently to enjoy the privileges and advantages that exclusively belong to a British ship, must be the property of his Majesty's subjects in the United Kingdom or some of its dependencies; and that it must have been built in the said United Kingdom, &c., or been a prize vessel legally condemned, or a vessel legally condemned for a breach of the slave laws.

The great, and, perhaps, the only original object of the registration of ships, was to facilitate the exclusion of foreign ships from those departments in which they were prohibited from engaging by the navigation laws, by affording a ready means of distinguishing such as were really British. It has also been considered advantageous to individuals, by preventing the fraudulent assignment of property in ships; but Lord Tenterden has observed, in reference to this supposed advantage, that "the instances in which fair and honest transactions are rendered unavailable through a negligent want of compliance with the forms directed by these and other statutes requiring a public register of conveyances, make the expediency of all such regulations, considered with reference to private benefit only, a matter of question and controversy."—(*Law of Shipping*, part. i. c. 2.)

The existing regulations as to the registry of ships are embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55., which, on account of its importance, is subjoined nearly entire.

ACT 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 55., FOR AMENDING OF BRITISH VESSELS.

Commencement of Act.—From 1st of September, 1833, except where any other commencement is herein-after particularly directed.

No Vessel to enjoy Privileges until registered.—No vessel shall be entitled to any of the privileges or advantages of a British registered ship unless the person or persons claiming property therein shall have caused the same to have been registered in virtue of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 110., or of the act 4 Geo. 4. c. 41., or until such person or persons shall have caused the same to be registered in manner herein-after mentioned, and have obtained a certificate of such registry from the person or persons authorized to make such registry and grant such certificate as herein-after directed; the form of which certificate shall be as follows; viz.—

"This is to certify, that in pursuance of an act passed in the 4th year of the reign of King Will. 4. intituled, An Act *here insert the title of this act, the names, occupation, and residence of the subscribing owners*, having made and subscribed the declaration required by the said act, and having declared that [he or they] together with [names, occupations, and residences of non-subscribing owners] [is or are] sole owner or owners, in the proportions specified on the back hereof, of the ship or vessel called [the ship's name] of [place to which the vessel belongs], which is of the burden of [number of tons], and whereof [master's name] is master, and that the said ship or vessel was [taken and taken built, or condemned as prize, referring to builder's certificate, judge's certificate, or certificate of last registry, then delivered up to be cancelled], and [name and employment of surveying officer] having certified to us that the said ship or vessel has [number] decks and [number] masts, that her length from the fore part of the main stem to the after part of the stern post

is [number of feet and inches], her breadth at the broadest part [stating whether that be above or below the main mast] is [number of feet and inches], her height between decks of more than 1 deck, or depth in the hold if only 1 deck is [number of feet and inches], and that she is [how rigged] rigged with a [standing or running] bowermast, [a description of stern] sterns, [screw or double] sails, has [whether any or no] gallery, and [kind of head, if any] head; and the said subscribing owners being consented and agreed to the above description, and having caused sufficient security to be given as is required by the said act, the said ship or vessel called [the name] has been duly registered at the port of [name of port]. Locum sub tenore under our hands at the Custom-house in the said port of [name of port] this [date] day of [name of month] in the year [year of date].

And on the back of such certificate of registry there shall be an account of the parts or shares held by each of the owners mentioned and described in such certificate, in the form and manner following.

<p>— 3 —</p> <p>Names of the several owners within mentioned.</p> <p>[Name]</p> <p>[Name]</p> <p>[Name]</p> <p>[Name]</p>	<p>Number of sixteenth shares held by each owner.</p> <p>Thirty-two.</p> <p>Sixteen.</p> <p>Eight.</p>	<p>[Signed]</p> <p>[Signed]</p>	<p>Collector, Comptroller.</p> <p>Collector, Comptroller.</p>
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Persons authorized to make Registry and grant Certificates.—The persons authorized and required to make such registry and grant such certificates shall be the several persons herein-after mentioned and described; (that is to say.)

- The collector and comptroller of customs in any port in the United Kingdom, and in the Isle of Man respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;
- The principal officers of customs in the Island of Guernsey or Jersey, together with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of those islands respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;
- The collector and comptroller of customs of any port in the British possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, or the collector of any such port at which no appointment of a comptroller has been made, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;
- The collector of duties at any port in the territories under the government of the East India Company, within the limits of the charter of the said company, or any other person of the rank in

- the said company's service of similar rank, or of a port equalling in the said service, being respectively appointed in or in the execution of this act by any of the governors of the said company, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;
- The collector of duties at any British possession within the said limits, and under the government of the said company, and at which a Custom-house is not established, together with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of such possession, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;
- The governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of Barbadoes, Gibraltar, Heligoland, and Cape of Good Hope respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered;

Provided that no ship or vessel to be registered at Heligoland, except such as is wholly of the hull of that place, and that ships or vessels, after having been registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, shall not be registered elsewhere; and that ships or vessels registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, shall not be entitled to the privileges and advantages of British ships in any trade between the said United Kingdom and any of the British possessions in America: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall and may be done or performed by, to, or with any collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the several persons respectively herein-before authorized and required to make registry, and to grant certificates of registry as aforesaid, and according as the same act, matter, or thing is to be done or performed at the said several and respective places, and within the jurisdiction of the said several persons respectively: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by,

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to, or with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any place where any ship or vessel may be registered under the authority of this act, so far as such act, matter, or thing can be applicable to the registering of any ship or vessel at such place.—§ 3.

Ships entitled to Privileges before Registry to be forfeited.—In case any ship or vessel not being duly registered, and having obtained such certificate of registry as aforesaid, shall exercise any of the privileges of a ship, the name shall be subject to forfeiture, and also all the guns, furniture, ammunition, &c. and apparel to the same ship or vessel belonging, and shall and may be seized by any officer of his Majesty's customs: provided always, that nothing in this act shall extend or be construed to extend to affect the privileges of any ship or vessel which shall, prior to the commencement of this act, have been registered by virtue of an act passed in the 6th year of the reign of the late Majesty George IV., intituled "An Act for the registering of British Vessels."—§ 4.

What Ships are entitled to be registered.—No ship or vessel shall be registered, or having been registered shall be deemed to be duly registered, by virtue of this act, except such as are wholly of the hull of the said United Kingdom, or of the Isle of Man, or of the islands of Guernsey or Jersey, or of some of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, or of Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, which belong to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, at the time of the building of such ships or vessels, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any competent court as forfeited for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and which shall wholly belong and continue wholly to belong to his Majesty's subjects duly entitled to be owners of ships or vessels registered by virtue of this act.—§ 5.

Mediterranean Pass may be issued at Malta or Gibraltar for certain Ships only.—No Mediterranean pass shall be issued for the use of any ship, as being a ship belonging to Malta or Gibraltar, except such as be duly registered at those places respectively, or such as, not being entitled to be so registered, shall have wholly belonged, before the 10th day of October, 1827, and shall have continued wholly to, persons actually residing at those places respectively, as inhabitants thereof, and entitled to be owners of British ships there registered, or who, not being so entitled, shall have so resided upwards of 15 years prior to the said 10th day of October, 1827.—§ 6.

Foreign Repairs not to exceed 20s. per Ton.—No ship or vessel shall continue to enjoy the privileges of a British ship after the same shall have been repaired in a foreign country, if such repairs shall exceed the sum of 20s. for every ton of the burden of the said ship or vessel, unless such repairs shall have been necessary by reason of extraordinary damage sustained by such ship or vessel during her absence from his Majesty's dominions, to enable her to perform the voyage in which she shall have been engaged, and to return to some port or place in the said dominions; and whenever any ship or vessel which has been so repaired in a foreign country shall arrive at any port in his Majesty's dominions as a British registered ship or vessel, the master or other person having the command or charge of the same shall, upon the first entry thereof, report to the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs at such port that such ship or vessel has been so repaired, under penalty of 20s. for every ton of the burden of such ship or vessel, according to the admeasurement thereof; and if it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that such ship or vessel was seaworthy at the time when she last departed from any port or place in his Majesty's dominions, and that no greater quantity of such repairs have been done to the said vessel than was necessary as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, upon a full consideration of all the circumstances, to direct the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel shall have arrived, or where she shall then be, to certify on the certificate of the registry of such ship or vessel that it has been proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that the privileges of the said ship or vessel have not been forfeited, notwithstanding the repairs which have been done to the same in a foreign country.—§ 7.

Ships declared unseaworthy to be deemed Ships lost or broken up.—If any ship or vessel registered under the authority of this or any other act, shall be deemed or declared to be stranded or unseaworthy, and incapable of being recovered or repaired to the advantage of the owners thereof, and shall for such reasons be sold by order or decree of any competent court for the benefit of the owners of such ship or vessel, or other persons interested therein, the same shall be taken and deemed to be a ship or vessel lost or broken up to all intents and purposes within the meaning of this act, and shall never again be entitled to the privileges of a British built ship for any purposes of trade or navigation.—§ 8.

British Ships captured not to be again entitled to Registry, &c.—No British ship or vessel which has been or shall hereafter be captured by and become prize to an enemy or sold to foreigners shall again be entitled to the privileges of a British ship; provided that nothing contained in this act shall extend to prevent the registering of any ship or vessel whatever which shall afterwards be condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or in any competent court, for breach of laws made for the prevention of the slave trade.—§ 9.

Ships shall be registered at the port to which they belong.—No such registry shall hereafter be made, or certificate thereof granted, by any person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry and grant such certificate, in any other port or place than the port or place to which such ship or vessel shall properly belong, except so far as relates to such ships or vessels as shall be condemned as prizes in any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, which ships or vessels shall be registered in manner herein-after directed; but that all and every registry and certificate made and granted in any port or place to which any such ship or vessel does not properly belong shall be utterly null and void to all intents and purposes, unless the officers aforesaid shall be specially authorised and empowered to make such registry and grant such certificate in any other port by an order in writing under the hands of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, which order the said commissioners are hereby authorised and empowered to issue, if they shall see fit; and at every port where registry shall be made in pursuance of this act, a book shall be kept by the collector and comptroller, in which all the particulars contained in the form of the certificate of the registry herein-before directed to be used shall be duly entered; and every registry shall be numbered in progression, beginning such progressive numeration at the commencement of each and every year; and such collector and comptroller shall forthwith, within 1 month after the first day of January, transmit to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs a true and exact copy, together with the number, of every certificate which shall be by them so granted.—§ 10.

Port to which Vessels shall be deemed to belong.—Every ship or vessel shall be deemed to belong to some port or near to which some or one of the owners, who shall make and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, shall reside; and whenever such owner or owners shall have transferred all his or their share or shares in such ship or vessel, the same shall be registered at some other port, such ship or vessel shall sell or depart from the port to which she shall then belong, or from any other port which shall be in the same part of the United Kingdom, or the same colony, plantation, island, or territory as the said port shall be in; provided always, that if the owner or owners of such ship or vessel cannot in sufficient time comply with the requisites of this act, so that registry may be made before it shall be necessary for such ship or vessel to sail or depart upon another voyage, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel

may then be certified upon the back of the existing certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, that the same is to remain in force for the voyage upon which the said ship or vessel is then about to sail or depart: provided also, that if any ship or vessel shall be built in any of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, to his Majesty belonging, for owners residing in the United Kingdom, and the master of such ship or vessel, or the agent for the owner or owners thereof, shall have produced to the collector and comptroller of the port at or near to which such ship or vessel was built, the certificate of the builder required by this act, and shall have made and subscribed a declaration before such collector and comptroller of the names and descriptions of the principal owners of such ship or vessel, and that she is the identical ship or vessel mentioned in such certificate of the builder, and that no foreigner, to the best of his knowledge and belief, has any interest therein; the collector and comptroller of such port shall cause such ship or vessel to be surveyed and measured in like manner as is directed for the purpose of registering any ship or vessel, and shall give the master of such ship or vessel a certificate under their hands and seals, purporting to be under the authority of this act, and stating when and where and by whom such ship or vessel was built, the description, tonnage, and other particulars required on registry of any ship or vessel, and such certificate shall have all the force and virtue of a certificate of registry under this act, during the term of 2 years, unless such ship shall sooner arrive at some place in the United Kingdom; and such collector and comptroller shall transmit a copy of such certificate to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs.—[1.]

Persons residing in foreign Countries may not be Owners.—No person who has taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state, except under the terms of some capitulation, unless he shall afterwards become a denizen or naturalised subject of the United Kingdom by his Majesty's letters patent by act of parliament, nor any person usually residing in any country not under the dominion of his Majesty, his heirs and successors, unless he be a member of some British factory, or agent for or partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, shall be entitled to be the owner, in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, of any ship or vessel required and authorised to be registered by virtue of this act: save and except that it shall be lawful for any person who was a member of the company of merchants trading to the Levant seas at the time of its dissolution, and who was a resident at any of the factories of the said company, to continue to hold any share or shares in any British registered ship of which at the time of such residence he was an owner or part owner, although such person shall continue to reside at any of the places where such factories had existed prior to the dissolution of the said company.—[2.]

Declaration to be made by subscribing Owners previous to Registry.—No registry shall henceforth be made or certificate granted until the following declaration be made and subscribed, before the person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry, and grant such certificate respectively, by the owner of such ship or vessel: if such ship or vessel is owned by 1 person only, or in case there shall be 2 joint owners, then by both of such joint owners if both shall be resident within 20 miles of the port or place where such registry is required, or by 1 of such owners if 1 or both of them shall be resident at a greater distance from such port or place; or if the number of such owners or proprietors shall exceed 2, then by the greater part of the number of such owners or proprietors if the greater number of them shall be resident within 20 miles of such port or place as aforesaid, not in any case exceeding 3 of such owners or proprietors, unless a greater number shall be desirous to join: in making and subscribing the said declaration, or by 1 of such owners if all, or all except 1, shall be resident at a greater distance:

"I, A. B. [of place of residence and occupation] do truly declare, that the ship or vessel [name] [of port or place], whose [master's name] is at present master, being [kind of vessel, burden, &c. as described in the certificate of the surveying officer], was [when and where built, or if prize or forfeited, captured and condemnation as such], and that I the said A. B. [and the other owners' names and occupations, if any, and where they respectively reside, was, town, place, or parish, and country, or if member of and resident in any factory in foreign parts, or in any foreign town or city, being an agent for or partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, the name of such factory, foreign town, or city, and the nature of such house and copartnership] am [or are] sole owner [or owners] of the said vessel, and that no other person or persons whatever hath or have any right, title, interest, share or property therein as thereto; and that the said A. B. [and the said other owners, if any], am [or are] truly and lawfully a subject [or subjects] of Great Britain; and that I the said A. B. have not [nor have any of the other owners, to the best of my knowledge and belief] taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state whatever [except under the terms of some capitulation, describing the particulars thereof], or that since my taking [or he or their taking] the oath of allegiance to [joining the first of them respectively] to which he or any of the said owners shall have taken the same I have [or he or they hath or have] become a denizen [or a citizen, or naturalised subject or subjects, as the case may be] of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland [by his Majesty's letters patent] or by an act of parliament [naming the time when made] or of denization [to be printed respectively, or the year or years in which such act or acts for naturalisation have passed respectively]; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any share or part interest in the said ship or vessel."

Provided always, that if it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel belonging to any corporate body in the United Kingdom, the following declaration, in lieu of the declaration herein-before directed, shall be taken and subscribed by the secretary, or other proper officer of such corporate body: (that is to say,)

"I, A. B. secretary or officer of [name of company or corporation] do truly declare, that the ship or vessel [name] [of port] whereof [master's name] is at present master, being [kind of vessel, burden, &c. as described in the certificate of the surveying officer],

was [when and where built, or if prize or forfeited, captured and condemnation as such], and that the same doth wholly truly belong to [name of company or corporation].—[Sec. 13.]

Addition to Declaration in case the required Number of Owners do not personally attend.—In case the required number of joint owners or proprietors of any ship or vessel shall not personally attend to make and subscribe the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, then and in such case such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, as shall personally attend and make and subscribe the declaration aforesaid, shall further declare that the part owner or part owners of such ship or vessel then absent is or are not resident within 20 miles of such port or place, and hath or have not, to the best of his or their knowledge or belief, wilfully absented himself or themselves in order to avoid the making the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, or is or are prevented by illness from attending to make and subscribe the said declaration.—[4.]

Vessels to be surveyed previous to Registry.—Previous to the registering or granting of any certificate of registry as aforesaid, some one or more person or persons appointed by the commissioners of customs (taking to his or their assistance, if he or they shall judge it necessary, one or more person or persons skilled in the building and admeasurement of ships) shall go on board of every such ship or vessel as is to be registered, and shall strictly and accurately examine and admeasure every such ship or vessel as to all and every particular contained in the form of the certificate herein-before directed, in the presence of the master, or of any other person who shall be appointed for that purpose on the part of the owner or owners, or in his or their absence by the said master; and shall deliver a true and just account in writing of all such particulars of the build, description, and admeasurement of every such ship or vessel as are specified in the form of the certificate above recited to the collector and comptroller authorised as aforesaid to make such registry and grant such certificate of registry; and the said master or other person attending on the part of the owner or owners is hereby required to sign his name also to the certificate of such surveying or examining officer, in testimony of the truth thereof, provided such master or other person shall consent and agree to the several particulars aforesaid and described therein.—[5.]

Mode of Admeasurement to ascertain Tonnage.—For the purpose of ascertaining the tonnage of ships or vessels, the rule for admeasurement shall be as follows; (that is to say,) the length shall be taken

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suant to this act, who shall likewise make a memorandum of the same in the book of registry, which he hereby directed and required to be kept, and shall forthwith give notice thereof to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs: provided always, that before the name of such new master shall be indorsed on the certificate of registry he shall be required to give and shall give a bond in the like penalty and under the same conditions as are contained in the bond herein-before required to be given at the time of registry of any ship or vessel.—§ 31.

Bonds liable to same Duties or Stamps as Bonds for Customs.—All bonds required by this act shall be liable to the same duties of stamps as bonds given for or in respect of the duties of customs and shall be liable to under any act for the time being in force for granting duties of stamps.—§ 32.

Certificate of Registry to be given up by all Persons, as directed by the Bond.—If any person whatsoever shall at any time have possession of and willfully detain any certificate of registry granted under this or any other act, which ought to be delivered up to be cancelled according to any of the conditions of the bond herein-before required to be given upon the registry of any ship or vessel, such person is hereby required and enjoined to deliver up such certificate of registry in manner directed by the conditions of such bond in the respective cases and under the respective penalties therein provided.—§ 23.

Name of Vessel which has been registered never afterwards to be changed.—It shall not be lawful for any owner or owners of any ship or vessel to give any name to such ship or vessel other than that by which she was first registered in pursuance of this or any other act; and the owner or owners of all and every ship or vessel which shall be so registered shall, before such ship or vessel, after such registry, shall begin to take in any cargo, paint or cause to be painted, in white or yellow letters, of a length of not less than 4 inches, upon a black ground, on some conspicuous part of the stern, the name by which such ship or vessel shall have been registered pursuant to this act, and the port to which she belongs, in a distinct and legible manner, and shall so keep and preserve the same; and if such owner or owners or master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall permit such ship or vessel to begin to take in any cargo before the name of such ship or vessel has been so painted as aforesaid, or shall willfully alter, erase, obliterate, or in anywise hide, or conceal, or cause or procure or permit the same to be done (unless in the case of square-rigged vessels in time of war), or shall in any written or printed paper, or other document, describe such ship or vessel by any other name than that by which she was first registered pursuant to this act, or shall verbally describe, or cause or procure or permit such ship or vessel to be described, by any other name to any officer or officers of his Majesty's revenue in the due execution of his or their duty, then and in every such case such owner or owners or master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall forfeit the sum of 100*l*.—§ 34.

Builder's Certificate of Particulars of Ship.—All and every person and persons who shall apply for a certificate of the registry of any ship or vessel shall and they are hereby required to produce to the person or persons authorised to grant such certificate a true and full account, under the hand of the builder of such ship or vessel, of the proper denomination, and of the time when and the place where such ship or vessel was built, and also an exact account of the tonnage of such ship or vessel, together with the name of the first purchaser or purchasers thereof (which account such builder is hereby directed and required to give under his hand on the same being demanded by such person or persons so applying for a certificate as aforesaid), and shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the person or persons herein-before authorised to grant such certificate that the ship or vessel for which such certificate is required is the same with that which is so described by the builder as aforesaid.—§ 25.

Certificate of Registry lost or mislaid.—If the certificate of registry of any ship or vessel shall be lost or mislaid, so that the same cannot be found or obtained for the use of such ship or vessel when needful, and proof thereof shall be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, such commissioners shall and may permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo*, and a certificate thereof to be granted: provided always, that if such ship or vessel be absent and distant from the port to which she belongs, or by reason of the absence of the owner or owners, or of any other impediment, registry of the same cannot then be made in sufficient time, such commissioners shall and may grant a licence for the present use of such ship or vessel, which licence shall, for the time and to the extent specified therein, and no longer, be of the same force and virtue as a certificate of registry granted under this act: provided always, that before such registry *de novo* be made, the owner or owners and master shall give bond to the commissioners aforesaid, in such sum as to them shall seem fit, with a condition that if the certificate of registry shall at any time afterwards be found, the same shall be forthwith delivered to the proper officers of his Majesty's customs to be cancelled, and that no illegal use has been or shall be made thereof with his or their privy or knowledge; and further, that before any such licence shall be granted as aforesaid, the master of such ship or vessel shall also make and subscribe a declaration that the same has been registered as a British ship, naming the port where and the time when such registry was made, and all the particulars contained in the certificate thereof, to the best of his knowledge and belief; and shall also give such bond and with the same condition as is before mentioned: provided also, that before any such licence shall be granted, such ship or vessel shall be surveyed in like manner as if a registry *de novo* were about to be made thereof; and the certificate of such survey shall be preserved by the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel shall belong; and in virtue thereof it shall be lawful for the said commissioners and they are hereby required to permit such ship or vessel to be registered after her departure, whenever the owner or owners shall personally attend to take and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, and shall also comply with all other requisites of this act, except so far as relates to the bond to be given by the master of such ship or vessel; which certificate of registry the said commissioners shall and may transmit to the collector and comptroller of any other port, to be by them given to the master of such ship or vessel, upon his giving such bond, and delivering up the licence which had been granted for the then present use of such ship or vessel.—§ 35.

Persons detaining Certificate of Registry to forfeit 100*l*.—In case any person who shall have received or obtained by any means, or for any person whatever, the certificate of the registry of any ship or vessel (whether such person shall claim to be the master or to be the owner or one of the owners of such ship or vessel, or not), shall willfully detain and refuse to deliver up the same to the proper officers of customs, for the purposes of such ship or vessel, as occasion shall require, or to the person or persons having the actual command, possession, and management of such ship or vessel as the ostensible and reputed master, or as the ostensible and reputed owner or owners thereof, it may and shall be lawful to and for any such last-mentioned person to make complaint on oath of such detainer and refusal to any justice of the peace residing near to the place where such detainer and refusal shall be, in Great Britain or Ireland, or to any member of the supreme court of justice or any justice of the peace in the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, or Man, or in any colony, plantation, island, or territory to which his Majesty's laws belong in Asia, Africa, or America, or in Malta, Gibraltar, or Hellgoland, where such detainer and refusal shall be in any of the places last mentioned; and on such complaint the said justice or other magistrate shall and is hereby required, by warrant under his hand and seal, to cause the person so complained against to be brought before him to be examined touching such detainer and refusal; and if it shall appear to the said justice or other magistrate, on examination of such person or otherwise, that the

and certificate of registry is not lost or mislaid, but is wilfully detained by the said person, such person shall be thereon convicted, and shall forfeit and pay the sum of 100*l.*, and on failure of payment thereof he shall be committed to the common gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize for such time as the said justice or other magistrate shall in his discretion deem proper, not being less than 3 months nor more than 12 months; and the said justice or other magistrate shall and he is hereby required to certify the aforesaid detainer, refusal, and conviction to the person or persons who granted such certificate of registry for such ship or vessel, who shall, on the terms and conditions of law being complied with, make registry of such ship or vessel *de novo*, and grant a certificate thereof conformably to the provisions of this act; and if the person who shall have detained and refused to deliver up such certificate of registry do so; and if the person who shall have detained the same, shall have absconded, so that the said justice or other magistrate cannot be executed upon him, and proof thereof shall be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo*, or otherwise, in their discretion, to grant a licence for the present use of such ship or vessel in like manner as is herein-before provided in the case wherein the certificate of registry is not lost or mislaid.—*27.*

Ship altered in certain matters to be registered de novo.—If any ship or vessel, after she shall have been registered pursuant to the directions of this act, shall in any manner whatever be altered so as not to correspond with all the particulars contained in the certificate of her registry, in such case such ship or vessel shall be registered *de novo*, in manner herein-before required, as soon as she returns to the port to which she belongs, or to any other port which shall be in the same part of the United Kingdom, or in the same colony, plantation, island, or territory as the said port shall be in, on failure whereof such ship or vessel shall, to all intents and purposes, be considered and deemed and taken to be a ship or vessel not duly registered.—*28.*

Vessels condemned as Prize, &c.—The owners or owners of all such ships and vessels as shall be taken by any of his Majesty's ships or vessels of war, or by any private or other ship or vessel, and condemned as lawful prize in any court of admiralty, or of such ships or vessels as shall be condemned as competent court as forfeited for breach of the laws for the prevention of the slave trade, shall, for the purpose of registering any such ship or vessel, produce to the collector and comptroller of customs a certificate of the condemnation of such ship or vessel, under the hand and seal of the judge of the court in which such ship or vessel shall have been condemned (which certificate such judge is hereby authorized and required to grant), and also a true and exact account in writing of all the particulars contained in the certificate herein-before set forth, to be made and subscribed by one or more skilful persons or persons to be appointed by the court then and there to survey such ship or vessel, and shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector and comptroller that such ship or vessel is the same vessel which is mentioned in the certificate of the judge aforesaid.—*29.*

Prize Vessels not to be registered at Guernsey, Jersey, or Man.—No ship or vessel which shall be taken and condemned as prize or forfeiture as aforesaid shall be registered in the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, although belonging to his Majesty's subjects residing in those islands, or in some one or other of them; but the same shall be registered either at Southampton, Weymouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, Liverpool, or Whitehaven, by the collector and comptroller, at such ports respectively, who are hereby authorized and required to register such ship or vessel, and to grant a certificate thereof in the form and under the regulations and restrictions in this act contained.—*30.*

Transfers of Interest to be made by Bill of Sale.—When and as often as the property in any ship or vessel, or any part thereof, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects, shall, after registry thereof, be sold to any other or others of his Majesty's subjects, the same shall be transferred by bill of sale or other instrument in writing, containing a recital of the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, or the principal contents thereof, otherwise such transfer shall not be valid or effectual for any purpose whatever, either in law or in equity: provided always, that no bill of sale shall be deemed void by reason of any error in such recital, or by the recital of any former certificate of registry instead of the ailing certificate, provided the identity of the ship or vessel intended in the recital be effectually proved thereby.—*31.*

Property in Ships to be divided into Sixty-four Parts or Shares.—The property in every ship or vessel of which there are more than one owner shall be taken and considered to be divided into 64 equal parts or shares, and the proportion held by each owner shall be described in the registry as being a certain number of 64th parts or shares; and no person shall be entitled to be registered as an owner of any ship or vessel in respect of any proportion of such ship or vessel which shall not be an integral 64th part or share of the same; and upon the first registry of any ship or vessel, the owner or owners who shall take and subscribe the declaration required by this act, before registry be made, shall also declare the number of such parts or shares then held by each owner, and the same shall be so registered accordingly: provided always, that if it shall at any time happen that the property of any owner or owners in any ship or vessel cannot be reduced by division into any number of integral 64th parts or shares, it shall and may be lawful for the owner or owners of such fractional parts as shall be over and above such number of integral 64th parts or shares into which such property in any ship or vessel can be reduced by division to transfer the same one to another, or jointly to any new owner, by memorandum upon their respective bills of sale, or by fresh bill of sale, without such transfer being liable in any stamp duty: provided also, that the right of any owner or owners to any such fractional parts shall not be affected by reason of the same not having been registered: provided also, that it shall be lawful for any number of such owners, named and described in such registry, being partners in any joint or copartnership actually existing at the time of his Majesty's dominions, to hold any ship or vessel, or any share or shares of any ship or vessel, in the name of such house or copartnership, as joint owners thereof, without distinguishing the proportionate interest of each of such owners, and that such ship or vessel, or the share or shares thereof so held in copartnership, shall be deemed and taken to be partnership property to all intents and purposes, and shall be governed by the same rules, both in law and equity, as relate to and govern all other partnership property in any other goods, chattels, and effects whatsoever.—*32.*

Only Thirty-two Persons to be Owners of any Ship at One Time.—No greater number than 32 persons shall be entitled to be legal owners at one and the same time of any ship or vessel, as tenants in common, or to be registered as such: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall affect the equitable title of minors, heirs, legatees, creditors, or others, exceeding that number, duly represented by or bidding from any of the persons within the said number, registered as legal owners of any share or shares of such ship or vessel: provided also, that if it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that any number of persons have associated themselves as a joint stock company, for the purpose of owning any ship or vessel, or any number of ships or vessels, as the joint property of such company, and that such company have duly elected or appointed any number, not less than 3, of the members of the same to be trustees of the property in such ship or vessel or ships or vessels so owned by such company, it shall be lawful for such trustees or any 3 of them, with the permission of such commissioners, to make and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, except that, instead of stating therein the names and descriptions of the other

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to indorse the certificate of registry, and the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs shall thereupon send information to the collector and comptroller of such other port, whether any and what other bill or bills of sale have been recorded in the book of the registry of such ship or vessel; and the collector and comptroller of such other port, having such information, shall proceed in a manner directed by this act in all respects to the indorsing of the certificate of registry, which would do if such port were the port to which such vessel belonged.—§ 37.

When Registry de novo any Bill of Sale shall not have been recorded, the same shall then be produced.—If it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel de novo, and any share or shares of such ship or vessel shall have been sold since she was last registered, and the transfer of such share or shares shall not have been recorded and indorsed in manner herein-before directed, the bill of sale of such share or shares shall be produced to the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs, who are to make registry of such ship or vessel, otherwise such sale shall not be noticed in such registry de novo, except as herein-after excepted: provided always, that upon the future production of such bill of sale, and of the existing certificate of registry, such transfer shall and may be recorded and indorsed as well in such registry de novo as before.—§ 38.

Upon Change of Property, Registry de novo may be granted.—If upon any change of property in any ship or vessel, the owner or owners shall desire to have the same registered de novo, although not required by this act, and the owner or proper number of owners shall attend at the Custom-house at the port to which such ship or vessel belongs for that purpose, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs at such port to make registry de novo of such ship or vessel at the same port, and to grant a certificate thereof, the several requisites herein-before in this act mentioned, and directed being first duly observed and complied with.—§ 39.

Of Declarations, &c. and of Extracts from Books of Registry admitted in Evidence.—The collector and comptroller of customs at any port or place, and the person or persons acting for them, respectively, shall upon every reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, produce and exhibit for his, her, or their inspection and examination any oath or declaration sworn or made by any such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, and also any register or entry in any book or books of registry required by this act to be made or kept relative to any ship or vessel, and shall, upon every reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, permit him, her, or them to take a copy or copies, or an extract or extracts thereof respectively; and the copy and copies of any such oath or declaration, register or entry, shall, upon being proved to be a true copy or copies thereof respectively, be allowed and received as evidence upon every trial at law, without the production of the original or originals, and without the testimony or attendance of any collector or comptroller, or other person or persons acting for them respectively, in all cases, as fully and to all intents and purposes as such original or originals, if produced by any collector or collectors, comptroller or comptrollers, or other person or persons acting for them, could or might legally be admitted or received in evidence.—§ 40.

Wills or Shares sold in the Absence of Owners without Formal Powers.—If the ship or vessel, or the share or shares of any owner thereof who may be out of the kingdom, shall be sold in his absence by his agent or correspondent, under his directions either expressed or implied, and acting for his interest in that behalf, and such agent or correspondent who shall have executed a bill of sale to the purchaser of the whole of such ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall not have received a legal power to execute the same, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon application made to them, and proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealing of the parties, to permit such transfer to be registered, if registry de novo be necessary, or to be recorded and indorsed, as the case may be, in manner directed by this act, as if such legal power had been produced; and also, if it shall happen that any bill of sale cannot be produced, or if, by reason of distance, or the absence or death of parties concerned, it cannot be proved that a bill of sale for any share or shares in any ship or vessel had been executed, and registry de novo of such ship or vessel shall become necessary, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealing of the parties, to permit such ship or vessel to be registered de novo in like manner as if a bill of sale for the transfer of such share or shares had been produced: provided always, that in any of the cases herein mentioned, good and sufficient security shall be given to produce a legal power or bill of sale within a reasonable time, or to abide the future claims of the true owner, his heirs and successors, as the case may be; and at the future request of the party whose property has been so transferred, without the production of a bill of sale from him or from his lawful attorney, such bond shall be available for the protection of his interest, in addition to any power or rights which he may have in law or equity against the ship or vessel, or against the parties concerned, until he shall have received full indemnity for any loss or injury sustained by him.—§ 41.

Transfer by way of Mortgage.—When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall be made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, either by way of mortgage, or of assignment to a trustee or trustees for the purpose of selling the same for the payment of any debt or debts, then and in every such case the collector and comptroller of the port where the ship or vessel is registered shall, in the entry in the book of registry, and also in the indorsement on the certificate of registry, in manner herein-before directed, state and express that such transfer was made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, or by way of mortgage, or to that effect; and the person or persons to whom such transfer shall be made, or any other person or persons claiming under him or them as a mortgagee or mortgagees, or a trustee or trustees only, shall not by reason thereof be deemed to be the owner or owners of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, nor shall the person or persons making such transfer be deemed by reason thereof to have ceased to be an owner or owners of such ship or vessel, any more than if no such transfer had been made, except so far as may be necessary for the purpose of rendering the ship or vessel, share or shares, so transferred available by sale or otherwise for the payment of the debt or debts for securing the payment of which such transfer shall have been made.—§ 42.

Transfers of Ships for Security.—When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall have been made as a security for the payment of any debt or debts, either by way of mortgage or of assignment as aforesaid, and such transfer shall have been duly registered according to the provisions of this act, the right or interest of the mortgagee or other assignee as aforesaid shall not be in any manner affected by any act or acts of bankruptcy committed by such mortgagor or assignor, mortgagees or assignors, after the time when such mortgage or assignment shall have been so registered as aforesaid, notwithstanding such mortgagor or assignor, mortgagees or assignors, at the time as aforesaid, or at any time thereafter, shall become bankrupt as aforesaid, shall have in his or their possession, order, and disposition, and shall be the reputed owner or owners of the said ship or vessel, or the share or shares thereof, so by him or them mortgaged or assigned as aforesaid, but such mortgage or assignment shall take place and be preferred to any right, claim, or interest which may belong to the assignee or assignees of such bankrupt or bankrupts in such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, any law or statute to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.—§ 43.

Governors of Colonies, &c. may cause Proceedings in Suit to be stayed.—It shall and may be lawful for any governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any of his Majesty's colonies, plantations, islands, or territories, and they are hereby respectively authorized and required, if any suit, information, libel, or other prosecution or proceeding of any nature or kind whatever shall have been

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the party making the same; and upon such oath or affirmation being made, and the other require-
ments of this act, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, being complied with, it shall be lawful for
the collector of the district, before whom such oath or affirmation is made, to grant a new register, in-
stead of that which the same is issued in the room of the one lost or destroyed. But in all cases where
a register shall be granted, in lieu of the one lost or destroyed, by any other than the collector of the
district to which the ship or vessel actually belongs, such register shall, within ten days after her first
arrival within the district to which she belongs, be delivered up to the collector of said district, who
thereupon, grant a new register in lieu thereof. And in case the master or commander shall
refuse to deliver up such register, within the time aforesaid, he shall forfeit one hundred dollars; and
the former register shall become null and void.

17. That when any ship or vessel, which shall have been registered pursuant to this act, or the
act hereby, in part, repealed, still, in whole or in part, be sold, or transferred to a citizen or citizens
of the United States, or shall be altered in form, or burthen, by being lengthened, or built upon, or
have the denomination to another, by the mode or method of rigging or fitting, in every such case the
said ship or vessel shall be registered anew, by her former name, according to the directions herein-
before contained, (otherwise she shall cease to be deemed a ship or vessel of the United States,) and
her former certificate of registry shall be delivered up to the collector to whom application for such
new registry shall be made, at the time that the same shall be made, to be by him transmitted to the
register of the treasury, who shall cause the same to be cancelled. And in every such case of sale or
transfer, there shall be some instrument of writing, in the nature of a bill of sale, which shall recite, at
least, the said certificate, otherwise the said ship or vessel shall be incapable of being so registered
anew. And in every case, in which a ship or vessel is hereby required to be registered anew, if she
shall not be so registered anew, she shall not be entitled to any of the privileges or benefits of a ship or
vessel of the United States. And further, if her said former certificate of registry shall not be deliv-
ered up, as aforesaid, except where the same may have been destroyed, lost, or unintentionally mislaid,
and an oath or affirmation thereof shall have been made, as aforesaid, the owner or owners of such
ship or vessel shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars, to be recovered, with costs of suit.

18. That when the master, or person having the charge or command of a ship or vessel, registered
pursuant to this act, or the act hereby in part repealed, shall be changed, the owner, or one of the
owners, or the new master of such ship or vessel, shall report such change to the collector of the dis-
trict where the same shall happen, or where the said ship or vessel shall first be, after the same shall
have happened, and shall produce to him the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, and shall
make oath or affirmation, showing that such new master is a citizen of the United States, and the
master in which, or means whereby, he is so a citizen; whereupon the said collector shall endorse
upon the said certificate of registry a memorandum of such change, specifying the name of such new
master, and shall subscribe the said memorandum with his name; and, if other than the collector of
the district by whom the said certificate of registry shall have been granted, shall transmit a copy of
the said memorandum to him, with notice of the particular ship or vessel to which it shall relate; and
the collector of the district by whom the said certificate shall have been granted, shall make a like
memorandum of such change in his book of registers, and shall transmit a copy thereof to the register
of the treasury. And if the said change shall not be reported, or if the said oath or affirmation shall
not be taken, as above directed, the registry of such ship or vessel shall be void, and the said master,
or person having the charge or command of her, shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars.

19. That if any ship or vessel heretofore registered, or which shall hereafter be registered, as a
ship or vessel of the United States, shall be sold or transferred, in whole or in part, by way of trust,
pledge, or otherwise, to a subject or citizen of any foreign prince or state, and such sale or trans-
fer shall not be made known, in manner hereinbefore directed, such ship or vessel, together with
her tackle, apparel, and furniture, shall be forfeited: Provided, That if such ship or vessel shall be
owned in part only, and it shall be made appear to the jury, before whom the trial for such forfeiture
shall be had, that any other owner of such ship or vessel, being a citizen of the United States, was
wholly ignorant of the sale or transfer to, or ownership of, such foreign subject or citizen, the share
or interest of such citizen of the United States shall not be subject to such forfeiture; and the residue
only shall be a forfeiture.

Act of the 18th of February, 1793.—§ 1. That ships or vessels, enrolled by virtue of "An act for regis-
tering and clearing vessels, regulating the coasting trade, and for other purposes," and those of twenty
tons and upwards, which shall be enrolled, after the last day of May next, in pursuance of this act,
and having a license in force, or, if less than twenty tons, not being enrolled, shall have a license in
force, as is hereinafter required, and no others shall be deemed ships or vessels of the United States,
entitled to the privileges of ships or vessels employed in the coasting trade or fisheries.

2. That from and after the last day of May next, in order for the enrolment of any ship or vessel,
she shall possess the same qualifications, and the same requisites, in all respects, shall be complied
with, as are made necessary for registering ships or vessels by the act, entitled "An act concerning
the registering and recording of ships or vessels," and the same duties and authorities are hereby
given and imposed on all officers, respectively, in relation to such enrolments, and the same proceed-
ures shall be had, in similar cases, touching such enrolments; and the ships or vessels so enrolled,
with the master, or owner or owners thereof, shall be subject to the same requisites as are, in those
respects, provided for vessels registered by virtue of the aforesaid act; the record of which enrolment
shall be made, and an abstract or copy thereof granted, as nearly as may be, in the form following:

Enrolment, in conformity to an act of the congress of the United States of America, entitled "An
act for enrolling and licensing ships or vessels, to be employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, and
for regulating the same." [Inserting here the name of the person, with his occupation and place of
abode, by whom the oath or affirmation is to be made,] having taken and subscribed the oath (or
affirmation) required by this act, and having sworn (or affirmed) that he (or she, and, if more than
one owner, adding the words "together with," and the name or names, occupation or occupations,
place or places, of abode, of the owner or owners) is, (or are) a citizen (or citizens) of the United
States, and not owner (or owners) of the ship or vessel, called the [inserting here, her name] of [in-
serting here, the name of the port to which she may belong] whereof [inserting here, the name of the
master] is at present master, and is a citizen of the United States, and that the said ship or vessel
was [inserting here, when and where built] and [inserting here, the name and office, if any, of the
person by whom she shall have been surveyed, or admeasured] having certified that the said ship or
vessel has [inserting here, the number of decks] and [inserting here, the number of masts] and that
her length is [inserting here, the number of feet] her breadth [inserting here, the number of feet] her
depth [inserting here, the number of feet] and that she measures [inserting here, her number of tons]
that she is [describing here, the particular kind of vessel, whether ship, brigantine, snow, schooner,
sloop, or whatever else, together with her built, and specifying whether she has any or no gallery
or head] and the said [naming the owner, or the master, or other person acting in behalf of the
owner or owners, by whom the certificate of admeasurement shall have been countersigned] having
sworn to the description and admeasurement above specified, and sufficient security having been
given, according to the said act, the said ship or vessel has been duly enrolled, at the port of [naming
the port where enrolled.] Given under my hand and seal, at [naming the said port] this [inserting

the particular day] day of [naming the month] in the year [specifying the number of the year, in words at length].

§ 3. That it shall and may be lawful for the collectors of the several districts, to enrol and license any ship or vessel that may be registered, upon such registry being given up, or to register any ship or vessel that may be enrolled, and license and license being given up. And when any ship or vessel shall be in any other district than the one to which she belongs, the collector of such district, upon the application of the master or commander thereof, and upon his taking a collector of such district, that, according to his best knowledge and belief, the property remains as expressed in the certificate of enrolment proposed to be given up, and upon his giving the bonds required for granting registry or enrolment and license aforesaid; but in every such case, the collector, to whom the register or enrolment and license, may be given up, shall transmit the same to the register of the treasury; and the register, or enrolment and license, granted in lieu thereof, shall within ten days after the arrival of the ship or vessel within the district to which she belongs, be delivered to the collector of the said district, and be by him cancelled. And if the said master or commander shall neglect to deliver the said register, or enrolment and license, within the time aforesaid, he shall forfeit one hundred dollars.

§ 4. That, in order to the licensing of any ship or vessel for carrying on the coasting trade or fisheries, the husband, or managing owner, together with the master thereof, with one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the collector granting the same, shall become bound to pay to the United States, if such ship or vessel be of the burthen of five tons and less than twenty tons, the sum of one hundred dollars; and if twenty tons and not exceeding thirty tons, the sum of two hundred dollars; and if above thirty tons and not exceeding sixty tons, the sum of five hundred dollars; and if above sixty tons, the sum of one thousand dollars, in case it shall appear, within two years from the date of the said bond, that such ship or vessel has been employed in any trade, whereby the revenue of the United States has been defrauded during the time the license granted to such ship or vessel, remains in force; and the master of such ship or vessel shall also swear or affirm, that he is a citizen of the United States, and that such license shall not be used for any other vessel, or any other employment, than that for which it is specially granted, or in any trade or business whereby the revenue of the United States may be defrauded; and if such ship or vessel be less than twenty tons burthen, the husband or managing owner shall swear or affirm, that she is wholly the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States; whereupon it shall be the duty of the collector of the district, comprehending the port wherein such ship or vessel may belong, (the duty of six cents per ton being first paid,) to grant a license, in the form following: "License for carrying on the [here insert, coasting trade, whale fishery, or cod fishery, as the case may be.]

"In pursuance of an act of the congress of the United States of America, entitled "An act for enrolling and licensing ships or vessels to be employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, and for regulating the same," [inserting here, the name of the husband or managing owner, with his occupation and place of abode, and the name of the master, with the place of his abode] having given bond that the [insert here, the description of the vessel, whether ship, brigantine, snow, schooner, sloop, or whatever else she may be] called the [insert here, the vessel's name] whereof the said [name of the master] is master, burthen [insert here the number of tons, in words] tons, as appears by her enrolment, dated at [naming the district, day, month, and year, in words at length] (but, if she be less than twenty tons, insert, instead thereof) proof being had of her admeasurements, shall not be employed in any trade, while this license shall continue in force, whereby the revenue of the United States shall be defrauded, and having also sworn (or affirmed) that this license shall not be used for any other vessel, or for any other employment, than is herein specified, license is hereby granted for the said [inserting here, the description of the vessel] called the [insert here, the vessel's name] to be employed in carrying on the [inserting here, coasting trade, whale fishery, or cod fishery, as the case may be] for one year from the date hereof, and no longer: Given under my hand and seal, at [naming the said district] this [inserting the particular day] day of [naming the month] in the year [specifying the number of the year, in words at length]."

§ 5. That after the last day of May next, every ship or vessel of twenty tons or upwards, (other than such as are registered,) found trading between district and district, or between different places in the same district, or carrying on the fishery, without being enrolled and licensed, or, if less than twenty tons, and not less than five tons, without a license, in manner as is provided by this act, such ship or vessel, if laden with goods the growth or manufacture of the United States only, (distilled spirits only excepted) or in ballast, shall pay the same fees and tonnage in every port of the United States at which she may arrive, as ships or vessels not belonging to a citizen or citizens of the United States; and if she have on board any articles of foreign growth or manufacture, or distilled spirits, other than sea stores, the ship or vessel, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the lading found on board, shall be forfeited: *Provided*, however, if such ship or vessel be at sea at the expiration of the time for which the license was given, and the master of such ship or vessel shall swear or affirm that such was the case, and shall, also, within forty-eight hours after his arrival, deliver to the collector of the district in which he shall first arrive the license which shall have expired, the forfeiture aforesaid shall not be incurred, nor shall the ship or vessel be liable to pay the fees and tonnage aforesaid.

§ 7. That the collector of each district shall progressively number the licenses by him granted, beginning anew at the commencement of each year, and shall make a record thereof, in a book to be by him kept for that purpose, and shall, once in three months, transmit to the register of the treasury, copies of the licenses which shall have been granted by him; and also, of such licenses as shall have been given up or returned to him, respectively, in pursuance of this act. And where any ship or vessel shall be licensed or enrolled anew, or being licensed or enrolled, shall afterwards be required, or being registered, shall afterwards be enrolled or licensed, she shall, in every such case, be enrolled, licensed, or registered, by her former name.

§ 8. That if any ship or vessel, enrolled or licensed as aforesaid, shall proceed on a foreign voyage, without first giving up her enrolment and license to the collector of the district comprehending the port from which she is about to proceed on such foreign voyage, and being duly registered by such collector, every such ship or vessel, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the goods, wares, and merchandises, so imported therein, shall be liable to seizure and forfeiture: *Provided*, however, if the port from which such ship or vessel is about to proceed on such foreign voyage, be not within the district where such ship or vessel is enrolled, the collector of such district shall give to the master of such ship or vessel a certificate, specifying that the enrolment and license of such ship or vessel is received by him, and the time when it was so received; which certificate shall afterwards be delivered by the said master to the collector who may have granted such enrolment and license.

Act of the 1st of June, 1790.—§ 2. That every ship and vessel of the United States, going to any foreign country, shall, before she departs from the United States, at the request of the master, be furnished, by the collector for the district where such ship or vessel may be, with a passport of the form prescribed and established, pursuant to the foregoing section; for which passport the master of such ship or vessel shall pay to the said collector ten dollars, to be accounted for by him; and, in order to be entitled to such passport, the master of every such ship or vessel shall be bound with sufficient sureties, to the treasurer of the United States, in the penalty of two thousand dollars, conditioned, that the said

passport shall not be in the name; and the said, within three miles take place with more than the cap Act of the 27th of June, 1790, any law of or foreigners, shall, notwithstanding any ship and vessels a Act of the 2d of March, 1800, Med any such Mediterranean not exceeding five miles, in any court thereunder be rendered United States.

§ 2. That it shall be the duty of the register of registry, to make known only to the collector of the district, and shall be issued, except in case of the United States, of the respective day of December, first of the year, and to the

§ 3. That when an act of the United States, or transferred, on her first arrival, the registry of ships, or vessel, charge or command afterwards, as aforesaid, one thousand dollars on imports at which such ship or vessel or any other charge or cost contained shall be the amount of any former

§ 4. That when an act of the United States, or transferred, on her first arrival, the registry of ships, or vessel, charge or command afterwards, as aforesaid, one thousand dollars on imports at which such ship or vessel or any other charge or cost contained shall be the amount of any former

§ 5. That when an act of the United States, or transferred, on her first arrival, the registry of ships, or vessel, charge or command afterwards, as aforesaid, one thousand dollars on imports at which such ship or vessel or any other charge or cost contained shall be the amount of any former

§ 6. That when an act of the United States, or transferred, on her first arrival, the registry of ships, or vessel, charge or command afterwards, as aforesaid, one thousand dollars on imports at which such ship or vessel or any other charge or cost contained shall be the amount of any former

REPORT, in consequence of the account of the cargo, REPRISALS, property belonging to the United States, to indemnify the Admiralty.—(See RESPONDED TO REVENUE A short, we believe a following complete in 1836, 1837, or supplementary papers, motion of Mr. P. memorial of their pa

passport shall not be applied to the use or protection of any other ship or vessel than the one described in the same; and that, in case of the loss or sale of any ship or vessel having such passport, the same shall, within three months, be delivered up to the collector from whom it was received, if the loss or sale take place within the United States; or within six months, if the same shall happen at any place nearer than the cape of Good Hope; and within eighteen months, if at a more distant place.

Act of the 27th of June, 1797.—§ 1. That no ship or vessel which has been, or shall be registered pursuant to any law of the United States, and which hereafter shall be seized, or captured and condemned, under the authority of any foreign power, or that shall, by sale, become the property of a foreigner or foreigners, shall, after the passing of this act, be entitled to, or capable of receiving a new register, or passport; and such ship or vessel should afterwards become American property; but that all such ships and vessels shall be taken and considered, to all intents and purposes, as foreign vessels: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall extend to, or be construed to affect, the person or persons owning any ship or vessel, at the time of the seizure, or capture of the same, or shall prevent such owner, in case he regain a property in such ship or vessel, so condemned, by purchase or otherwise, from claiming and receiving a new register for the same, as he might or could have done if this act had not been passed.

Act of the 2d of March, 1803.—§ 1. That if any person shall knowingly make, utter, or publish, any false scutcheon, Mediterranean passport, or certificate of registry, or shall knowingly avail himself of any such Mediterranean passport, scutcheon, or certificate of registry, he shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, to be recovered by action of debt, in the name of the United States, in any court of competent jurisdiction; and, if an officer of the United States, he shall forever thereafter be rendered incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under the authority of the United States.

§ 2. That it shall be the duty of the comptroller of the treasury to cause to be provided blank certificates of registry, with such water and other secret marks as he may direct, which marks shall be made known only to the collectors and their deputies, and to the consuls or commercial agents of the United States; and from and after the thirty-first day of December next, no certificate of registry shall be issued, except such as shall have been provided and marked as aforesaid; and the ships or vessels of the United States, which shall have been duly registered as such, shall be entitled to new certificates of registry (gratis) in exchange for their old certificates of registry: And it shall be the duty of the respective collectors, on the departure of any such ship or vessel, after the said thirty-first day of December, from the district to which such ship or vessel shall belong, to issue a new certificate accordingly, and to retain and deface the former certificate.

§ 3. That when any ship or vessel, which has been, or which shall be, registered pursuant to any law of the United States, shall, whilst such ship or vessel is without the limits of the United States, be sold or transferred, in whole or in part, to a citizen or citizens of the United States, such ship or vessel, on her first arrival in the United States thereafter, shall be entitled to all the privileges and benefits of a ship or vessel of the United States: *Provided*, That all the requisites of law, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, shall be complied with, and a new certificate of registry obtained for such ship or vessel, within three days from the time at which the master or other person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, is required to make his final report upon her first arrival afterwards, as aforesaid, agreeably to the thirtieth section of the act, passed on the second day of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine, entitled "An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage." And it shall be lawful to pay to the collector of the district within which such ship or vessel may arrive, as aforesaid, the duties imposed by law on the tonnage of such ship or vessel at any time within three days from the time at which the master, or other person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, is required to make his final report, as aforesaid, any thing to the contrary in any former law notwithstanding: *Provided*, always, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to repeal, or in any wise change the provisions, restrictions, or limitations, of any former act or acts, excepting so far as the same shall be repugnant to the provisions of this act.

Act of the 26th of March, 1810.—§ 1. That, from and after the thirtieth of June next, no scutcheon, or other document, certifying or proving any ship or vessel to be the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States, shall be issued, except to ships or vessels duly registered, or enrolled and licensed, as ships or vessels of the United States, or to vessels which, at that time, shall be wholly owned by citizens of the United States, and furnished with, or entitled to, scutcheons or other customhouse documents; any law or laws, heretofore passed, to the contrary notwithstanding: *Provided*, nevertheless, That no scutcheon shall be issued to any vessel which shall not at that time be furnished or entitled to a scutcheon, unless such vessel shall return to some port or place in the United States, or territories thereof, on or before the said thirtieth day of June next: *Provided*, nevertheless, That no scutcheon or other document, certifying or proving any ship or vessel to be the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States, shall be issued to any vessel now abroad, which shall not, at this time, be furnished or entitled to a scutcheon, unless such vessel shall arrive at some port or place in the United States, or territories thereof, on or before the said thirtieth day of June next: *And provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to operate against any such vessel or vessels that now are, or may be prior to the said thirtieth of June, detained abroad by the authority of any foreign power.

See farther *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*, Book 9th, Chapter 2d, and *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 45th.—*Am. Ed.*]

REPORT, in commercial navigation, a paper delivered by the masters of all ships arriving from parts beyond seas to the Custom-house, and attested upon oath, containing an account of the cargo on board, &c.—(See *antè* p. 4.)

REPRISALS. Where the people of one nation have unlawfully seized and detained property belonging to another state, the subjects of the latter are authorised, by the law of nations, to indemnify themselves, by seizing the property of the subjects of the state aggressor. This is termed making reprisals; and commissions to this effect are issued from the Admiralty.—(See **PRIVATEERS**.)

RESPONDENTIA. See **BOTTOMRY AND RESPONDENTIA**.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE. Though not properly belonging to a work of this sort, we believe we shall do an acceptable service to our readers by laying before them the following comprehensive Table of the revenue and the expenditure of the United Kingdom in 1830, 1837, and 1838. It contains more information in a brief space than most parliamentary papers. It was originally framed according to the suggestion, and printed upon the motion of Mr. Pusey; and there are not very many members who have left so useful a memorial of their parliamentary career.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

Heads of Income.	Public Income in the Year.					
	1886.		1887.		1888.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
<i>Customs and Excise.</i>						
Spirits } foreign	1,462,973		1,569,868		1,869,371	
} home	1,498,156		1,432,929		1,411,067	
} British	5,508,477		5,015,071		5,467,301	
Malt	5,848,950		5,852,410		4,883,080	
Hops	402,290		844,364		302,306	
Wine	1,794,033		1,667,201		1,846,057	
Sugar and molasses	4,479,806		5,026,828		4,863,684	
Tea	4,674,535		3,223,840		3,362,085	
Coffee	661,606		696,644		654,979	
Tobacco and snuff	3,397,108		3,417,668		3,561,812	
		29,750,597		27,496,878		27,821,102
Butter	238,304		966,563		951,665	
Cheese	105,067		120,034		119,307	
Currants and Raisins	311,915		307,966		300,823	
Corn	149,661		553,721		186,760	
Cotton wool and sheep's imported	222,233		671,080		725,445	
Silk	24,769		918,375		254,874	
Hides and skins	67,171		22,556		61,478	
Paper	719,119		654,497		641,788	
Soap	756,185		730,788		910,513	
Candles and tallow	307,788		303,977		183,960	
Coal, sea bones	8,667		8,810		7,632	
Glass	652,225		697,947		688,637	
Bricks, tiles, and slates	474,921		430,364		418,335	
Timber	1,537,468		1,369,361		1,572,618	
Auctions	294,305		274,264		286,186	
Excise licences	1,018,002		1,019,431		1,023,202	
Miscellaneous duties of Customs } and Excise	1,653,321		1,501,173		1,566,366	
		8,014,554		6,868,709		6,023,400
Total Customs and Excise		88,765,091		50,356,077		56,974,586
<i>Stamps.</i>						
Deeds and other instruments	1,621,741		1,603,207		1,863,720	
Probate and legacies	2,042,628		2,185,660		2,162,361	
Insurance } marine	252,715		200,612		251,656	
} fire	831,567		924,138		891,704	
Bills of exchange, bankers' notes	739,967		714,708		734,109	
Newspapers and advertisements	466,701		323,661		341,574	
Stage coaches	514,628		408,943		494,294	
Post horses	226,049		240,283		241,266	
Recalls	173,068		172,280		173,665	
Other stamp duties	482,801		458,506		468,784	
		7,360,377		7,365,127		7,633,355
<i>Assessed and Land Taxes.</i>						
Land taxes	1,199,609		1,192,636		1,184,800	
Windows	1,254,825		1,237,678		1,262,561	
Servants	807,311		801,044		801,116	
Horses	890,222		860,563		877,477	
Carriages	448,798		441,173		443,757	
Dogs	188,190		165,891		156,200	
Other assessed taxes	162,056		260,892		278,241	
		3,921,506		3,890,146		3,905,094
For office		2,250,608		2,330,739		2,246,279
Crown lands		861,566		419,780		866,540
Other ordinary revenues and other } resources		148,130		822,168		312,375
Total Income		62,696,868		56,966,653		51,275,268
Excess of expenditure over income						411,119
		62,696,868		51,519,113		51,707,917

ACCOUNT OF
Heads of
Income—Char
Civil } Customs
Department } Excise
Preventive service, land
cruisers and harbour
ships
Annual leave
Other ordinary revenues
Depreciation and sale
Public
Award of permanent
Transferable annuities
Management
Interest on Exchequer
Civil Government, Civ
Share of the household
The allowances to the
Royal Family, and
Liepsold Prince of Co
Belgium
The Lord Lieutenant of
The salaries and expen
Innards (including pri
Civil Government, inclu
Innards
Other annuities, pen
allowances on the coo
the gross revenue
Pensions civil list
Just
Court of Justice
Police and criminal pro
Corrections
Diplom
Foreign ministers' salaries
Com's salaries and sup
Subsistence, mules, &
For
Army } Effective
Non-effective
Navy } Effective
Non-effective
Ordnance } Effective
Non-effective
Army and ordnance, Inse
Barracks, &c. for promot
public works
Pensions out of the reve
Improvements and war
For office; charges of co
ment
Ordnance and warehouse
Miscellaneous services
Keeping heads
Memorandum.—The an
nations on 31st January
in corresponding paper
No. 1, 1888

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

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ACCOUNT of the Public Expenditure of the United Kingdom in the Years 1836, 1837, 1838.

Basis of Expenditure.	1836.		1837.		1838.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Source—Charges of Collection :							
Civil { Customs	647,139	-	635,849	-	636,847	-	
Department { Excise	869,191	-	862,060	-	861,484	-	
		1,516,329		1,497,909		1,498,331	
Preventive service, land guard, revenue police cruizers and harbour vessels	-	562,219	-	581,096	-	570,129	
		2,078,548		2,059,018		2,038,470	
Boats	-	158,394	-	169,055	-	164,313	
Annual loans	-	176,311	-	163,190	-	209,828	
Other ordinary revenues	-	47,687	-	49,427	-	62,313	
Superannuation and other allowances	-	289,435	-	361,162	-	374,461	
Total charge of collection		2,861,825		2,813,792		2,868,800	
Public Debt.							
Interest of permanent debt	24,156,694	-	24,315,779	-	24,313,590	-	
Terminable annuities	4,224,437	-	4,195,746	-	4,143,566	-	
Management	195,958	-	132,432	-	133,566	-	
	28,577,089	-	28,544,007	-	28,590,722	-	
Interest on Exchequer bills	735,624	-	836,688	-	791,989	-	
Total debt		29,284,973		29,480,694		29,381,040	
Civil Government. Civil List. Prizes. Pensions.							
Salaries of the household, tradesmen's bills	411,800	-	391,972	-	371,800	-	
The salaries to the several branches of the Royal Family, and to his Royal Highness Leopold Prince of Coburg (now King of the Belgians)	206,000	-	278,857	-	308,000	-	
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's establishment	33,345	-	31,933	-	33,989	-	
The salaries and expenses of the Houses of Parliament (including printing)	187,731	-	157,820	-	142,185	-	
Civil departments, including superannuation allowances	866,932	-	466,202	-	460,064	-	
Other annuities, pensions and superannuation allowances on the consolidated fund and on the civil revenue	825,664	-	832,641	-	837,576	-	
Pension civil list	75,000	-	71,549	-	681	-	
Total civil government		1,556,473		1,721,024		1,674,193	
Justice.							
Court of justice	890,897	-	404,598	-	454,502	-	
Writs and criminal prosecutions	329,480	-	492,772	-	682,191	-	
Correction	808,827	-	428,711	-	465,666	-	
Total justice		1,010,184		1,326,081		1,488,359	
Diplomatic.							
Foreign ministers' salaries and pensions	186,301	-	188,149	-	182,028	-	
Consul's salaries and superannuation allowances	84,620	-	99,850	-	148,606	-	
Embassies, envoys, &c.	23,515	-	23,840	-	62,158	-	
Total diplomatic		315,436		311,839		392,832	
Forces.							
Army	Effective	Number of men	(90,557)	-	(75,060)	-	(82,746)
		Charge	3,893,863	-	3,941,996	-	4,263,641
	Non-effective	Number of men	(97,123)	-	(94,963)	-	(90,914)
		Charge	2,643,380	-	2,878,719	-	2,534,100
Total army		6,473,183		6,821,715		6,815,641	
Navy	Effective	Number of men	(29,076)	-	(30,965)	-	(30,399)
		Charge	2,618,829	-	3,216,075	-	3,046,967
	Non-effective	Number of men	(24,227)	-	(25,399)	-	(24,530)
		Charge	1,589,697	-	1,534,584	-	1,473,561
Total navy		4,208,526		4,750,659		4,520,428	
Ordnance	Effective	Number of men	(8,327)	-	(8,612)	-	(9,012)
		Charge	1,274,442	-	1,290,898	-	1,216,633
	Non-effective	Number of men	(1,408)	-	(1,515)	-	(822)
		Charge	169,617	-	154,165	-	165,048
Total ordnance		1,444,059		1,444,523		1,381,681	
Army and ordnance, inturrection in Canada		18,112,868		18,716,997		12,780,760	
Boats, &c. for promoting fisheries		15,863		12,466		500,000	
Public works		216,941		304,896		15,434	
Payments out of the revenue of crown lands, for improvements and various public services		327,458		284,451		322,539	
Post offices; charges of collection and other payments		712,304		688,704		144,791	
Quarantine and warehouse establishments		111,663		121,700		676,835	
Miscellaneous services not classed under the foregoing heads		2,254,298		1,481,112		134,834	
Total expenditure		50,819,805		51,214,119		51,720,747	
Surplus		3,075,993		-		-	
		53,895,798		51,214,119		51,720,747	
Memorandum.—The amount of terminable Annuities on 5th January was -							
in correspondence perpetualities, as estimated by Mr. Fisher		4,230,317		4,208,042		4,388,173	
		1,928,156		1,870,745		1,830,654	
Difference		3,302,161		2,337,297		2,461,219	

1836.
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1,890,371
1,411,067
5,467,301
4,832,080
303,996
1,845,097
4,863,684
3,362,785
654,979
3,561,512
27,821.02
251,865
113,907
300,829
186,760
725,445
24,874
51,475
541,798
210,313
163,689
7,232
688,897
418,336
1,672,518
226,188
1,023,202
1,596,366
9,023.48
56,974.36
1,363,720
2,192,621
251,656
861,714
734,109
341,274
484,294
241,266
173,695
468,784
7,463.38
1,184,880
1,202,561
301,918
375,477
442,767
156,200
278,243
3,909.93
2,346.73
366.62
312.75
51,275.30
411.19
51,720.74

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

[Revenue and Expenditure of the United States for 1838 and 1839, as reported by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Receipts or means in 1838.		Amount.	
Balance on the 1st of January, 1838,	- - - - -	- - - - -	\$37,166,231-93
Receipts from customs,	- - - - -	- - - - -	17,476,770-56
Receipts from lands,	- - - - -	- - - - -	4,138,878-03
Miscellaneous,	- - - - -	- - - - -	253,431-65
Treasury notes issued,	- - - - -	- - - - -	12,716,520-98
Second and third bonds of United States Bank of Pennsylvania,	- - - - -	- - - - -	4,543,102-20
			\$75,294,935-01
Expenditures in 1838.			
Civil and miscellaneous, first three quarters,	- - - - -	- - - - -	\$4,029,674-13
Military, first three quarters,	- - - - -	- - - - -	15,731,222-62
Naval, first three quarters,	- - - - -	- - - - -	4,223,543-81
Estimate of above expenditures for the fourth quarter	- - - - -	- - - - -	6,949,000-00
Public debt for the year,	- - - - -	- - - - -	3,217-90
Redemption of Treasury notes for the year,	- - - - -	- - - - -	6,082,440-04
Balance on the 31st of December, 1838,	- - - - -	- - - - -	34,869,967-33
		Total,	\$75,294,935-01
Unavailable Funds in 1838.			
Deposites with the States,	- - - - -	- - - - -	\$28,101,644-97
Due from insolvent banks before 1837,	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Due from banks that suspended payment in 1837, and not payable till 1839,	- - - - -	- - - - -	2,400,000-00
Part of money in the mint,	- - - - -	- - - - -	500,000-00
		Total,	\$31,001,644-97
From balance on the 31st December, 1838, being	- - - - -	- - - - -	\$34,869,967-33
Deduct total unavailable as above,	- - - - -	- - - - -	31,001,644-97
		Available balance remaining,	\$3,868,322-36

Revenue and Means for 1839, exclusive of Trusts and the Post-office.

The balance in the Treasury on the 1st of January, 1839, which could be considered available for general purposes, was \$3,466,961-96

The receipts from customs, the first three quarters, as appearing on the Register's books, are 18,226,710-30

This includes about two millions and three-fourths collected last year in Treasury notes, but not carried on his books till 1839. From this cause, the actual receipts in this year will, to that extent, appear larger than they ought.

Receipts from Lands the first three quarters, including also some collected last year in Treasury notes - 5,417,282-31

Miscellaneous receipts - 123,297-73

Estimated receipts for the fourth quarter from all those sources - 5,700,000-00

Receipts on some of the debts against banks not available, on 1st January, 1839, but since paid - 1,322,698-90

From the third issue of Treasury notes under the act of March 2d, 1839 - 3,837,270-11

Aggregate means, \$37,217,812-73

Expenditures for 1839, exclusive of the Post-office and Trusts.

Civil, foreign, and miscellaneous for the first three quarters - \$3,619,502-03

Military, for the first three quarters - 10,791,729-21

Naval, for the first three quarters - 4,713,701-37

Estimate for all during the fourth quarter - 5,600,000-00

Funded debt for the year - 14,628-98

Redemption of Treasury notes in the first three quarters, interest as well as principal - 34,769,667-39

This includes two millions and three-fourths paid in for duties and lands last year, but not carried on the Register's books till 1839. From this cause, the expenditures on that account will appear larger by that amount than they actually have been within those quarters.

Estimated amount of notes redeemed in the fourth quarter, - 1,000,000-00

Aggregate payments - 55,601,626-73

Leaving an available balance of money in the Treasury, on the 31st of December, 1839, of - 1,556,285-93

\$37,217,812-73

Statement of the Annual Expenditures, exclusive of the Public Debt, from the commencement of the Government to the 31st of December, 1837: as reported by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.
March 4, 1789		For 1802	6,787,090	For 1814	30,127,687	For 1826	15,602,210
to Dec. 31, 1791	1,819,560	1803	4,002,824	1816	28,953,571	1827	12,533-99
For 1792	1,877,924	1804	4,452,919	1818	28,378,468	1828	12,226-01
1798	1,710,070	1805	6,337,225	1817	16,454,610	1829	12,686-00
1794	2,500,518	1806	6,081,106	1818	13,808,674	1830	13,228-38
1798	4,330,658	1807	4,884,572	1819	16,300,273	1831	12,864-67
1796	6,531,930	1808	6,904,369	1820	15,134,530	1832	16,516-58
1797	3,833,501	1809	7,414,672	1821	10,728,478	1833	22,713-78
1798	4,623,223	1810	8,311,082	1822	8,827,643	1834	18,024-17
1799	6,490,187	1811	5,592,024	1823	9,761,154	1835	15,310-04
1800	7,411,370	1812	17,829,499	1824	15,390,144	1836	20,988-48
1801	4,961,669	1813	22,082,387	1825	11,490,459	1837	22,064-18

RHUBARB
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 Bengal, white, do
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RHUBARB (Du. *Rhubarber*; Fr. *Rhubarbe, Rubarbe*; It. *Rabarbaro, Reo-barbaro*; Sp. *Rubarbo*; Rus. *Reven*; Arab. *Rawend*; Chin. *Ta-hwang*), the root of a plant, a native of China and Tartary. Three varieties of rhubarb are known in the shops; viz. Russian, Turkey, and East Indian or Chinese rhubarb. The first two resemble each other in every respect. They are, in fact, the same article, being both derived from Tartary. The portion destined for the Petersburg market being selected and sorted at Kiachta, acquires the name of Russian rhubarb; while the portion that is sent from Tartary to Smyrna and other places in Turkey, is called Turkey rhubarb. The best pieces only are sent to Petersburg; and according to the contract with the government, on whose account it is bought, all that is rejected must be burnt; and that which is approved undergoes a second cleaning before being finally packed up for Petersburg. The best pieces of Russian and Turkey rhubarb are roundish and perforated with a large hole, of a reddish or yellow colour on the outside, and when cut or broken exhibit a mottled texture, and alternate streaks of red and grey. Its odour is peculiar; and its taste nauseous, bitter, and astringent. It should not be porous, but rather compact and heavy. East Indian or Chinese rhubarb is in oblong flat pieces, seldom perforated; has a stronger odour, and is more nauseous to the taste than the other; it is heavier, more compact, breaks smoother, and affords a powder of a redder shade.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory; Ainslie's Mat. Indica, &c.*)

The total quantity of rhubarb imported in 1831 amounted to 140,395 lbs.; of which 6,901 lbs. came from Russia, and 133,494 from the East Indies. Of the quantity imported, 40,124 lbs. were retained for home consumption. The price of rhubarb in bond varies from 2s. per lb. for the inferior East Indian, to 6s. for the best Russian.

RICE (Fr. *Riz*; It. *Riso*; Arab. *Aruz*; Hind. *Chawl*), one of the most valuable of the cereal grasses, the *Oryza sativa* of botanists. It is raised in immense quantities in India, China, and most eastern countries; in the West Indies, Central America, and the United States; and in some of the southern countries of Europe. It, in fact, occupies the same place in most intertropical regions as wheat in the warmer parts of Europe, and oats and rye in those more to the north. Forming, as it does, the principal part of the food of the most civilized and populous Eastern nations, it is more extensively consumed than any other species of grain. It is light and wholesome, but is said to contain less of the nutritive principle than wheat. When rough, or in its natural state in the husk, it is called *paddy*. There is an immense variety in the qualities of rice. That which is principally exported from Bengal has received the name of *cargo rice*. It is of a coarse reddish cast, but is sweet and large grained, and is preferred by the natives to every other sort. It is not kiln-dried, but is parched in earthen pots or caldrons, partly to destroy the vegetative principle, so that it may keep better, and partly to facilitate the process of husking. Patna rice is more esteemed in Europe than any other sort of rice imported from the East. It is small grained, rather long and wiry, and remarkably white. But the rice raised on the low marshy grounds of Carolina is unquestionably very superior to any brought from any part of India.

The produce of lands naturally or artificially irrigated is, as far as rice is concerned, from 5 to 10 times greater than that of dry land having no command of water; and hence the vast importance of irrigation in all countries where this grain is cultivated. But it is worthy of remark, that owing to the not unfrequent occurrence of severe droughts, there is a greater variation in the crops of rice than in those of any other species of grain. Those who, like the Hindoos, depend almost entirely on it for subsistence, are, consequently, placed in a very precarious situation. There can be no doubt that famines are at once more frequent and severe in Hindoostan than in any other quarter.

A few years ago England was principally supplied with cleaned rice from Carolina. Lately, however, the imports of Carolina rice have been much reduced. An improved method of separating the husk, which throws out the grain clean and unbroken, has recently been practised in this country; and as the grain, when in the husk, is found to preserve its flavour and sweetness better during a long voyage than when shelled, large quantities are now imported rough from Bengal and the United States. Unquestionably, however, the oppressive discriminating duty of 14s. a cwt. on American and other foreign cleaned rice has done more than any thing else to increase the imports of rough grain; and the fact of the duty on paddy from Bengal being only 1d. per quarter, while that on paddy from Carolina is 2s. 6d. a bushel, sufficiently accounts for the increased imports from the former.

The consumption of rice increased rapidly after the reduction of the duty on the cleaned and rough grain from India in 1828. In 1830, the entries for home consumption amounted to 153,652 cwt. of cleaned, and 189,849 cwt. of rough grain. But, contrary to our anticipations in the former edition of this work, the consumption has since materially fallen off. The entries for home consumption in 1832 amounted to only 111,461 cwt. of clean, and 170,627 cwt. of rough grain, or paddy; and, during last year (1833), there was a still further decline. Mr. Cook ascribes this diminution to the reduction that has taken place in the price of wheat, which has fallen from 64s. 3d. in 1830 to 52s. 11d. in 1833. Mr. C. further mentions that, in bad seasons, when grain is soft and damp, the millers consider it advantageous to grind a certain proportion of rice with it.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.; Ainslie's Mat. Ind., Cook's Com. of Great Britain in 1833; and private information.*)

The price of rice in bond in the London market, in January, 1834, was as under:—

Rice, Carolina, new, per cwt.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	Duty on paddy, the produce of, and imported from
East India, Bora, Patna, do.	0 17 0	10 1 1	0
Bengal, white, do.	0 13 6	0 16 0	0
Comp. and ordinary	0 9 0	0 12 0	0

From America and other foreign places, 2s. 6d. per bushel.
Duty on American and other foreign pieces of growth, 16s. per cwt.
—Bengal, and other sorts, 1s. per cwt.

RIGA, a city of European Russia, the capital of Livonia, situated on the Duna, about 9 miles from the sea, in lat. 56° 50' 5" N., lon. 24° 0' 4" E. Population about 47,000.

Harbour.—A light-house has been erected on Fort Comet, on the western side of the mouth of the river. It has 2 lights; the first, elevated about 101 feet (English) above the level of the sea, may b

Secretary of the
Annals
- \$7,162,251-91
- 17,478,270-55
- 3,190,583-34
- 253,431-55
- 13,716,820-58
- 4,549,102-22
\$75,594,206-01
- \$4,020,674-11
- 15,731,223-63
- 4,225,563-21
- 5,349,000-00
- 2,517-98
- 8,959,540-01
- \$4,869,987-12
\$75,594,206-01
- \$28,101,644-97
- 1,000,000-00
- 2,000,000-00
- 500,000-00
\$29,101,644-97
- \$24,869,987-32
- 28,101,644-97
\$2,765,349-32
- \$2,466,961-92
- 16,228,310-54
- 5,417,280-31
- 125,200-73
- 5,700,000-00
- 1,222,696-08
- 3,857,278-51
\$37,217,219-73
- \$3,640,529-23
- 10,791,759-31
- 4,713,201-57
- 5,600,000-00
- 11,659-90
24,769,667-99
- 9,991,759-53
- 1,000,000-00
- 35,661,428-73
- 1,558,284-50
\$37,217,219-73
Year. Dollars.
For 1826 130,238
1827 124,510
1828 12,265-90
1829 12,866-00
1830 13,232-38
1831 13,964-07
1832 13,168-88
1833 22,713-75
1834 18,616-17
1835 17,549-00
1836 20,968-94
1837 20,968-76
A.M.

RIO DE JANEIRO.

407

III. Ships cleared out from Riga in 1832.

Flag.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	To what Country.	Ships.	To what Country.	Ships.
Dutch	3-0	Prussian	146	To Great Britain	342	To Prussia	37
Danish	108	Stockholm	138	Hanover	5	Lubeck	24
Swedish	183	Oldenburg	37	Holland	322	Hamburg	9
Belgian	178	Hamburg	2	Belgium	165	Bremen	43
French	81	Lubeck	18	France	30	Black	8
Norwegian	111	Bremen	13	Denmark	143	America	1
Portuguese	12	American	2	Sweden & Norway	112	Elisava	314
Spanish	1	Russian	44	Portugal	2		
			1,483				1,483

IV. Ships despatched from Riga during the Six Years ending with 1832.

Year.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Ships.	1,378	1,180	1,331	1,243	1,573	1,438

RIO DE JANEIRO, the capital of Brazil, situated in lat. 22° 54' 15" S., lon. 43° 15' 50" W. Population about 160,000. The harbour of Rio is one of the finest in the world, both as respects capaciousness and security for all sorts of vessels. In coming from the N. E. it is usual to make Cape Frio, in lat. 23° 1' 18" S., lon. 42° 3' 19" W., being about 4 leagues nearly E. of Rio. The entrance to the harbour is marked by a remarkable hill in the form of a sugar loaf, 900 feet high, close to its west side; while on the east, or opposite side of the bay, at the distance of about 1½ mile, is the fort of Santa Cruz. But the woodcut in the next page, taken from a chart published by order of the Brazilian authorities, gives a much better idea of this noble harbour than could be obtained from any description.

Entrance to the Harbour.—Vessels bound for Rio, coming from the N., should, after rounding Cape Frio, steer due W., keeping about 3 leagues from the coast, until they come within 5 or 6 miles of the Du Izal, or Flat Island, lying almost due S. from the mouth of the harbour, at the distance of about 3 leagues. A light-house, the lantern of which is said to be elevated nearly 300 feet above the level of the sea was erected on this island in 1829. The light is a revolving one, finishing its revolution in 3 minutes, and exhibiting alternately a white and a red light. There is also a light-house in the fort of Santa Cruz, the light of which is fixed and elevated about 50 feet above the level of the sea.—(Consult *Les Phares*, 3d ed.) Having got within 5 or 6 miles of the Ilha Reza, ships may enter by day or by night, the dotted line in the cut marking the fairway into the harbour. There are no pilots to be put with; and, as there are no hidden dangers of any kind, their services are not wanted. On entering, vessels must pass within half of Fort Santa Cruz, to be ready to answer any questions that may be put to them. They then proceed to Fort Vilganhon, below or opposite to which they must bring to, or come to anchor, allowing no boats to come alongside, but those of the government, until they have received *pratique*, when they will be permitted to proceed to the usual place of anchorage for the merchant shipping.

The sea breeze generally sets in about 11 A. M., and lasts till about sun-set. It is strong enough to enable ships to overcome the ebb. High water at full and change at 2 in the afternoon.

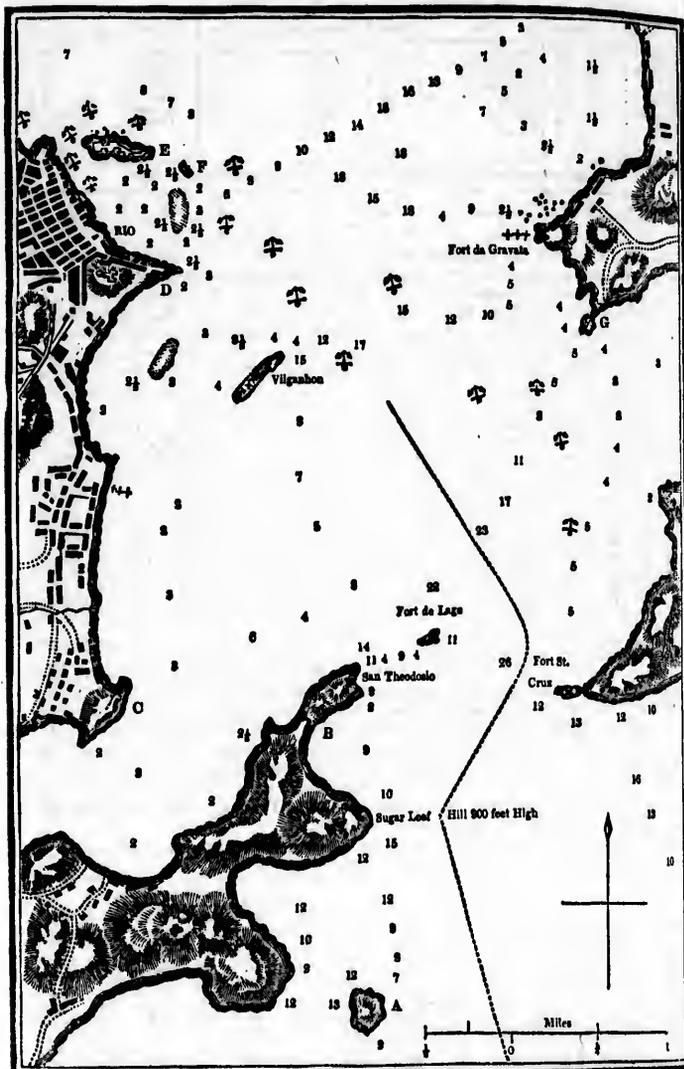
Trade.—The trade of Rio is extensive, and has increased rapidly of late years. The principal articles of export are coffee, sugar, cotton, hides, rum, tallow, indigo, coarse cotton cloths, gold, diamonds, precious stones, tobacco, cabinet and dye woods, rice, &c. The imports consist principally of cottons, hardware, flour, dried fish, linens, woollens, soap and candles, wines, oils, &c. Until 1830, slaves formed one of the principal articles of import into Rio and other Brazilian ports; so many as 45,000 having been imported in one year, of which Rio received the greater proportion. But, according to a convention entered into with this country, this infamous traffic should have ceased in February, 1830: whether it has really done so is more than we can undertake to affirm.

Comparative Monthly and Yearly Statement of the Coffee, Sugar, and Hides exported from Rio de Janeiro, during the Six Years ending with 1832.

Months.	Coffee.						Sugar.					
	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
January	35,971	31,634	34,102	38,490	43,074	1,141	1,679	1,636	3,224	1,912	1,083	1,083
February	18,887	20,698	23,026	24,377	26,330	25,051	1,858	1,887	1,908	2,737	747	3,399
March	30,614	34,680	33,960	31,289	37,985	35,274	3,193	1,453	3,623	2,078	1,827	3,476
April	10,013	14,086	13,089	22,341	31,534	26,508	1,721	855	2,980	1,318	1,112	1,974
May	27,105	26,860	27,511	30,108	33,337	29,817	1,618	2,078	1,618	2,310	2,684	564
June	29,618	32,344	37,210	34,028	36,162	31,971	1,117	2,769	1,558	1,796	4,418	1,835
July	31,068	37,388	36,347	43,717	35,125	38,398	1,856	583	1,219	1,277	2,710	1,670
August	40,215	46,150	47,407	53,349	53,237	45,812	1,484	1,134	1,377	671	917	1,841
September	33,688	33,951	33,074	45,324	49,783	40,034	506	1,100	1,123	1,408	682	841
October	41,707	28,577	36,891	28,799	42,173	44,712	795	794	1,807	1,781	1,000	771
November	31,418	30,468	36,029	33,816	45,184	51,215	878	406	553	2,161	1,270	757
December	32,001	31,518	36,778	44,697	46,677	46,858	3,091	3,407	1,112	2,361	2,376	861
Total	350,600	369,147	375,107	391,785	448,249	478,950	15,644	18,033	18,864	22,488	22,004	16,143

Months.	Hides.					
	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
January	66,120	15,628	45,069	45,578	36,511	3,890
February	18,248	12,305	39,473	18,833	42,360	5,312
March	45,477	33,107	21,682	24,569	28,458	22,707
April	21,856	419	34,242	31,882	38,977	73,641
May	47,638	18,106	17,487	44,348	12,988	18,016
June	11,327	15,533	16,838	30,392	41,489	9,944
Total	229,220	207,268	351,693	266,719	342,825	263,667

This statement is taken from the *Circular of Steckmeyer, Gracie & Co.*, dated Rio de Janeiro, 4th of January, 1833, who state that these details from the manifests of the vessels clearing out at the Custom house.



References to Plan.—A, Ilha do Catunduba. B, Fort de St. Joao. C, Morro do Flamengo. D, Ponta do Cuihabouco. E, Fort da Ilha das Cobras. F, Ilha das Raitos. G, Fort da Boa Viagem.

The increase in the exports of sugar and coffee from Brazil during the last 10 years has been quite unprecedented. In 1822, the total export of sugar from the empire was only 40,000 tons, whereas it now amounts to about 75,000 tons. In 1821, the quantity of coffee exported from Rio did not exceed 7,500 tons; but in 1833 it amounted to more than 4 times that quantity, or to about 35,000 tons! The exports of cotton have also increased, but not so rapidly. The imports of cotton from Brazil to England in 1831, were 31,695,761 lbs., being between a 7th and an 8th of the total quantity we imported that year. In 1832, the imports declined to 20,100,560 lbs.

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" Estimated

RIO.—Coffee
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Sugar -
Cotton, drug

BARRA.—Coffee
Cotton
Sugar -
Tobacco
Drugs, hides

CEARA.—Cotton
Hides -

MICAYO.—Cotton
Sugar -

MARANHAM.—Co
Rice -

PARA.—Cocoa
Indie rubber
Lingams, 18

PERNAMBUCO.—C
Hides and dy
Sugar -

PARAIBA.—Cotton
Sugar -

RIO GRANDE OF
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SANTOS.—Sugar,
export -

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* Bag of cot
Vol. II.—2 M

A considerable part of the extraordinarily rapid increase of the sugar and coffee cultivation in Brazil must be ascribed to the facility with which slaves have recently been imported; and it is possible that the cessation of their importation, supposing the convention to that effect to be executed, may check, for a while, the extension of cultivation in Brazil.

We have derived the following statements, as to the trade of Brazil, from the highest authority. Of their accuracy there can be no more question than of their interest and importance. Unfortunately, the government of Brazil does not publish any official statements of the trade of the different ports, not even of the amount of exports or imports, so that information on these points can only be drawn from private sources.

* Estimated Amount of Brazilian Exports, with their Values at the Port of Shipment.

Middle Provinces.				£	£	£
		£ s. d.				
RIO.—Coffee	bags, 550,000*	at 3 10 0	per bag	-	-	1,025,000
Hides	No. 300,000	— 0 13 0	per skin	-	-	195,000
Sugar	cases, 28,000†	— 11 16 0	per case	-	-	260,000
Cotton, drugs, dyes, gold, and diamonds				-	-	500,000
						2,880,000
Northern Provinces.						
BAHIA.—Coffee	bags, 10,000	at 3 10 0	per bag	35,000		
Cotton	— 47,000	— 4 0 10	—	190,000		
Sugar	cases, 58,000	— 10 0 0	per case	580,000		
Tobacco	packages, 15,000	— 3 4 0	per pck.	50,000		
Drugs, hides, leather, rice, rum, &c.				20,000		
					875,000	
CEARA.—Cotton	bags, 14,000	— 4 13 0	per bag	65,000		
Hides				5,000		
						70,000
MACAË.—Cotton	bags, 10,000	— 4 10 0	per bag	45,000		
Sugar	cases, 3,000	— 10 0 0	per case	30,000		
						75,000
MARANHAM.—Cotton	bags, 75,000	— 4 10 8	per bag	340,000		
Rice				60,000		
						400,000
PARA.—Cocoa	bags, 60,000	— 0 16 8	per bag	50,000		
India rubber	tons, 300	— 66 13 4	per ton	20,000		
Isinglass, rice, drugs, and cotton				180,000		
						250,000
PERNAMBUCO.—Cotton	bags, 60,000	— 5 0 0	per bag	300,000		
Hides and dye woods				100,000		
Sugar	cases, 20,000	— 10 0 0	per case	200,000		
						600,000
PARAIBA.—Cotton	bags, 20,000	— 5 0 0	per bag	100,000		
Sugar	cases, 5,000	— 10 0 0	per case	50,000		
						150,000
						2,420,000
Southern Provinces.						
Sto GUADE DE THE SOUTH.—Hides and tallow, (chiefly coastwise to other ports, but) foreign export about				100,000		
BARTON.—Sugar, rice, and coffee, (much direct to Rio, but) foreign export				100,000		
						200,000
						5,500,000

* The imports are chiefly from Great Britain, consisting principally of our cotton, linen, woollen, hardware, and other manufactures, amounting annually to about 4,000,000*l.* The remainder of the imports consist of wines, brandies, &c. from Portugal and the Mediterranean; flour from the United States; cod fish from ditto and Newfoundland; with a comparatively small amount of French, German, Swiss, and Indian manufactures, and tea; the latter chiefly through the United States.

† The duties on all imports, without exception, are 15 per cent. on the tariff value, which averages about 20 per cent. on the real value of British goods; those on exports vary at the different ports, and on every description of produce. On coffee they amount to about 10 per cent.; on sugar, 12 per cent. (1 being paid by the planter). The export duty on cotton has lately been reduced from 20 to about 3 per cent.

‡ There are no commercial or discount banks in any part of Brazil; but at Rio there is one of issue, the whole of its transactions being with the government.

§ The usual mode of selling goods in Brazil is on an open credit of 4 to 8 months, and sometimes even 12 months, the parties paying by weekly or monthly instalments, as they effect sales, generally exceeding the stipulated credit, by 2, 3, and even 6 months, according to the state of the markets, without allowing any charge for interest. On the other hand, all produce is bought by the foreign merchants for cash down, or, if any credit be given, the usual extra charge is 1 per cent. per month; in fact, the whole commerce of the country is on British capital.

¶ The usual commissions are, 5 per cent. on the sale of goods; 2½ ditto for guarantee; with 2½ per cent. for the purchase and shipment of produce in return; 5 per cent. when purchased by credits on London; the unenca being 60 days after sight.

‡ The currency of Brazil is chiefly paper and copper, of a very depreciated and base kind, and varying in almost every province. The par of exchange, when the silver currency was maintained, was 5*l.* and the current rate always above it, say from 7*l.* to 7*l.* 2*s.*; but now, owing to the introduction of paper and copper, the exchange has fallen at Rio, to 3*l.*, Bahia 3*l.* 2*s.*, Pernambuco 3*l.*, and Maranhão 4*l.*; and, at one period, the exchange at Rio fell as low as 2*l.*, owing to the extensive issue of paper by the bank.

§ The great difficulties under which our trade with Brazil labours are,—1st, The prohibitory duties charged on sugar and coffee, the chief productions of the country; which admit to consumption

* Bag of coffee about 1 cwt. 1 qr. 14 lbs.

† Case of sugar about 15 cwt.

Flamengo. D. Post
na Viagem.

the last 10 years has
the empire was only
quantity of coffee
more than 4 times
increased, but not
31,695,761 lbs.
year. In 1833, the

only coltons and hides, the latter not being wanted; so that, with an export of nearly 4,000,000*l.*, we have no direct means of return for 1-1/2th the amount, the other 3-1/2ths being forced into the hands of the Americans, Germans, Swedes, &c. who thus get employment for their shipping, and carry on an extensive commerce, entirely on British capital, whilst the British merchant is compelled to transfer his property into their hands for 5 or 6 months, as the only means of getting payment for the manufactures he has exported; at the same time that the British consumer at home is compelled to pay, exclusive of the heavy duties, a decidedly higher price for sugar and coffee than is paid by the consumers of any other European state.

"The 2d grievance is the wretched state of the currency in Brazil, which occasions fluctuations in the exchange of from 10 to 30 per cent. in 2 or 3 months, and even 50 per cent. in the course of the year; so that the actual proceeds, in sterling, of any goods sold on credit can never be pursued until the money is received; there being no discount banks or means of realisation, till the expiration of the credit.

"The Brazilian Regency have at length recommended their currency to the immediate attention of the Assembly; but it may be doubted whether they have either courage or honesty to take any effectual means to eradicate the evil; this can only be done by a return to a gold and silver standard, and a new coinage, calling in the old, one-half of which is debased."—(13th of August, 1833.)

Account of the Trade of Great Britain with Brazil, for the Six Years ending with 1831, according to the Official Returns and Values.

Years.	Exports.		Totals.	Imports from Brazil.
	British and Irish Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.		
1826	£ 4,116,180	£ 80,743	£ 4,196,923	£ 1,215,281
1827	2,556,140	57,981	2,614,121	767,918
1828	3,737,014	68,478	3,805,492	1,264,518
1829	6,035,802	99,819	6,135,621	1,488,271
1830	4,369,010	76,214	4,445,224	1,460,013
1831	5,392,952	39,025	5,431,977	2,767,619

Account of the Quantity and Declared Value of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to Brazil in 1833.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery		£ 14,759	Saddlery and harness		£ 2,339
Arms and ammunition		5,732	Line manufactures	yards	7,527,781
Bacon and hams	cwt.	637	Trims, tapes, &c.		2,075
Beef and pork	barrels	77	Manufacture and mill work		3,071
Beer and ale	tuns	487	Painters' colours		478
Books, printed	cwt.	30	Plats, plated ware, jewellery, and watches		27,151
Brass and copper manufactures		5,425	Salt	hushels	37,944
Butter and cheese		21,371	Silk manufactures		86
Coals, culm, and cinders	tons	1,863	Soup and cassives	lbs.	3,330,435
Cordage	cwt.	9,114	Stationery of all sorts		3,284
Cotton manufactures	yards	69,903,398	Sugar, refined	cwt.	10
Hosiery, lace, and small wares	lbs.	11,424	Tin, unwrought		322
Cotton twist and yarn	lbs.	1,073	Tin and pewter ware, tin plates		8
Earthenware of all sorts	pieces	2,850,155	Woolen manufactures, by the piece	pieces	99,107
Fish—herrings	barrels	6	Do. by the yard	pieces	231,858
Glass	cwt.	11,616	Hosiery and small wares		23,901
Hardware and cutlery		11,255	All other articles		2,950
Hats, beaver and felt	dozens	4,323	Total declared value		2,955,580
Iron and steel	tons	2,191			
Lead and shot		522			
Leather, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	43,578			

The number of ships which arrived at Rio in 1826, were—

From Great Britain	62	From slave settlements	53 Portuguese & 81 Brazilian.
France	18	South America	81
Spain	4 Spanish, 15 foreign.	Total	440
Portugal	51 Portuguese, 10 British.		
Holland	14 Dutch, 6 foreign.		
Hanse Towns	15		
United States	59 American, 6 foreign.		
North of Europe	27		
Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Verd Islands	12 British, 3 French.		

In 1822, there arrived at Rio 531 vessels; and in 1828, 22. Of the arrivals during the last-mentioned year, 24 were English, including packets, and 161 American. Perhaps not more than 136 of the 526 ships would load at Rio; many calling in quest of freights and for orders, stores, &c. The returns do not include the same coasting vessels.

In order still better to illustrate the trade of Brazil, we take leave to subjoin the following details from *Mr. Calcutt's Travels in South America*. They are neither, however, so recent, nor of such authority, as those already laid before the reader:—"The colonial system, which was strictly preserved until the arrival of the court, kept the country in a state of ignorance of many of those beautiful articles of English manufacture, now so greedily purchased by all. The Brazil trade may be considered as entirely in the hands of the British, as if an exclusive monopoly existed in their favour. Brazil takes from us every thing she requires, excepting wine from Portugal; and the importation of this trade to England may be well conceived, when it is mentioned that, after the East and West Indies and the United States, it forms the greatest mart for our fabrics, and one that is most rapidly increasing.

"In 1820, the imports of British manufactures amounted to 1,860,000*l.*; in 1831, to 2,230,000*l.* The exports of 1820 were 350,000*l.*; in 1831, 1,300,000*l.*; showing a great and progressive increase.

"Of the amount of imports, about three fifths are brought to the capital, owing to the greater consumption, and from its being in communication with the mines, the most inhabited districts of the interior.

"The other nations trading to Brazil exhibit a poor figure after Great Britain. By far the most active of them—the United States—exported to Brazil only to the amount of 320,000*l.*, chiefly in beef, fish, and minor articles. It is impossible to say what may happen, but at present it does not appear that England has much to fear in this quarter. The immense compound of capital which our merchants possess strikes all foreigners with astonishment, and forces them to abandon all idea of competition. The trade carried on by the rest of the world amounts, in the aggregate, to little of that

France being chief from seasonally.

"The trade exported to Brazil, in fact, almost in amount; but of course to say, part when it is imagined. When it is considered that the life to be landed, appears prodigious.

"Many years ago was extremely common and the southern forms another of the other trade country; its dependence on the maritime nations.

"The internal trade of Brazil, by means of Minas Geraes, are numerous mines; a recently prevailed 4,000 octavas of some years, the course, many of the quantity is enough the very, owing to the way as done as the

"With respect to the obscurity, say mine which I had, and explaining the case.

"No silver is produced probably the greatest quantities, by the quantity of a losing market; a Brazil—of a very Americans, near following, one was and chrysolites, are to be met with in the

"Correctly speaking maritime insurance

"The Bank of Brazil, in a flourishing state. It ceased and absent for the care and trade alone, in an

time being carried the largest purchases varying from 3 to 5

"Some enormous amounts are conducted

"The legal rate of Brazil's Trade in Population of Brazil

One of the latest censused mentions, 22,000,000 in all, 5,200,000 beyond the mark.

(Account of the population from Rio Janeiro ending with 1830)

Years.	Colons.	Slaves.	Others.
1763	523,156	15,000	
1841	539,111	11,977	
1833	427,163	19,186	
1828	438,083	22,584	

Port Regulations.—The other part of Brazil, is to be inclosed with in the anchorage ground, contrary view, or any other regulations, and should be taken care to be observed; pay a fine of 100*l.* if a government vessel is not immediately to be sent; the shall not suffice and

being chiefly confined to articles of dress and fashion; and of Sweden, to a few ship loads of iron ore.

The trade is expressly confined to Brazilian vessels in the coasting and African. The latter traffic is well known, is now restricted, by treaty, to that part of Africa south of the line, which comprehends, in fact, almost the whole of the Portuguese possessions. The importation of negroes varies in amount; but of late years it cannot be estimated, on an average, at less than 21,000 into Rio de Janeiro only. It affords too great a return of gain to be easily abandoned; more especially when, strange to say, patriotic feelings are considered, in this instance, to go hand in hand with profit; and when it is imagined, that the moment the trade is prohibited, the prosperity of the country must decay. When it is considered that this number is annually received into the capital, and that there are other ports trading to the same extent, and that scarcely $\frac{1}{3}$ of the negroes taken from the coast are to be landed, the number of negroes carried away by this outlet only in the course of the year appears prodigious.

Many years since, a considerable capital was employed in the whale fishery. The black whale was extremely common near the mouth of the harbour; but an increasing traffic has driven this animal to the southward, and the only establishments at present are in the province of St. Catharine's. It forms another of the royal monopolies; and, in 1820, was farmed by some Frenchmen.

The other trade carried on in Brazilian bottoms is very much confined to that with the mother country; its dependencies, as Madeira; and its possessions in Africa and the East. The traffic with China is still continued, but no longer in that way which made Portugal at one time the envy of all maritime nations.

The internal trade is very much confined to the products of the district of the mines; and is carried on by means of large troops of mules, some of which, from the western provinces of Goias and Mato Grosso, are 4 months on the journey. It is not easy to learn with accuracy the produce of the diamond mines; as they are worked by government, and strictly monopolized: much smuggling consequently prevails. In some years, the quantity recovered by government has amounted to as much as 4,000 octavas of 16 carats; but these are years of rare occurrence: taking the average, however, of some years, the number of octavas would come to near 1,200. In this quantity there would be, of course, many of large size, adding immensely to their value. It is calculated that about the same quantity is smuggled; and there are strong reasons to suppose, that if no difficulties were thrown in the way, owing to the facility with which they are obtained, the produce of Brazil diamonds, in every way as fine as the Oriental, would have considerable effect on the demand.

With respect to the quantity of gold which comes from the mines, it is immersed in a certain degree of obscurity. The 1-5th due to government is the principal cause that I could never ascertain, in any mine which I visited, its exact produce. I shall have another opportunity of saying more on this head, and explaining why the produce of gold mines is on the decrease, which I certainly conceive to be the case.

No silver is produced in Brazil. As there is lead, it would be too much to affirm that none exists; but probably the quantity would be trifling. The silver coin is mainly Spanish dollars, re-stamped into 2-peso pieces, by which a considerable profit is obtained on each.

The quantity of precious stones shipped is now very considerable. In most cases they are sent to a foreign market; being, in fact, more valuable in Brazil than in London or Paris. Aquamarines—(see Brazil)—of a very large size have been found. In January, 1811, one was found in the Ribeira das Americanas, near the diamond district, which weighed 15 lbs.; and in the same place, in the October following, one was discovered weighing $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Topazes of fine quality, but seldom large, amethysts, and chrysolites, are also articles of exportation; and at times some fine specimens of these gems are to be met with in the jewellers' shops.

Correctly speaking, there are no trading companies in Rio de Janeiro: there is a society for effecting maritime insurances, but no other.

The Bank of Brazil has had very extensive concessions made in its favour, and ought to be in a flourishing state. It has the power of issuing notes; and all disputed monies and property of the deceased and absent (*mortes e ausentes*) must be placed in its hands, and 2 per cent. per annum charged for the care and trouble. This, in addition to the interest which might be obtained for the deposit, would alone, in an active mercantile country, form no inconsiderable revenue. Specie is prohibited from being carried coastwise; merchants who wish to deposit cash in one of the northern ports, where the largest purchases are made, are therefore forced to take hand bills, and pay a premium for them, varying from 3 to 5 per cent.

Some enormous capitals have been amassed; but generally the speculations of the native merchants are conducted on a very limited scale.

The legal rate of interest is 6 per cent.; but money can seldom be obtained under 12.—(Caldwell's Travels in South America, vol. 1. pp. 53—59.)

Population of Brazil.—The magnitude of the population of Brazil is involved in great uncertainty. One of the latest estimates is as follows:—Portuguese and creoles, 900,000; free mestizos, 600,000; enslaved mestizos, 250,000; free negroes, 180,000; enslaved negroes, 2,900,000; Indians, 450,000; making in all, 5,880,000.—(Peltzer Almanac, for 1832.) But we incline to think that this estimate is rather beyond the mark.

(Account of the principal Articles of Export from Rio Janeiro, during the Four Years ending with 1836.

Years.	Coffee.		Sugar.		Hides.	Horns.	Customs Duties in France.
	Sacks and Barrels.	Chests.	Sacks and Barrels.	No.			
1833	563,195	15,000	18,421	187,380	380,942	13,135,446	
1834	589,117	11,977	20,029	198,573	439,933	14,355,522	
1835	627,183	19,185	21,389	144,401	295,903	14,939,269	
1836	541,885	30,594	37,856	155,009	251,959	16,960,131	

Account of the Shipping entered Inwards and Outwards at Rio Janeiro, during the Four Years ending with 1836.

Years.	Trade with other Ports of Brazil.				Trade with Foreign Countries.			
	Entered.		Left.		Entered.		Left.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1833	1,704	-	1,629	-	896	-	617	-
1834	1,609	105,065	1,612	117,063	383	131,479	693	159,847
1835	1,920	115,117	1,970	128,106	672	134,912	622	139,743
1836	1,978	121,748	2,008	132,386	660	146,399	629	140,214

Port Regulations.—The captain of every ship entering Rio, or other port of Brazil, is ordered,—

1. To go directly with his vessel from the entrance of the harbour to the anchorage ground in Prayauxa; and if, on account of the contrary wind, or any other just cause, he should be compelled to lie to anchor, and shall remain anchored for twelve hours after the anchorage is removed (except in case of being quarantined), he shall pay a fine of 100,000 reis, and shall be compelled, by the fort, to a government vessel of war, (whichever may be nearest,) to receive on board the French anchorage ground.

2. He shall not suffer any kind of vessel to board him, nor any per-

son to come on board, or to leave his vessel, before he has been visited from the custom-house, excepting only the pilot, health officer, the head officer at the entrance, when there is one, and in the case of a shipwreck, or for the saving of lives.

3. Even after the custom-house visit on arrival, and until the vessel is discharged, he shall allow no person to come on board without a written permission from the inspector of the customs; and this permission shall only be given in the following cases, viz. —

A. To allow the buyers of goods to go on board to examine the cargo they wish to purchase, when sufficient specimens cannot be seen on shore.

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or honesty to take any
old and silver standard,
August, 1833.)

with 1831, according to

Imports from Brazil.	
£	1,810,281
Rs.	757,918
Rs.	1,262,413
Rs.	1,486,271
Rs.	1,489,011
Rs.	5,774,659

ish Produce and Man-

	Quantities.	Value.
yards	7,507,751	£ 3,359
		137,045
		971
		4,718
and		81
		89
usdels	37,944	2,518
		8,390
ftw.	3,330,495	5,294
		8
cwt.	322	1,516
		1,516
pieces	89,107	13,010
yards	821,868	17,619
		25,590
		2,375,580

53 Portuguese &
Brazilian.

61

Total 440

91 vessels; and in 1833, 123. Of
wed years, 214 were British or
Foreign not more than 126;
many calling in quest of fresh
returns do not include the same

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3. To workmen or labourers necessary to put the cargo in order, taking care to have them examined when they go on board and return. In case of the infraction of the above regulations, a fine shall be imposed on him of 100,000, 200,000, or 300,000 reis, according to the amount allowed to board him, and of 500,000 for each person who shall enter or leave his vessel without licence, unless he be a passenger, or belonging to the crew; and every other person who goes on board or leaves the vessel, shall pay 10,000 reis fine, and be liable in custody until payment is made. The one third part of these fines shall be divided amongst the watchmen or military who shall have taken up the offenders.

4. He shall deliver to the *guarda-mor* (chief customs-officer), when he makes his visit on arrival, his passport and cargo book.

5. He shall deliver to the commander of the guard-house without the port, if he be there, or at the *Franquia*, if he be there, the manifest as described below.

6. He shall enter at the custom-house, within 24 hours after the *guarda-mor* has been on board, not counting the days on which the custom-house is shut, and present himself to the inspector, and swear, or affirm, that he has not on board of his vessel any merchandise other than what is described in the manifest he has delivered, and that he has no further declaration to make; and if he do not enter within the 24 hours, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each day's delay additional.

7. If he shall detain the vessel at either of the anchorage more than 24 hours, when he shall be directed by the *guarda-mor*, or his representative, to remove thence, he shall pay 100,000 reis for every day he delays.

8. He shall discharge no part of his cargo but by an order in writing from the inspector; and if he land any without such order, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each package so landed except the discharge of the vessel, as soon as his cargo is discharged, that he has nothing remaining on board. If he omit to do this on the same day, so that the vessel may be immediately examined, he shall be fined 100,000 reis.

9. The master of every vessel going with a cargo to any part of the empire, must have two manifests of the cargo, exact copies of each other, exhibiting the cargo, class, quantity, of the manifest of the captain, whose signature must follow the date; the name of the port where the articles stated in the manifest were taken on board; the name of the port or ports to which the cargo is destined; the marks or counter-marks and numbers of the packages, and their description, as bales, cases, pipes, half-pipes, barrels, &c.; a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandise of each package, or several similar ones of the same mark, and also of what is on board in bulk; the names of the consignees, or to order; all to be written at length, except the numbers of the packages.

10. When the vessel has taken in her cargo at more than one port, there must be two manifests from each port.

11. At the end of the manifest, the captain shall declare the number of passengers, whether cabin or steerage, and the baggage for their use of cash, and in addition any declaration necessary for his security; and in good faith he shall declare whether he has any package to sell to the manifest, or whether any are deficient, with the cause of, as on after declaration will relieve him from responsibility, for he will not be exempted upon the vague declarations frequently made, which do not account for deficiencies or surpluses.

12. The captain of any vessel bound to Brazil, when he has completed his cargo in the port or ports from which he is to sail, and made the manifests, as required in the 8th article, shall present his documents to the Brazilian consul residing in the port, who shall examine them, and if agreeable to these regulations, certify them.

13. In those ports where there is no Brazilian consul or substitute, the manifests shall be certified by two Brazilian resident merchants; or if there be none, by two merchants of the place; in either case, the signatures to be authenticated by legal authority.

14. Should any greater quantity of goods be found on board than are stated in the manifest or the declaration of the captain, the surplus shall be seized and divided amongst those who seize them, after paying the duties, and the captain shall pay a fine of half the value of the goods.

15. If there are any goods missing of those stated in the manifest or declaration of the captain, they shall be reputed to be concealed or smuggled, and he shall pay the value thereof to those who have discovered the deficiency, and half the value to the national treasury. These conventions shall take place on the simple fact of there being an overplus or deficiency of goods, without further proof being required.

17. For each difference in the quality or mark of the package, the captain shall pay 2,000 reis, although in every other respect the goods discharged may agree with the manifest.

[The commerce of the United States with Brazil is important; nearly one-third of the coffee, and a large portion of the sugar and hides, of foreign importations, are from Brazil. Our exports of flour, provisions, and the various articles of domestic manufactures, amounted last year, (1838,) to \$2,094,957. To show the importance of our commerce, we subjoin the imports and exports of a few leading articles for the last five years; and therein attach an article from a Rio Circular, which we think will be found useful to some of our commercial men who have a direct intercourse with the Brazilian provinces, and particularly with Rio Janeiro.]

The Imports into the United States from Brazil for the five preceding years, ending 20th September, were as follow:

Year.	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	Total Im.
1834	D. 4,547,119	D. 18,284,689	22,831,808
1835	5,547,919	26,517,468	32,065,387
1836	6,585,186	30,004,000	36,589,186
1837	8,040,068	32,093,983	40,134,051
1838	3,116,843	74,285	3,191,128

Of the above, besides the value of the hides imported each year, the following shows the value of the coffee for each consecutive year, which was D. 2,419,038; D. 3,024,047; D. 4,862,995; D. 2,334,354; D. 2,723,205; and of the brown sugar in like manner: D. 236,985; D. 305,053; D. 1,579,086; D. 199,387; D. 429,853.

Year.	Coffee.	Brown sugar.	Hides in val.
1834	Lta. 26,571,369	Lta. 6,418,156	1,093,181
1835	35,774,878	7,969,883	1,150,891
1836	48,640,319	27,849,038	1,209,854
1837	53,946,348	3,287,401	947,189
1838	27,411,946	7,885,067	124,730

Exports from the United States to Brazil within the above specified time, of foreign and domestic articles, the following amount:

Year.	For. export.	Dom. export.	Total exp.
1834	D. 473,214	D. 1,586,097	D. 2,059,311
1835	787,945	1,910,791	2,698,736
1836	1,763,191	1,732,111	3,495,302
1837	441,092	1,312,217	1,753,309
1838	662,237	2,094,957	2,657,194

18. The captain whose manifests are not conformable to these regulations, shall be fined from 100,000 to 300,000 reis, according to the extent of the infraction, and shall be liable to appeal, and to be examined until the fine is paid.

19. In case the captain brings on board any goods which are not to be discharged, by paying 6 per cent. on the value of the cargo, in addition to the duties.

Franquia.—Vessels proceeding to Brazil, and when it is wished to dispose of their cargoes at different ports, may clear at "Bahia" and other ports, or for "Paranambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, and other ports," and they are entitled to the privilege of *franquia*, and may land a part of their cargoes at one port, paying duties on the goods so landed, and proceed with the remainder to another port. But if they clear out for one port only, they are compelled to make a complete entry, and discharge the whole of the cargo.

In proceeding from one Brazil port to another, it is necessary that a bill of lading should be taken from the local authorities at each port; and where any part of the cargo is unloaded, the same shall be noted on the original manifest by the customs officer of the port.

Anchorage.—Foreign vessels pay, in all parts of the empire, 100 reis per day, from the 6th day after their arrival.

Light-house.—The light-house duty, 100 reis per ton, for all over 40 tons departing from ports where there is a light-house, and 18,800 reis of two masts, 9,500 reis; and of one mast, 6,000 reis.

Port-duty.—On all vessels not crossing the bar at the harbour of Rio de Janeiro, the following charges are levied, viz. of 100,000 reis, 18,800 reis; of two masts, 9,500 reis; and of one mast, 6,000 reis.

Boat.—The duty is 40 reis for every boat.

Health.—Visit of the physician is fixed at 2,000 reis; but in the vessel is made to perform quarantine, then another one of 1,000 reis is payable on the admission of the vessel to the port.

Hospitals.—A vessel of three masts pays 6,000 reis for hospital, and yachts, 4,000; pinnaces, 2,500; boats, 1,500.

Each one of the ship's company of vessels sailing from Brazil pays 400 reis.

Customs of Merchants.—It is customary that the arrears of duties and shipping charges be paid by the vessel, and the contract is stipulated in the bills of lading, in which it is provided that when the Spanish dollars are bargained for, in contracts of freight, they should be so expressed in the instrument of contract, to prevent dispute.

Purchases of produce are paid for in cash, and bills are made to stipulated credits, but annually for cash.

It bills on account of the purchase of produce in which the bill, the credit must have the confirmation of the London house.

Rates of Commission charged at Rio.

- 5 per cent. on sales of merchandise.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on purchase of merchandises, with funds in hand.
- 2 1/2 per cent. guaranty on amount of sales on credit.
- 1 1/2 per cent. for drawing or indorsing, and negotiating bill.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on purchase on bill of remittance by private contract.
- 5 per cent. on amount of remittance contracted by survey.
- 1 1/2 per cent. for procuring or collecting freights.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on disbursements of vessels in common case, when in hand.
- 5 per cent. on disbursements of vessels when funds are advanced, in case of condemnation, or in vessels carrying for repair only.
- 1 per cent. on receiving or forwarding goods on deposit or responsibility.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on amount of responsibilities incurred through.
- 1 per cent. on receiving and paying money on which no other commission is derived.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on purchase or sale of specie.
- 1 1/2 per cent. for effecting marine insurance on the amount insured; and when the premium exceeds 10 per cent., 5 per cent. on the amount of premium.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on remittances on bills not indorsed.
- On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commission be charged to the extent of duties and responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.
- 1 per cent. per month on all cash advanced.
- No interest allowed on money on deposit.
- 1 per cent. storage on all dry goods.
- 1 1/2 per cent. on charging and recharging the cargoes of vessels at wharves, on the invoice amount, 2 1/2 per cent.
- 1 1/2 per cent. or half the commission charged on sales of cargoes, will be returned to supercargoes, but nothing in London or other business.—(Sup.)

Of the domestic exports noticed above, the following will show how far Flour and Bread, Cotton-Manufactures, &c. from Rio de Janeiro, contributed to make up the list. To say nothing of general oil, iron, caples, household furniture, and other manufactures of the United States.

Year.	Flour and bread.	Cotton manuf.	Spice.
1833	D. 285,440	D. 234,721	D. 258
1835	991,269	268,918	610
1836	864,128	300,000	1,171
1837	618,859	303,772	1,870
1838	1,086,033	650,513	1246

The Exports from Rio Janeiro for the month of June 1838, compared with those in the same period of the two preceding years, were as follow:

Year.	Coffee.	Sugar.	Hides.
In 1839	52,198	1,563	17,019
1836	60,603	1,514	6,114
1837	42,234	2,438	30,777

The Export of Sugar during the first six months of 1838 was as follow:

Year.	Total exp.
1836	2,698,736
1837	3,495,302
1838	2,657,194

The exports from Santos, 1838-1839, were 400,000 worth against 654,000 in 1837-1838.

The stock of Hides on hand at Rio Janeiro, at the close of the last year, was about 20,000, nearly all heavy weights.

Report in the first 6 months of 1838 was as follow:

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are not comparable to those of 1890... the degree of productivity that will be obtained...

Summary of the principal articles imported from Foreign Ports during June, 1898.

Table with 2 columns: Article Name and Value. Includes items like Iron, Steel, Cotton, and various oils.

Articles on the Import and Export Duties, Port charges, &c. in Brazil.

Goods made with foreign countries is only permitted in such part of the empire of Brazil, where there are custom-house stations...

Foreign goods are subject to an import duty of 10 per cent, except iron, which pays 20 per cent, and gunpowder...

Goods of agricultural origin, such as coffee, sugar, and cotton, are subject to a duty of 10 per cent...

ROADS, pathways formed through the country with more or less art and care, for facilitating the transit of individuals, carriages, &c. between different places.

The laying out of improved roads, and their construction, forms an important part of what is denominated the science of civil engineering.

Importance and Utility of Improved Roads.—Next to the introduction of money, and weights and measures, the formation of good roads and bridges gives the greatest facility to commerce...

Wherever the means of internal communication are deficient in a country, the inhabitants must unavoidably disperse themselves over the surface.

month) articles that come under the denomination of Estrangeiros, are allowed to remain for the space of one month, and then pay 1-4 per cent. per month storage rent.

Exports.—Prior to the first of July, coffee from the serras-abaisco (lower) paid 11 per cent, and from the serras-abaisco (upper country) 10 per cent.

Precious metals in coin or bars, and gold dust, whether foreign or national, are subject to an export duty of 2 per cent ad valorem.

Customs House Taxes and Allowances.—On goods imported in packages and cleared by weight, the real tare are allowed...

Reception and Transshipment.—Goods re-exported or transhipped pay 2 per cent, and when for the coast of Africa, 13 per cent.

Manifatura.—Every commander of a vessel is required to bring a very exact manifest of her cargo in duplicate, signed by the Brazilian resident at the loading port.

Port Charges.—All foreign vessels, as also national vessels trading with foreign parts, pay 30 reis per diem anchorage...

Scale of Freight.—A duty of 5 per cent ad valorem is payable on the sale of all vessels, whether foreign or national...

Table with 2 columns: Item and Value. Includes items like Cotton, Sugar, and various oils.

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scale on which business is here conducted presents facilities that cannot be elsewhere afforded for making a fortune; and the extent to which the subdivision of employments is carried opens a field for the exercise of all sorts of talent; at the same time that it improves and perfects all sorts of arts, whether subservient to industrious or scientific pursuits, or to those of pleasure and dissipation. It is this that attracts the aspiring, the industrious, the gay, and the profligate, to cities,—that fills them with the best and the worst part of the species. The competition that takes place in a great town,—the excitement that is constantly kept up, the collision of so many minds brought into immediate contact, and all endeavouring to outstrip each other in their respective departments,—develops all the resources of the human mind, and renders a great city a perpetually radiating focus of intelligence and invention. There are, however, considerable clogs upon the continued increase of cities. The food and fuel made use of by the inhabitants, and the raw products on which their industry is to be exerted, must all be brought from the country; and according as the size of the city increases, the distances from which its supplies must be brought become so much the greater, that ultimately the cost of their conveyance may be so great as to balance or more the peculiar advantages resulting from a residence in town. Hence the impossibility of a large or even a considerable city existing any where without possessing extensive means of communication either with the surrounding country, or with other countries; and hence, too, the explanation of the apparently singular fact, of almost all large cities having been founded on or near the sea, or a navigable river. Had London been an inland town, 50 miles from the shore, it is abundantly certain that she could not have attained to one third her present size; but the facilities afforded, by her admirable situation on the Thames, for the importation of all sorts of produce from abroad, as well as from other parts of England, will enable her, should her commerce continue to prosper, to add to her colossal magnitude for centuries to come.

But all towns cannot be founded on the sea coast, or the banks of navigable rivers; and the growth of those in inland situations must, in all cases, depend on their means of communicating with the surrounding country. Without our improved roads, the great inland manufacturing towns with which England is studded, such as Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bolton, Preston, &c., could not exist. They enable the inhabitants to obtain the rude products of the soil and the mines almost as cheap as if they lived in country villages. There is thus nothing, or next to nothing, to detract from the advantages which the inventive and enterprising artisan may expect to realise from resorting to these great hives of industry. And, owing to the gigantic scale on which all sorts of industry are conducted in them, the scope afforded for the employment of the most powerful machines, and the appropriation of particular sets of workmen to every separate process, however minute, manufacturing industry is carried to a degree of perfection that almost exceeds belief.

The influence that the growth of a large town has upon agriculture is great and striking. "In the neighbourhood," says Dr. Paley, "of trading towns, and in those districts which carry on a communication with the markets of trading towns, the husbandmen are busy and skilful, the peasantry laborious: the land is managed to the best advantage, and double the quantity of corn or herbage (articles which are ultimately converted into human provision) raised from it, of what the same soil yields in remoter and more neglected parts of the country. Wherever a thriving manufactory finds means to establish itself, a new vegetation springs up around it. I believe it is true, that agriculture never arrives at any considerable, much less at its highest, degree of perfection, when it is not connected with trade; that is, when the demand for the produce is not increased by the consumption of trading cities."—(*Moral Philosophy*, book vi. c. 11.)

But the fact of their being mainly conducive to the growth of cities, is not the only advantage which improved roads confer upon agriculture. Without their aid it would be impossible to carry to distant places sufficient supplies of such bulky and heavy articles as lime, marl, shells, and other manures, necessary to give luxuriance to the crops of rich soils, and to render those that are poor productive. Not only, too, would inferior roads lessen the market for farm produce, and consequently the quantity raised, but a larger proportional number of horses or other cattle would be required to convey the diminished produce to market. It is plain, therefore, that good roads are both directly and indirectly a prime source of agricultural improvement;—directly, by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of manure, and by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of conveying farm produce to market; and indirectly, by providing for the growth and indefinite extension of cities and towns, that is, of the markets for agricultural produce.

Increased speed of conveyance is one of the principal advantages that have resulted from the formation of good roads, the invention of steam packets, &c. Suppose that it takes 3 days to travel by an uneven ill-made road between any 2 places; and that, by improving the road, the journey may be accomplished in 1 day: the effect is the same as if the distance were reduced $\frac{2}{3}$; and there is not only a great saving of time to travellers, but also a great saving of cost from the more speedy conveyance of commodities. This latter is a point of much more importance than is commonly supposed. It is not possible to form any correct estimate of the value of the products that are constantly in the act of being carried from place to place

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in Great Britain and Ireland. It is certain, however, that it is very great, and every additional facility of conveyance, by bringing such products more rapidly to their destination, and enabling them to be sooner applied to the purposes for which they are intended, renders large quantities of capital available for industrious purposes, that would otherwise be locked up.

Mode of defraying Costs of Roads.—Roads of one sort or other must, of course, exist in every country emerged from barbarism,—but in England, the statute of the 28th of Philip and Mary, which is still in force, is the first legislative enactment in which a regular provision was made for the repair of the roads. The preamble to this statute declares, that the roads were tedious and noisome to travel on, and dangerous to passengers and carriages; and, therefore, it enacts, that in every parish 2 surveyors of the highways shall be annually chosen, and the inhabitants of all parishes obliged, according to their respective ability, to provide labourers, carriages, tools, &c. for four days each year, to work upon the roads, under the direction of the surveyors. This system, though in many respects extremely defective, was at the time justly considered a great improvement, and answered pretty well till the reign of Charles II., when, owing to the increase of carriages, particularly about London, it became necessary to adopt more efficient measures for the formation and repair of roads; and the plan of imposing tolls upon those who made use of them began then to be adopted. But this system was not carried into full effect, and placed upon a solid footing, till about 1767, when it was extended to the great roads to all parts of the country; the contributions of labour under the act of Philip and Mary being then appropriated entirely to the cross or country roads. A money payment is also very frequently made instead of a contribution in labour.

When the plan for extending turnpike roads from the metropolis to distant parts of the country was in agitation, the counties in the neighbourhood of London petitioned parliament against it, alleging that the remoter counties would be able, from the comparative cheapness of labour in them, to sell their produce in London at a lower rate than they could do; and that their rents would be reduced, and cultivation ruined, by the measure! Luckily this interested opposition proved ineffectual; and instead of being injurious to the counties adjoining the metropolis, the improvement of the roads has been quite as beneficial to them as to those at a distance, inasmuch as, by providing for the indefinite extension of the city, it has rendered it a far better market for their peculiar productions, than it would have been had its growth been checked, which must have been the case long ago, had the improvements in question not been made.

The plan of making and repairing roads by contributions of labour is not peculiar to England, but was at one period general all over Europe. By an act of the Scotch parliament, passed in 1689, all persons engaged in husbandry were obliged to labour 6 days each year, before or after harvest, upon the public roads; the farmers and landlords being, at the same time, obliged to furnish horses, carts, &c. according to the extent of land occupied by them. The inconveniences of such a system are many and obvious. Those who get no pay for their work, and who perform it against their will, waste their time and industry; and there is, besides, a great loss incurred by the interruption of the regular pursuits of the labourer. A sense of these disadvantages led, in the early part of the reign of George III., to a commutation of the labour contribution for a money tax on land, rated according to its valuation in the cess books. This measure has been productive of the best effects. Previously to its taking place, the roads, even in the best cultivated districts of Scotland, were in the worst possible state; now, however, they are about the very best in Europe.

A similar system has been followed on the Continent. When Turgot entered on his administration, he sent a circular letter to the road surveyors and engineers of the different provinces of France, desiring them to transmit estimates, framed on the most liberal scale, of the sums of money for which the usual repairs might be made on the old roads, and the ordinary extent of new ones constructed. The average of the estimates showed that a money contribution of about 10,000,000 livres a year would suffice for these objects; whereas Turgot showed, that the execution of these repairs and constructions, by contributions of forced labour, or *corvées*, cost not less than 40,000,000 livres!—(Art. *Taxation*, *Sup. to Ency. Brit.*)

There is still, however, a great deal of labour performed on the cross and country roads of England, under the system established by the act of Philip and Mary. Its continuance is most probably to be ascribed to the want of any ready means for its commutation.

It is the duty of government to furnish assistance towards the formation of roads and bridges in parts of the country where they are necessary, and where the funds required for their formation cannot otherwise be obtained. But it is in such cases extremely desirable, in order to prevent government from being deceived by interested representations, that those more immediately concerned in the undertaking should be bound to contribute a considerable portion of its expense. This has been done in the case of the Highland roads. Down to a very recent period, large tracts in the Highlands were quite inaccessible, and were, consequently, in a great measure shut out from all improvement; while the rugged nature of the country and the poverty of the inhabitants rendered any attempt to construct improved roads an undertaking beyond their means. Under these circumstances, government came forward and engaged to advance $\frac{1}{2}$ the expense of making roads and bridges in certain districts,

formed; and, in summer, not unfrequently consisted of the bottoms of rivulets. Down to the middle of the last century, most of the goods conveyed from place to place in Scotland, at least where the distances were not very great, were carried, not by carts or wagons, but on horseback. Oatmeal, coals, turf, and even straw and hay were conveyed in this way! At this period, and for long previous, there was a set of single-horse traffickers (cadgers), that regularly plied between different places, supplying the inhabitants with such articles as were then most in demand, as salt, fish, poultry, eggs, earthenware, &c.; these were usually conveyed in sacks or baskets, suspended one on each side the horse. But in carrying goods between distant places, it was necessary to employ a cart, as all that a horse could carry on his back was not sufficient to defray the cost of a long journey. The time that the carriers (for such was the name given to those that used carts) usually required to perform their journeys, seems now almost incredible. The common carrier from Selkirk to Edinburgh, thirty-eight miles distant, required a fortnight for his journey between the two places going and returning! The road originally was among the most perilous in the whole country; a considerable extent of it lay in the bottom of that district called Gala-water, from the name of the principal stream, the channel of the water being, when not flooded, the track chosen as the most level, and easiest to travel in.

Even between the largest cities, the means of travelling were but little superior. In 1678, an agreement was made to run a coach between Edinburgh and Glasgow,—a distance of 44 miles,—which was to be drawn by six horses, and to perform the journey from Glasgow to Edinburgh and back again in six days. Even so late as the middle of last century, it took 14 day for the stage coach to travel from Edinburgh to Glasgow,—a journey which is now accomplished in 4½ or 5 hours.

So late as 1763, there was but one stage coach from Edinburgh to London, and it set out only once a month, taking from 12 to 14 days to perform the journey. At present, notwithstanding the immense intercourse between the two cities by means of steam packets, arnacks &c., 6 or 7 coaches set out each day from the one for the other, performing the journey in from 45 to 48 hours.—(*Robertson's Rural Recol.* pp. 39—44.)

The effects of this extraordinary improvement in the means of travelling have been as striking on the manners as on the industry of all classes. The remark of Dr. Smith that "man is the least transportable species of luggage," is no longer true as applied to Great Britain. During spring, the metropolis is crowded with visitors of all ranks and orders from the remotest provinces; and during summer and autumn vast numbers of the citizens are spread over the country. Hence it is, that manners as well as prices are reduced nearly to the same standard. A respectable family in Penzance or Inverness live very much in the same way as a respectable family in London. Peculiarities of all sorts have disappeared; every thing is, as it were, brought to a level; the fashions and opinions of the metropolis are immediately diffused over every part of the country, while those that originate in the latter powerfully influence the former.

(These details have been partly borrowed from the treatise on *Commerce*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, contributed by the author of this work.)

[The roads of the United States have been improved and multiplied exceedingly within a few years past; and the extension of the system of *internal improvement*—meaning thereby the introduction of easier and more rapid communications between the different points of their territory, has been latterly urged forward with a zeal that seemed nearly regardless of the amount of present expenditure. Turnpike roads have been carried through the country, especially the eastern and middle portions of it, in almost every direction. But it is by their canals and railroads, as much as by any other circumstance connected with their progress, that the United States have rendered themselves conspicuous among the nations of the earth. This will be apparent from the following condensed summary of the canals and railroads in the United States, with their lengths and terminating points, drawn up by Mr. H. S. Tanner, which we have been kindly permitted to copy, with his latest corrections.]

A Condensed Summary of the Canals and Railroads in the United States; their Lengths, and Terminating Points.

Canals in Maine.				Canals in Massachusetts.			
Name.	From	To	Miles.	Name.	From	To	Miles.
Camden and Oxford,	near Portland,	Long Pond,	20-50	Middlesex,	Boston,	Chelmsford,	27-00
Rail-roads in Maine.				Fairlee,	Lowell,	Worcester,	1-50
Bangor and Orono,	Bangor,	Orono,	10-00	Blackstone,	Providence,	Worcester,	4-00
Canals in New Hampshire.				Hampshire and Hampton,	Coun. Line,	Northampton,	22-00
New Falls,			0-75	Montague Falls,			8-00
Brook Falls,			0-13	South Hadley Falls,			8-00
Amherst Falls,			1-00	Rail-roads in Massachusetts.			
Winooski Falls,			8-00	Eastern,	Boston,	N. H. Line,	38-00
St. Albans Falls,			0-9	Boston and Lowell,	Boston,	Lowell,	26-00
Rail-roads in New Hampshire.				Boston and Portland,	Wilmington,	Exeter, N. H.,	34-00
Eastern,	Mass. Line,	Portsmouth,	18-17	Charlestown,	Charlestown,		1-75
Boston and Lowell,			14-25	Boston and Worcester,	Boston,	Worcester,	45-00
Canals in Vermont.				Milbury Branch,		Milbury,	8-28
White River Falls,			0-50	Western,	Worcester,	W. Stock's,	115-00
Bellevue Falls,			0-16	Boston and Providence,	Boston,	Providence,	41-00
Waterbury,			0-40	Dedham Branch,		Dedham,	8-00
				Taunton Branch,	Mansfield,	Taunton,	11-00
				Taunton and New Bedford,	Taunton,	New Bedford,	50-00

83 miles in Massachusetts.

114 miles in New Hampshire.

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soners and engineers.
500 miles of excellent
communication they
frequent districts.
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under the control of
private individuals,
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be better laid out by
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L. 248.57
L. 1,073.94
L. 62.50
L. 1,489.68
L. 1,48.21
L. 44.77

to them as low as pos-
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on commerce; and
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of it within due bounds,
those who benefit by
it should pay for
the navigator to resort to
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form any accurate idea
of the roads were then hardly

is more valuable, than diamonds of equal weight. The finest ruby in England, or, perhaps, in Europe, is in the collection of the late Mr. Hopo, author of "Anastasiaus."

There are two other species of ruby, the *Spinelle* and *Balaïs*. When perfect, the Spinelle is a gem of great value and scarcity. Its colour is a fine full carmine or rose red, but it never presents that rich mellow tinge that attends the Oriental ruby. It is also inferior to the latter in hardness and specific gravity. Stones of 3 carats and upwards are very rare and valuable.

The *Balaïs Ruby* is a pale variety of the spinelle. It varies in colour from light red to yellowish red. Though not so rare as the spinelle, it is by no means common. It is much admired for its agreeable tinge of colour; and, when pure and perfect, fetches a very high price; though considerably less than the other varieties.

Rubies are not found in any considerable quantity except in Ava.—(See *SARRAZIN*).—(Mawe on Diamonds, 2d ed. pp. 90, 101.; Thomson's Chemistry.)

RUM, a well known and highly esteemed spirituous liquor, imported from the West Indies, of which it forms one of the staple products. It is obtained, by means of fermentation and distillation, from molasses, the refuse of the cane juice, and portions of the cane, when the sugar has been extracted. The flavour and taste peculiar to rum are derived from the essential oils carried over in distillation. When the distillation has been carelessly performed, the spirit contains so large a quantity of the grosser and less volatile part of the oil as to be unfit for use till it has attained a considerable age. When it is well rectified, it mellows much sooner. Rum of a brownish transparent colour, smooth oily taste, strong body and consistence, good age, and well kept, is the best. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taste, is either too new, or mixed with other spirits. Jamaica rum is the first in point of quality; the Leeward Island rum, as it is called, being always inferior to it, both in flavour, strength, and value. The price of the latter is usually 20 per cent. below that of the former. We import all our rum in puncheons, containing from 84 to 90 gallons each. It is customary, in some of the West India islands, to put sliced pine-apples in puncheons of rum: this gives the spirit the flavour of the fruit; and hence the designation, *pine-apple rum*.

Rum is said to be much adulterated by the retail dealers in England, sometimes with corn spirit; but if done with molasses spirit, the tastes of both are so nearly allied, that the cheat is not easily discovered.

Consumption of, and Duties upon, Rum, &c.—The following Tables show the quantity of rum consumed in Great Britain and Ireland since 1800, the rates of duty charged upon it, and the produce of the duties; the quantities derived from our different colonies last year, and the countries to which the excess of imports has been again exported, &c.

L. Account, stated in Imperial Proof Gallons, of the Rum annually entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, from 1800 to 1832, both inclusive, distinguishing England, Ireland, and Scotland; the Rates of Duty payable respectively thereon; and the Produce of the Duties; and the Price of Rum in Bond since 1814. (This account has been prepared partly from published, and partly from unpublished official documents. The column of prices has been supplied principally by Mr. Cook.)

Year.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.				Rates of Duty payable (Customs and Excise.)		Nett Produce of the Duties on Great Britain.		Nett Produce of the Duties in Ireland.		Price of Jamaica Rum in Bond.
	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	In England and Scotland.	In Ireland.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Per Gal.	Per Gal.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	
1800	1,545,266	229,913	864,411	2,649,590	9 0 12	6 8 5-4	232,627	6 4	292,355	0 0	0
1801	1,837,839	348,237	1,037,218	3,084,398	9 10 12	6 8 5-4	264,177	5 8	347,455	7 9	0
1802	2,204,897	468,183	687,003	3,310,083	9 0 3-4	6 11 1-4	1,822,999	11 2	206,461	9 10	0
1803	2,573,632	378,043	536,968	3,412,611	13 4 1-4	6 5 1-4	2,059,870	13 4	285,143	7 8	0
1804	1,506,830	124,646	180,298	1,811,774	13 1 4	6 3-4	1,054,848	1 6	66,362	6 3	0
1805	1,666,384	143,693	123,049	1,933,086	13 6 1-2	6 1-2	1,331,770	0 8	66,401	2 4	0
1806	1,857,241	138,811	180,146	2,020,298	13 8 1-2	6 1-2	1,375,966	6 0	74,519	10 0	0
1807	1,969,753	226,396	210,623	2,406,772	13 8 1-2	6 1-2	1,496,914	1 6	69,776	13 3	0
1808	2,174,751	236,283	215,233	2,767,347	13 8 1-2	6 1-2	1,837,175	18 2	181,789	3 9	0
1809	2,269,625	248,325	1,083,661	3,611,611	13 7 3-4	6 1-2	1,736,074	6 8	546,747	1 7	0
1810	2,703,713	350,560	336,661	3,790,934	13 7 3-4	6 1-2	2,026,170	0 7	172,424	11 8	0
1811	2,711,943	300,396	150,290	3,162,541	13 7 3-4	6 1-2	2,066,181	4 0	177,378	3 11	0
1812	3,205,483	386,589	283,136	3,775,169	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	2,272,636	10 0	251,930	6 2	0
1813	3,041,680	341,986	463,038	3,745,714	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	2,113,237	3 7	260,606	6 0	4 5 1/2
1814	3,532,190	380,428	81,154	3,703,533	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	2,113,237	3 7	260,606	6 0	4 5 1/2
1815	3,019,304	381,748	64,833	3,385,745	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	2,240,472	17 10	41,295	8 0	3 8 1/2
1816	3,221,533	181,974	81,643	3,485,150	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	1,895,346	13 10	11,771	6 0	3 9 1/2
1817	3,178,213	188,418	80,668	3,446,311	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	1,818,223	8 0	18,223	6 0	3 9 1/2
1818	3,406,390	203,891	81,668	3,631,983	13 10 1-2	6 1-2	1,775,714	19 2	13,887	13 4	3 9 1/2
1819	3,280,180	148,965	35,735	3,464,880	13 11 1-2	6 1-2	1,730,448	4 9	16,389	14 0	3 9 1/2
1820	3,223,730	143,937	30,360	3,408,126	13 11 1-2	6 1-2	1,694,443	7 6	18,891	6 0	3 9 1/2
1821	3,166,441	138,180	18,881	3,323,213	13 11 1-2	6 1-2	1,678,377	1 4	12,538	6 0	3 9 1/2
1822	3,100,821	130,679	15,636	3,246,936	13 11 1-2	6 1-2	1,516,845	11 6	9,797	8 0	3 9 1/2
1823	3,222,525	108,662	16,171	3,347,358	13 11 1-2	6 1-2	1,593,866	16 0	11,584	6 0	3 9 1/2
1824	3,407,207	134,866	9,459	3,551,110	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,600,927	6 6	6,697	7 1	7 1-2
1825	1,950,807	104,732	10,128	2,065,667	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,376,319	19 1	6,213	19 4	6 2-3
1826	3,532,030	281,503	87,718	4,301,316	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,817,193	2 9	11,771	6 0	3 9 1/2
1827	3,040,162	165,214	23,240	3,228,616	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,380,718	1 1	9,540	10 4	4 1-2
1828	3,081,858	158,089	34,708	3,277,633	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,362,124	19 8	10,226	17 8	3 3-4
1829	3,302,143	144,478	31,662	3,478,286	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,425,748	16 6	9,462	16 6	3 3-4
1830	3,533,141	145,821	19,264	3,698,226	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,501,821	11 8	10,426	16 6	3 3-4
1831	3,479,911	123,702	18,664	3,622,277	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,621,541	0 5	8,440	8 0	3 3-4
1832	3,317,507	112,076	24,432	3,413,965	12 7 1-4	10 7 1-4	1,566,402	10 5	10,777	13 6	3 3-4

II. An Account of Account of Duty (1832, to the 30th of all other Spirits (1832, for the same

Articles.

From other foreign spirits: From the Netherlands France the East India Company the British West India other parts Total quantity of foreign spirits for home consumption

III. Account of the Colonies and Countries in the Year ended

Countries from which imported.

British colonies and from America: Antigua Barbados Demerara Grenada Jamaica Montserrat Nevis St. Christopher St. Lucia St. Vincent Tobago

IV. Account of the tries to which of January, 1832

Countries to which exported.

Spain Sweden Norway Denmark Prussia Greece The Netherlands France Portugal, the Azores Madeira Gibraltar Malta The Ionian Islands Turkey and Corsica Greece Mexico and Jamaica Guernsey, Jersey, and Malta

Though rum is very clear. During the 3 years, and in 1831, 3,100,000 gallons of the 3 years end in Ireland 12s. reduction of the above 3,600,000 consumption, it has since declined by the high price. The decrease

II. An Account of the Total Number of Gallons of Rum entered for Home Consumption, with the Amount of Duty paid thereon, in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, from the 5th of January, 1830, to the 5th of January, 1833, distinguishing England from Scotland; and also, a similar Account of all other Spirits from Foreign Countries, entered for Home Consumption, distinguishing such Countries, for the same Year.—(Parl. Paper, No. 320, Sess. 1833.)

Articles.	Great Britain.			Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	England.	Scotland.	Total.		
	Proof Gallons.	Proof Gallons.	Proof Gallons.		
Rum	5,371,507	112,268	5,483,775	24,438	5,508,213
Other foreign spirits	17,451	7,870	25,321	1,484	26,805
From the Netherlands	1,608,256	61,120	1,669,376	21,717	1,691,093
From the East India Company's territories and Mauritius	737	-	737	-	737
From the British West Indies	2,016	764	2,780	210	2,990
Other parts	1,588	72	1,660	2	1,662
Total quantity of foreign spirits entered for home consumption	4,908,495	181,282	5,089,777	27,845	5,117,622
Rum	1,480,102 1 11	80,411 14 8	1,570,613 16 1	10,986 12 6	1,581,609 2 7
Other foreign spirits	1,722,169 0 7	77,489 19 1	1,799,658 0 6	37,539 6 8	1,837,208 6 8
Total receipt of duty on foreign spirits	8,926,261 2 6	127,801 14 1	9,054,062 16 7	48,744 15 8	9,102,807 9 4

III. Account of the quantity of Rum imported into the United Kingdom, distinguishing the several Colonies and Countries from which the same was imported; and the Quantity imported from each, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1833.

Countries from which imported.	Rum imported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.			Countries from which imported.	Rum imported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.		
	Into Great Britain.	Into Ireland.	Into the United Kingdom.		Into Great Britain.	Into Ireland.	Into the United Kingdom.
British colonies and plantations in America, &c.	97,223	1,940	99,163	Tortola	158	-	158
Antigua	5,700	40	5,740	Trinidad	1,797	3,759	5,556
Bahama	24,569	-	24,569	Bermuda	30	-	30
Dominica	101,650	4	101,654	Dominica	1,900,879	2,468	1,903,347
Grenada	2,735,233	1,718	2,736,951	Berberice	182,194	-	182,194
Jamaica	11,504	-	11,504	British N. American colonies	13,716	-	13,716
Montserrat	11,189	-	11,189	Foreign colonies in the West Indies, &c.	10,807	-	10,807
St. Christopher	29,951	-	29,951	St. Thomas and St. Croix	1,233	-	1,233
St. Lucia	4,075	2,469	6,544	Other countries	-	-	-
St. Vincent	29,728	-	29,728	Total	4,741,367	12,422	4,753,789
Tobago	331,651	-	331,651				

IV. Account of the Quantity of Rum exported from the United Kingdom, distinguishing the Countries and Countries from which the same was exported, and the quantity exported to each, in the year ended 5th of January, 1833.

Countries to which exported.	Rum exported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.			Countries to which exported.	Rum exported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.		
	From Great Britain.	From Ireland.	From the United Kingdom.		From Great Britain.	From Ireland.	From the United Kingdom.
Russia	64,917	387	65,304	Cape of Good Hope	12,493	-	12,493
Sweden	14,342	-	14,342	Other parts of Africa	217,683	165	217,848
Norway	5,281	-	5,281	East Indies and China	38,176	-	38,176
Denmark	64,423	-	64,423	New South Wales, Swan River, and Van Diemen's Land	327,911	-	327,911
Prussia	369,811	40	369,851	British North American colonies	68,826	14,535	83,361
Germany	222,846	-	222,846	Ireland	17,334	1,468	18,802
The Netherlands	145,404	-	145,404	British West Indies	4,017	-	4,017
France	1,981	40	2,021	United States of America	7,109	2,045	9,154
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira	10,778	169	10,947	Mexico	318	-	318
Spain and the Canaries	6,622	99	6,721	Columbia	133	-	133
Gallicia	18,980	906	19,886	Brazil	3,078	195	3,273
Italy	113,281	-	113,281	States of the Rio de la Plata	890	-	890
Main	11,642	-	11,642	Chili	4,957	-	4,957
The Ionian Islands	13,644	-	13,644	Peru	2,923	-	2,923
Tulay and Constantinople	13,644	-	13,644	The Whale Fisheries	6,213	-	6,213
Greece	61,673	166	61,839	Total	2,304,334	18,011	2,322,345
Mosca and Greek Islands	96	-	96				
Gouern. Jersey, Alderney, &c. Ma	90,317	-	90,317				

Though rum has not been so much over-taxed as brandy, geneva, and wine, still it seems pretty clear that even, in its case, taxation has been carried far beyond its proper limits. During the 3 years ending with 1802, when the duty in Great Britain was about 9s. a gallon, and in Ireland 6s. 8½d., the consumption of the United Kingdom amounted to 3,150,000 gallons a year; while, notwithstanding the great increase of population, during the 3 years ending with 1823, when the duty in Great Britain was 13s. 11½d. a gallon, and in Ireland 12s. 8½d., the annual consumption amounted to only 2,307,000 gallons! The reduction of the duty in 1826 to 8s. 6d. increased the consumption from about 2,500,000 to above 3,600,000 gallons in 1830. But 6d. having been added to the duty in 1830, the consumption, influenced no doubt partly by this, but probably also by other circumstances, has since declined. The great demand for rum from 1811 to 1815 was occasioned chiefly by the high price and inferior quality of the British spirits that were then manufactured. The decrease in the consumption of rum in Ireland is most striking. Unfortunately,

in England, or, per Anastasius." perfect, the Spinelle be of rose red, but it is also inferior to upwards are very rare from light red to common. It is much, fetches a very high (See **SERRAVALLE**.) d from the West means of fermentation of the cane, after the derived from the essentially performed, of the oil as to be un- rectified, it mellow- ate, strong body and mpid colour, and the ca rum is the best inferior to it, both in er cent. below that of 84 to 90 gallons each - applies in pineapple designation, **pine-apple** , sometimes with corn allied, that the cheap- ible show the quantity duty charged upon it, ent colonies last year, ted, &c. R Home Consumption in end, Ireland, and Scot- the Duties; and the Price published, and partly from nally by Mr. Cook)

Year	Per Gallon	Per Gallon
1775	3 0	2 4
1780	3 0	2 4
1785	3 0	2 4
1790	3 0	2 4
1795	3 0	2 4
1800	3 0	2 4
1805	3 0	2 4
1810	3 0	2 4
1815	3 0	2 4
1820	3 0	2 4
1825	3 0	2 4
1830	3 0	2 4
1835	3 0	2 4
1840	3 0	2 4
1845	3 0	2 4
1850	3 0	2 4
1855	3 0	2 4
1860	3 0	2 4
1865	3 0	2 4
1870	3 0	2 4
1875	3 0	2 4
1880	3 0	2 4
1885	3 0	2 4
1890	3 0	2 4
1895	3 0	2 4
1900	3 0	2 4
1905	3 0	2 4
1910	3 0	2 4
1915	3 0	2 4
1920	3 0	2 4
1925	3 0	2 4
1930	3 0	2 4
1935	3 0	2 4
1940	3 0	2 4
1945	3 0	2 4
1950	3 0	2 4
1955	3 0	2 4
1960	3 0	2 4
1965	3 0	2 4
1970	3 0	2 4
1975	3 0	2 4
1980	3 0	2 4
1985	3 0	2 4
1990	3 0	2 4
1995	3 0	2 4
2000	3 0	2 4

however, this is not the only instance the sister kingdom affords of the destructive effects of oppressive taxes. The excessive additions made to the duties on brandy, wine, sugar, &c. since 1805, have had similar effects; the quantity of these articles consumed in Ireland being decidedly less now than it was 30 years ago!—(See BRANDY, SUGAR, &c.) Exorbitant taxes have gone far to deprive the Irish of every comfort; and, consequently, to take from them some of the most powerful incentives to industry and good conduct. The poverty of the people has set at nought the calculations of our finance ministers; every increase of taxation in Ireland having produced a diminution of revenue and an increase of crime! Surely it is high time to abandon so odious a system; particularly after the experience of the beneficial effects that have resulted from the diminution of the spirit duties. As a means of raising revenue, the taxation of Ireland is utterly ineffective; but the wit of man never contrived any thing better fitted to produce barbarism and disaffection.

Rum, the produce of the British possessions in America, is not liable to the duty charged on sweetened spirits, unless the actual strength exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer by more than 10 degrees per cent.; and in lieu of such duty there shall be charged upon every degree per cent. more than 3 degrees, and not more than 10 degrees, by which the actual strength shall exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer, a duty of 9s. 6d.; provided, that if the importer cannot make a perfect entry thereof for payment of duty on the actual strength, he may demand in writing, upon the entry, that trial be made of the actual strength (the paying the expenses of such trial), instead of entering such rum for the payment of duty upon any stated number of such excessive degrees of strength; provided also, that all trials of actual strength of such rum shall be made by some skilful person appointed by the commissioners of customs for such purpose.—(7 Geo. 4, c. 48, § 31.)

Rum, the produce of the British plantations, must be imported in casks containing not less than 30 gallons.—(3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 52.) But rum in casks capable of containing 30 gallons, may be imported on the officer being satisfied that the deficiency has been wholly occasioned by absorption or leakage, and not by abstraction.—(Customs Min. 24th of March, 1831.)

Rum in bonded warehouses may be drawn off into casks containing not less than 30 gallons each, as for ships, and may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any such ships respectively.—(3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 57.)

Rum of the British plantations in bonded warehouses may also be drawn off into reputed quart or repated pint bottles, for the purpose of being exported from the warehouses.—(3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 57.)

On applications referring to a former order allowing the admixture of rums of different strengths for exportation, and praying that the rum remaining in the vats after the operation of racking might be admitted for home consumption, the Board were of opinion that the request might be complied with, to the extent of an allowance of 20 gallons, the legal quantity allowed to be exported, and that the duty should be paid, according to the strength, at the time of delivery of the said rum.—(Min. Com. Cas. 27th of Sept. 1837.)

Before any rum shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession in America, or of the Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same must deliver a certificate of origin to the collector or comptroller, and subscribe a declaration that the goods are the produce of such place.—(3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 52, § 37; see ante, 8.)

RUSSIA COMPANY, a regulated company for conducting the trade with Russia. It was first incorporated by charter of Philip and Mary, sanctioned by act of parliament in 1566. The statute 10 & 11 Will. 3, c. 6, enacts, that every British subject desiring admission into the Russia Company shall be admitted on paying 5*l.*; and every individual admitted into the Company conducts his business entirely as a private adventurer, or as he would do were the Company abolished.

Table of Duties payable to the Russia Company.

		d.	s.				
Almsed	the cwt.	0	5	Skins and furs, viz.—			
Asbes, pearl and pot	the ton	0	9	Fox	the hundred	0	11
Books, bound	the cwt.	0	3	Hares	the 100 dozen	0	3
unbound	the cwt.	0	2	Sables	the zimmer	0	10
Bristles	the dozen lb.	0	0 1/4	Swan	each	0	0
Castoreum	the lb.	0	1	Tallow	the ton	0	10
Caviars	the cwt.	0	2	Tongues	the hundred	0	2
Coriages	the cwt.	0	3	Tow	the ton	0	8
Down	the 100 lbs.	0	4	Wax, bees'	the cwt.	0	2
Feathers, bed	the cwt.	0	4	Wheat	the quarter	0	1
Flax	the ton	0	9	Wood, viz.—			
Hair, cow or ox	the cwt.	0	2	Balks above 8 inches sq.	the 120	0	4
Hemp	the ton	0	7	under do.	the 120	0	3
Hides, of cows or horses, undressed	each	0	1 1/2	Barrils boards	the 120	0	1
red or Muscovy	each	0	1	Battens	the 120	0	1 1/2
Iron	the ton	0	5	Capravens	the 120	0	3
Maglans	the cwt.	0	4	Clay boards	the 120	0	1
Lines drillings	the 120 ells	0	1 1/2	Deals under 20 feet long	the 120	0	4
narrow or diaper	the 120 ells	0	2	do. above do.	the 120	0	3
22 1/2 to 31 1/2	the 120 ells	0	3	Fire wood	the 100bm	0	1
31 1/2 to 45	the 120 ells	0	3	Fir timber	the 120	0	1
45 and upwards	the 120 ells	0	3	Handspikes	the 120	0	1 1/2
mit cloth	the 120 ells	0	5	Headwood	the 100bm	0	1 1/2
Limeed	the quarter	0	2	Masts, great	each	0	2
Mals	the hundred	0	2	all others	each	0	1
Malts	the quarter	0	1	Oak beards	the 120	0	3
Pitch	the last	0	2	plank	the load	0	1
Rhubarb	the lb.	0	1 1/2	Timber	the load	0	3
Rosin	the cwt.	0	1 1/2	Oars	the 120	0	1 1/2
Saltpetre	the cwt.	0	1 1/2	Fire gun boards	the 120	0	1
Seeds, garden	the 100 lbs.	0	3	Spars	the 120	0	3
Skins and furs, viz.—				Staves	the 120	0	1
Armin or zmines	the zimmer of 40 skins 0	0	2	the last	the last	0	2
Bees'	each	0	2	Waincoat logs	the load	0	2
Calalar	the zimmer	0	2	All goods not enumerated, pay 1 1/2 per cent. ad valorem on the declaration of the importer.			
Calf	the hundred	0	3				

RUSSIA LEATHER (Fr. *Cuir de Russie*; Ger. *Juffen*; It. *Cuojo di Russia*; Pol. *Jachta*; Russ. *Juff, Youft*; Sp. *Moscovia*), the tanned hides of oxen and other kind, denominated by the Russians *youfts*, or *juffs*,—a designation said to be derived from their being

generally manufactured of the empire, but a strongly promising in principally of and other countries. The being made up preparation of this ing this circumstance in Russia, undertaking it at have hitherto en following out a st General du Com We borrow from posed to this article. Since the ports of the country decreased more easily, cheaply in its Prussia, Germany, and the trade in Juffs are no longer supposed that a great amount at the first and sometimes even Juffs are asserted to be made in the North Sea, &c. D Juffs are bought upon contained in the lot for purchasing it in Juffs are sold by the by this is understood observed that the Juffs are packed in paper in a bundle, the red are most in equal size, and unequal thin. In a Juffs are seen, folded neatly. The be done. Great attention must be sufficient to injure fifty rolls of Juff goods a ton in England. The export of Juff goods value was

RYE (Ger. R Centeno; Russ. but it is very do fine immemorial other grain. It more certain cro Germany and R com; and, there Ency. of Agric For the regul and Coun Tr

SABLE (G weasel tribe, fo size of its fur fine glossy bl rarely, been fo scarce and dea SADDLES adapted to the are reckoned 2 x 2

The consumption of sago has been about trebled during the last dozen years; having amounted to 1,200 cwt. a year at an average of the 3 years ending with 1822, and to 3,859 cwt. a year at an average of the years ending with 1832. This large increase is wholly ascribable to the reduction in the amount of the oppressive duties by which the article was formerly loaded.—(*Papers published by the Board of Trade.*) The price of common sago in bond varies from 12s. to 11s.; while pearl sago fetches from 15s. to 11. 15s. a cwt.; but the price is liable to great fluctuation.

SAIL, a coarse linen or canvass sheet attached to the masts and yards of ships, the sides of windmills, &c., to intercept the wind and occasion their movement.

Foreign sails, when imported by, and fit and necessary for, and in the actual use of any British ship, are exempted from duty; but when otherwise disposed of, they pay a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.—(9 Geo. 4. c. 78. § 12.)

Sails and cordage of British manufacture, exported from Great Britain to the colonies, and afterwards imported into the United Kingdom, are in all cases, other than those in which they are imported by bill of lading, to be deemed foreign; and such sails and cordage, although not liable to duty so long as the vessel continues to belong to the colony, become subject to the duties in question as soon as the vessel becomes the property of persons residing in this country.—(*Treasury Order*, 20th of Jan., 1824.)

SALPEP, a species of powder prepared from the dried roots of a plant of the orchid kind (*Orchis mascula* Lin.). That which is imported from India is in white oval pieces, hard, clear, and pellucid, without smell, and tasting like tragacanth. As an article of diet, it is said to be light, bland, and nutritious. The plant thrives in England, but it is not cultivated to any extent; and very little is imported.—*Ainslie's Mat. Medica; Milburn's Orient. Com.*

SALMON (Ger. *Lachs*, *Salm*; Fr. *Saumon*; It. *Sermone*, *Salamone*; Sp. *Salmon*; Bas. *Lemga*). This capital fish is too well known to require any description. It is found only in northern seas, being unknown in the Mediterranean and other warm regions. In this country it is an article of much value and importance. It is exceedingly abundant in Japan and Kamtschatka.

"Salmon fisheries," Marshall observes, "are copious and constant sources of human food; they teach next to agriculture. They have, indeed, one advantage over every other internal produce,—their increase does not lessen other articles of human subsistence. The salmon does not prey on the produce of the soil, nor does it owe its size and nutritive qualities to the destruction of its compatriot tribes. It leaves its native river at an early state of growth; and going, even naturalists know not where, returns of ample size, and rich in human nourishment; exposing itself in the narrowest streams, as if nature intended it as a special boon to man. In every stage of savageness and civilization, the salmon must have been considered as a valuable benefaction to this country."

Being rarely caught, except in estuaries or rivers, the salmon may be considered in a great degree as a private property. The London market, where the consumption is immense, is principally supplied from the Scotch rivers. The Tweed fishery is the first in point of magnitude of any in the kingdom; the take is sometimes quite astonishing, several hundreds having been frequently taken by a single sweep of the net. Salmon are despatched in fast sailing vessels from the Spey, the Tay, the Tweed, and other Scotch rivers, for London, packed in ice, by which means they are preserved quite fresh. When the season is at its height, and the catch greater than can be taken off fresh, it is salted, pickled, or dried for winter consumption at home, and for foreign markets. Formerly, such parts of the Scotch salmon as was not consumed at home, was pickled and kitted after being boiled, and was in this state sent up to London under the name of Newcastle salmon; but the present method of disposing of the fish has so raised its value, as to have nearly deprived all but the richer inhabitants in the environs of the fishery of the use of salmon. Within the memory of many now living, salted salmon formed a material article of household economy in all the farm-houses in the vale of the Tweed; inasmuch, that the door servants used to stipulate that they should not be obliged to take more than two weekly meals of salmon. Its ordinary price was then 2s. a stone of 19 lbs.; but it is now never below 12s., often 16s., and sometimes 42s. a stone. This rise in the price of the fish has produced a corresponding rise in the value of the salmon fisheries, some of which yield very large rents. The total value of the salmon caught in the Scotch rivers has been estimated at 150,000*l.* a year. There are considerable fisheries in some of the Irish and English rivers; but inferior to those of Scotland.—(*London's Encyc. of Agriculture; General Report of Scotland*, vol. iii. p. 327.)

Decrease of the Supply of Salmon, Peaching, &c.—The decrease of salmon in the English and Scotch rivers, particularly of late years, is a fact as to which there can be no manner of doubt. Much unsatisfactory discussion has taken place as to its causes, which are, probably, of a very diversified character. A good deal has been ascribed to the increase of water machinery on the banks of the different rivers; but we hardly think that this could have much influence, except, perhaps, in the case of the smaller class of rivers. *Wairs*, or salmon traps, have also been much objected to; though, as we have seen, with all less reason. On the whole, we are inclined to think that the falling off in the supply of this valuable fish is principally to be ascribed to the temptation to over-fish the rivers, caused by the extraordinary rise in the price of salmon; to the prevalence of poaching; and, more than all, to the too limited duration of the *close times*. In 1823, after a great deal of discussion and inquiry, an act was passed (9 Geo. 4. c. 39.), which has done a good deal to remedy these defects—in so far, at least, as respects the Scotch fisheries. The rivers are to be shut from the 14th of September to the 1st of February; and every person catching or attempting to catch fish during that period is to forfeit not more than 1*l.* and not more than 10*l.* for every offence, besides the fish, if he have caught any, and such boats, nets, or other implements, as he may have made use of. Pecuniary penalties are also inflicted upon poachers and trespassers; and provision is made for the watching of the rivers. We understand that this act has had a very good effect; though it is believed that it would be better were the *close time* extended from the 1st of September to the middle of February.

It is enacted by stat. 1 Geo. 1. at. 2. c. 18, that no salmon shall be sent to any fishmonger or fish-seller in England, of less than 6 lbs. weight, under a penalty of 5*l.* The 58 Geo. 3. c. 43. authorises the Justices at quarter sessions to appoint conservators of rivers, and to fix the beginning and termination of the *close time*. The penalty upon poaching and taking fish in *close times* is by the same act fixed at not more than 10*l.* and not less than 5*l.*, with forfeiture of fish, boats, nets, &c.

SALONICA, a large city and sea-port of European Turkey, at the north-east extremity of the gulf of the same name, in lat. 40° 38' 47" N., lon. 22° 57' 13" E. Population estimated at 70,000. There is no port at Salonica, but there is excellent

anchorage in the roads opposite to the town. The access to them is by no means difficult. Pilots, however, are, for the most part, employed; and of these, some are always on the look-out. During that period of the late war when the anti-commercial system of Napoleon was at its height, Salonica became a great *depôt* for British goods; whence they were conveyed to Germany, Russia, and other parts of Europe. At all times, however, Salonica has a considerable trade. The exports principally consist of wheat, barley, Indian corn, timber, raw cotton, wool, raw silk, wax, and tobacco. The average exportation of cotton is said to be about 100,000 bales; of tobacco about 30,000 bales; each bale containing about 275 lbs. The export of wool is said to amount to about 1,000,000 lbs. The imports are sugar, coffee, dye woods, indigo, muslins, printed calicoes, iron, lead, tin, watches, &c.

Arrivals.—In 1831, there arrived at Salonica 535 vessels, of the burden of 31,205 tons.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or 120 aspers. The coins are those of Constantinople; which see.

The weights and measures are the same as those of Smyrna, except that the kistoz, kellow, or common measure of Salonica, = 376 kistoz of Smyrna.

SALT (*Ger. Salz; Du. Zout; Fr. Sel; It. Sale; Sp. Sal; Rus. Sol; Lat. Sals; Arab. Melh; Chin. Yen; Hind. Nimuck; Per. Nun*), the *chloride of sodium* of modern chemists, has been known and in common use as a seasoner and preserver of food from the earliest ages. Immense masses of it are found in this and many other countries which require only to be dug out and reduced to powder. In that state it is called rock-salt. The water of the ocean also contains a great deal of salt; to which, indeed, it owes its taste, and the power which it possesses of resisting freezing till cooled down to 28°5'. When this water is sufficiently evaporated, the salt precipitates in crystals. This is the common process by which it is obtained in many countries. There are various processes by which it may be obtained quite pure. Common salt usually crystallises in cubes. Its taste is universally known, and is what is strictly denominated salt. Its specific gravity is 2.125. It is soluble in 2.82 times its weight of cold water and in 2.76 times its weight of boiling water.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Besides its vast utility in seasoning food, and preserving meat both for domestic consumption and during the longest voyages, and in furnishing muriatic acid and soda, salt forms a glaze for coarse pottery, by being thrown into the oven where it is baked; it improves the whiteness and clearness of glass; it gives hardness to soap; in melting metals, it preserves their surface from calcination, by defending them from the air, and is employed with advantage in some assays; it is used as a mordant, and for imparting certain colours; and enters more or less into many other processes of the arts. Many contradictory statements have been made as to the use of salt as a manure. Probably it may be advantageous in some situations, and not in others.

Salt Mines, Springs, &c.—The principal salt mines are at Wielitka in Poland, Catalonia in Spain, Altemonte in Calabria, Loowur in Hungary, in many places in Asia and Africa, and in Chester in this country. The mines at Wielitka are upon a very large scale; but the statements that have frequently been published of their containing villages, inhabited by colonies of miners who never saw the light, are altogether without foundation. These mines have been wrought for more than 600 years.—(*Cox's Travels in the North of Europe*, vol. i. p. 149, 8vo. ed.)

The salt mines in the neighbourhood of Northwich in Cheshire are very extensive. They have been wrought since 1670; and the quantity of salt obtained from them is greater, probably, than is obtained from any other salt mines in the world. In its solid form, when dug from the mine, Cheshire salt is not sufficiently pure for use. To purify it, it is dissolved in sea water, from which it is afterwards separated by evaporation and crystallisation. The greater part of this salt is exported.

Salt springs are met with in several countries. Those in Cheshire and Worcestershire furnish a large proportion of the salt made use of in Great Britain. The brine, being pumped up from very deep wells, is evaporated in wrought iron pans from 20 to 30 feet square and 10 or 12 inches deep, placed over a furnace.

Most of the salt used in Scotland previously to the repeal of the duty, was obtained by the evaporation of sea water nearly in the way now mentioned; but several of the Scotch salt works have since been relinquished.

In warm countries, salt is obtained by the evaporation of sea water by the heat of the sun; and the crystals of salt made in this way are more perfect, and purer, from the greater slowness of the process. French salt is manufactured in this mode, and it has always been in considerable demand in this and other countries; but the principal imports of foreign salt into Great Britain at present are from Portugal. They amount, at an average, to from 300,000 to 350,000 bushels a year.

Consumption of Salt.—The consumption of salt in this country is immense. Necker estimated the consumption in those provinces of France which had purchased an exemption from the *gabelle* (the *francs r dimees*) at about 194 lbs. (Eng.) for each individual.—(*Administration des Finances*, tome 1. p. 12.) From all that we have been able to learn on the subject, we believe that the consumption of the people of this country may be estimated a little higher, or at 22 lbs.; the difference in our food and habits, as compared with the French, fully accounting for this increased allowance. On this supposition, and taking the population at 16,500,000, the entire consumption will amount to 353,000,000 lbs. or 161,000 tons.

Exclusive of this immense home consumption, we annually export about 10,000,000 bushels, which, at 56 lbs. a bushel, are equivalent to 560,000 tons. The Americans are the largest consumers of British salt; the exports to the United States in 1831 having amounted to 3,130,250 bushels. During the same year we exported to the Netherlands, 1,031,601 bushels; to the British North America colonies, 1,550,680 do.; to Russia, 1,191,806 do.; to Prussia, 624,100 do., &c.

The cheapness of this important necessary of life is not less remarkable than its diffusion. Its present cost may be estimated, at a medium, at from 1s. to 10s. a ton.

Duties on Salt.—In ancient Rome, salt was subjected to a duty (*vectigal salinarum*; see *Strabo*,

Dispositio de Vectig publico, et code of an persons are calcu with these laws, the (Young's Travels in of William III. In book, or about fo worst effects; and the fisheries, a vast been strongly pro That the repeal of not seeing that a lar sally relinquishing th allowed for the fish but the absurd exte on, a produced abou

[For the quanti see article Ixrom region beyond the following extract within the conditio Some new manuf The legislature a depth, in the village 60,000, including 40 From some cause the present season, The principal well is 150 or 155 feet, and cost about 4350. A well has been brine of strong qual The well at Byracu The quantity of 600,125 bushels. Th more than 1350. The annual increa this doubling the q over the quantity q per bushel, of abou

Statement of the Revenue Springs, &c.
The net revenue from the the Comptroller's office,
In 1816 . . .
1820 . . .
1821 . . .
1822 . . .
1823 . . .
1824 . . .

A table showing the amount to 1825, and the
1825 . . .
1826 . . .
1827 . . .
1828 . . .
1829 . . .
1830 . . .
1831 . . .
1832 . . .
1833 . . .
1834 . . .
1835 . . .
1836 . . .
1837 . . .
1838 . . .

SALTPETRE
It. Nitro, Salnit; Hind. Shorah), be regarded both of the soil in that is known in that has been fo from Bengal in petre forms the various arts. It large amount of siderable antisept transparent cryst upon burning con exposure to the Beckmann cont

* Act passed after Lake Erie, or Can

Decretum de Pectigilibus Pap. Rom. c. 6.); and it has been heavily taxed in most modern states. The *gabelle*, or code of salt laws, formerly established in France, was most oppressive. From 4,000 to 5,000 persons are calculated to have been sent annually to prison and the galleys for offences committed under these laws, the severity of which had no inconsiderable share in bringing about the Revolution.—(*Journal de Trévise in France*, vol. 1. p. 594.) In this country, duties upon salt were imposed in the reign of William III. In 1793, they amounted to 5s. a bushel; but were subsequently increased to 15s. a bushel, or about forty times the cost of the salt! So exorbitant a duty was productive of the worst effects; and occasioned, by its magnitude, and the regulations for allowing salt, duty free, to the fisheries, a vast deal of smuggling. The opinion of the public and of the House of Commons having been strongly pronounced against the tax, it was finally repealed in 1825. That the repeal of a large revenue must be raised, we question whether government acted wisely in totally relinquishing the tax. Had the duty been reduced to 2s. or 2s. 6d. a bushel, and no duty free salt allowed for the fisheries, but a drawback given on the fish exported, a revenue of 1,000,000l. a year might have been derived from this source with but little injury. It was not the nature of the salt tax, but the absurd extent to which it had been carried, that rendered it justly odious. When at the highest, it produced about 1,500,000l. a year.

(For the quantity and value of the salt which is annually imported into the United States see article **IMPORTS AND EXPORTS**. A great quantity of salt is, however, produced in the region beyond the Alleghanias, and at Salina and elsewhere in the state of New York. The following extract from a Report made to the legislature of this state, in January, 1839, exhibits the condition of its salt-works.

Some new manufactories have been erected, and a few manufacturers have enlarged their cisterns. The legislature appropriated in 1838 \$8,000 for the purpose of sinking a shaft or well 600 feet in depth, in the village of Salina, and a well has been sunk to the depth of 550 feet, which will cost about \$2,000, including \$500 for a set of drill poles.

From some causes unknown, the brine obtained at one of the wells in the village of Geddes, during the present season, has been from three to seven per cent. weaker than that usual in other villages. The principal well is now 130 feet deep and 3½ inches in diameter; it is proposed to increase the depth to 100 or 180 feet, and the diameter to 6½ inches, and to tube it so as to include the surface water—to cost about \$450.

A well has been opened in Salina, and one in Syracuse. That at Salina was sunk 100 feet, and brine of strong quality was found, but so limited in quantity as to be useless—it has been abandoned. The well at Syracuse is 150 feet deep, and brine of good quality is obtained.

The quantity of salt manufactured in 1838 exceeds that of 1837 by 413,745 bushels; and of 1836 by 428,173 bushels. The net revenue of 1838 amounts to \$23,860-88 more than in 1837, and is \$25,366-60 more than in 1836.

The annual increase since 1826, with the exception of 1836 and 1837, appears to be about equal to a ratio doubling the quantity in nine years, and trebling in twelve. At the same rate for the next twelve years the quantity would be little less than eight millions of bushels, yielding a revenue, at six cents per bushel, of about half a million of dollars.

Statement of the Revenue accruing from the Onondaga Salt Springs, from the year 1817 to 1825.

The net revenue from the duties on salt, as appears by the books in the Comptrolr's office, was

1817	62,530 02
1820	62,469 10
1821	67,703 12
1822	67,548 03
1823	58,831 74
1824	75,407 89
1825	83,533 32

Table showing the amount of Salt inspected annually from 1826 to 1838, and the annual increase of the same.

1826	827,508	Increase.
1827	985,410	157,902
1828	1,160,466	175,056
1829	1,391,280	230,814
1830	1,435,148	44,868
1831	1,514,037	78,889
1832	1,672,985	158,948
1833	1,838,640	165,655
1834	1,843,212	104,606
1835	2,318,487	475,275
1836	1,612,958	
1837	2,161,397	548,439
1838	2,576,032	414,635

Salt inspected in 1838.

	Bushels.	lbs.
Salina	1,238,210-08	
Syracuse	853,649-38	
Liverpool	540,147-69	
Geddes	222,125-14	
Total	2,854,032-38	56 lbs.

Number of manufactories in the town of Salina,

January 1, 1838	144
Dn. pans and kettles	4,478
Dn. superficial feet of vats	6,948
Dn. galleys and kettles	344,437

Coarse Salt Companies.

	Superficial feet of Vats.
Onondaga Salt Company	618,000
Syracuse do.	684,458
Henry Clifford do.	119,898
B. C. Brewer do at Geddes	67,198
Total	1,479,554

Am. Ed.]

SALTPETRE, or **NITRATE** or **POTASH** (Ger. *Salpeter*; Fr. *Nitre, Salpêtre*; It. *Nitro, Salnitro*; Sp. *Nitro, Salitre*; Rus. *Senitra*; Lat. *Nitrum*; Arab. *Ubkir*; Hind. *Shorah*), a salt well known in commerce, and of very great importance. It may be regarded both as a natural and an artificial production; being found on the surface of the soil in many parts of India, Egypt, Italy, &c.; but in these and other places all that is known in commerce is obtained by an artificial process, or by lixiviating earth that has been formed into *nitre* beds. The saltpetre consumed in England is brought from Bengal in an impure state, but crystallised, in bags, each containing 164 lbs. Saltpetre forms the principal ingredient in the manufacture of gunpowder; and is used in various arts. It is also of great utility in the commerce of India, from its furnishing a large amount of dead weight for the shipping engaged in it. Saltpetre possesses considerable antiseptic power. That which is of the best quality and well refined, is in long transparent crystals; its taste is sharp, bitterish, and cooling; it flames much when thrown upon burning coals; it is very brittle; its specific gravity is 1.933. It is not altered by exposure to the air.

Beckmann contends, in a long and elaborate dissertation (*Hist. of Insect.* vol. iv. pp. 525—586. Eng

* Act passed allowing a bounty of three cents per measured bushel on coarse salt sent to the Hudson, Lake Erie, or Canada.

ed), that the ancients were unacquainted with saltpetre, and that their *nitrum* was really an hallucinatory salt. But, as saltpetre is produced naturally in considerable quantities in Egypt, it is difficult to suppose that they could be entirely ignorant of it; though it would appear that they had not confounded it with other things. It has been known in the East from a very early period. Beckmann, however, is of opinion with those who believe that gunpowder was invented in India, and brought by the Saracens from Africa to the Europeans; who improved its manufacture, and made it available for warlike purposes.—(Vol. iv. p. 571.)

The consumption of saltpetre during periods of war is very great. Its price is consequently liable to extreme fluctuation. In remarking on the varieties in the price of saltpetre, Mr. Tooke observes, "It reached its greatest height in 1798, viz., 170s. a cwt.; in 1799, it fell at one time to 45s. and rose again to 96s. It seems to have been affected considerably by the series of hostilities on the Continent. But in consequence of the discoveries in chemistry, by which the French were enabled to dispense with a foreign supply, and by the increased importation from India to this country, by which we were enabled to supply the rest of the Continent at a reduced cost, the price declined permanently after 1798-9, when it had reached 145s.; and never after was so high as 100s.; except during the short interval of speculation in exports during the peace of 1814, and again upon the breaking out of the war terminated by the battle of Waterloo." The price of saltpetre in the London market varies at the present moment (January, 1834) from 32s. to 40s. a cwt.

We are indebted for the following comprehensive statement of the importation, consumption, &c. of East Indian saltpetre to Mr. Cook's *State of the Commerce of Great Britain in 1833*.

Imports, Deliveries, Prices, and Stocks of East Indian Saltpetre during the 10 Years ending with 1833.

Years.	Imports.			Deliveries.			Average Price during the Year.	Stock. £100 of the Year.
	By the E. I. Company.	By the Private Trade.	Total.	For Exports.	Quantity charged with Duty.	Total.		
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	l. s. d.	Tons.
1824	1,570	8,170	7,740	2,550	6,780	6,430	1 1 0	12,320
1825	1,720	3,180	4,880	2,530	5,620	5,150	1 5 6	9,560
1826	1,700	4,860	6,560	3,620	6,100	5,720	1 1 10	8,120
1827	1,680	5,250	6,930	3,250	7,270	6,750	1 3 4	7,450
1828	2,100	8,140	10,240	3,450	8,550	12,040	1 5 4	4,520
1829	4,380	4,680	9,060	3,230	7,750	10,060	1 4 11	4,910
1830	3,270	4,580	7,850	750	7,150	7,500	1 15 0	5,320
1831	1,850	6,950	8,800	1,510	7,770	8,290	2 0 6	2,660
1832	3,720	10,180	13,880	1,510	9,570	11,340	1 14 1	3,820
1833	3,250	6,310	9,560	950	7,750	8,700	1 15 0	4,690
Average of 10 years.	2,305	6,415	8,722	3,066	7,445*	8,511		

Within the last 3 years, a new species of saltpetre, under the denomination of *nitrate of soda*, has been received from South America. The imports of it have increased from 70 tons in 1831, to 1,467 tons in 1833. Though not applicable to all the purposes for which East India saltpetre is used, it is preferred by vitriol makers, and by some other classes of manufacturers. The deliveries of this description for home consumption have been in 1831, 70 tons; in 1832, 690 do.; and in 1833, 1,310.—(in loc. cit.)

SALVAGE, as the term is now understood, is an allowance or compensation made to those by whose exertions ships or goods have been saved from the dangers of the sea, fire, pirates, or enemies.

The propriety and justice of making such an allowance must be obvious to every one. It was allowed by the laws of Rhodes, Oleron, and Wisby; and in this respect they have been followed by all modern maritime states. At common law, the party who has saved the goods of another from loss or any imminent peril has a *lien* upon them, and may retain them in his possession till payment of a reasonable salvage.

1. *Salvage upon Losses by Perils of the Sea.*—If the salvage be performed at sea, or within high or low water mark, the Court of Admiralty has jurisdiction over the subject, and will fix the sum to be paid, and adjust the proportions, and take care of the property pending the suit; or, if a sale be necessary, direct it to be made; and divide the proceeds between the salvors and the proprietors according to equity and reason. And in fixing the rate of salvage, the court usually has regard not only to the labour and peril incurred by the salvors, but also to the situation in which they may happen to stand in respect of the property saved, to the promptitude and alacrity manifested by them, and to the value of the ship and cargo, as well as the degree of danger from which they were rescued. Sometimes the court has allowed as large a proportion as a *half* of the property saved as salvage; and in others, not more than a *tenth*.

The crew of a ship are not entitled to salvage, or any unusual remuneration for the extraordinary efforts they may have made in saving her; it being their duty as well as interest to contribute their utmost upon such occasions, the whole of their possible service being pledged to the master and owners. Neither are passengers entitled to claim any thing for the *ordinary assistance* they may have been able to afford to a vessel in distress. But a passenger is not bound to remain on board a ship in the hour of danger, provided he can leave her; and if he perform any *extraordinary services*, he is entitled to a proportional recompence.

In the case of valuable property, and of numerous proprietors and salvors, the jurisdiction and proceedings of the Court of Admiralty are well adapted to further the purposes of justice. But, as the delay and expense necessarily incident to the proceedings of a court sitting at a distance from the subject will often be very burdensome upon the

* Including from 600 to 1,000 tons annually exported in a refined state.

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in cases where the property saved is not, perhaps, very considerable, the legislature has endeavoured to introduce a more expeditious and less expensive method of proceeding.

The first act for this purpose is the 12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 18. It appears from the preamble, that the inhuman practices, once so common, of plundering ships driven on shore, and seizing whatever could be laid hold of as lawful property—(see WARREN),—had not been wholly abandoned; or that, if the property was restored to the owners, the demand for salvage was so exorbitant, that the inevitable result was the immediate consequence. To remedy those mischiefs in future, it was enacted, "that if a ship was in danger of being stranded, or being run ashore, the sheriffs, justices, mayors, constables, or officers of the customs, nearest the place of danger, should, upon application made to them, summon and call together as many men as should be thought necessary to the assistance, and for the preservation of such ship in distress, and her cargo; and that if any ship, man-of-war, or merchantman, should be riding at anchor near the place of danger, the constables and officers of the customs might demand of the superior officers of such ship the assistance of her boats, and such hands as would be spared; and that, if the superior officer should refuse to grant such assistance, he should forfeit 100*l*."

Then follows the section respecting salvage. It enacts, "that all persons employed in preserving ships or vessels in distress, or their cargoes, shall, within 30 days after the service is performed, be paid a reasonable reward for the same, by the commander, master, or other superior officer, mariners, or owners, of the ship or vessel so in distress, or by any merchant whose vessel or goods shall be so saved; and, in default thereof, the said ship or vessel so saved shall remain in the custody of the officers of the customs until all charges are paid, and until the officers of the customs, and the master or other officers of the ship or vessel, and all others employed in the preservation of the ship, shall be reasonably gratified for their assistance and trouble, or good security given for that purpose: and if any disagreement shall take place between the persons whose ships or goods have been saved, and the officer of the customs, touching the monies deserv'd by any of the persons so employed, it shall be lawful for the commander of the ship or vessel so saved, or the owner of the goods, or the merchant interested therein, and also for the officer of the customs, or his deputy, to nominate 3 of the neighbouring justices of the peace, who shall thereupon adjust the quantum of the monies or gratuity to be paid to the several persons acting or being employed in the salvage of the said ship, vessel, or goods; and such adjustment shall be binding upon all parties, and shall be recoverable in an action at law; and in case it shall so happen that no person shall appear to make his claim to all or any of the goods that may be saved, that then the chief officer of the customs of the nearest port to the place where the said ship or vessel was so in distress shall apply to 3 of the nearest justices of the peace, who shall put in him or some other responsible person in possession of the said goods, such justices taking an account in writing of the said goods, to be signed by the said officer of the customs; and if the said goods shall not be legally claimed within the space of 12 months next ensuing, by the rightful owner thereof, then public sale shall be made thereof; and, if perishable goods, forthwith to be sold, and, after all charges deducted, the residue of the monies arising from such sale, with a fair and just account of the whole, shall be transmitted to her Majesty's exchequer, there to remain for the benefit of the rightful owner, when appearing; who, upon affidavit, or other proof made of his or their right or property, thereto, to the satisfaction of one of the barons of the court of the exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same out of the exchequer.

By a subsequent statute, 26 Geo. 2. c. 10, it is enacted, "that in case any person or persons, not employed by the master, mariners, or owners, or other person lawfully authorised, in the salvage of any vessel, or the cargo or provision thereof, shall, in the absence of the person so employed and authorised, take any such vessel, goods, or effects, and cause the same to be carried, for the benefit of the owners or proprietors, into port, or to any near adjoining Custom-house, or other place of safe custody, immediately giving notice thereof to some justice of the peace, magistrate, or Custom-house or excise officer, or shall discover to such magistrate or officer where any such goods or effects are wrongfully bought, sold, or concealed, then such person or persons shall be entitled to a reasonable reward for such services, to be paid by the masters or owners of such vessels or goods, and to be adjudged, in case of disagreement about the quantum, in like manner as the salvage is to be adjusted and paid by Sir A. Aene, or else as follows:—

"And be it further enacted, that, for the better ascertaining the salvage to be paid in pursuance of the present act and the act before-mentioned, and for the more effectually putting the said acts into execution, the justice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, collector of the customs, or chief constable, who shall be nearest to the place where any ship, goods, or effects shall be stranded or cast away, shall forthwith give public notice for a meeting to be held as soon as possible, of the sheriff or his deputy, the justice of the peace, mayors, or other chief magistrates of towns corporate, coroners, or commissioners of the land tax, or any 5 or more of them, who are hereby empowered and required to give aid in the execution of this and the said former act, and to employ proper persons for the saving ships in distress, and such ships, vessels, and effects, as shall be stranded or cast away; and also to examine persons upon oath, touching the same, or the salvage thereof, and to adjust the quantum of such salvage, and distribute the same among the persons concerned in such salvage, in case of disagreement among the parties or the said persons; and that every such magistrate, &c. attending and acting at such meeting, shall be paid 4*l*. a day for his expenses in such attendance, out of the goods and effects saved by their care or direction.

"Provided always, that if the charges and rewards for salvage directed to be paid by the former statute and by this act, shall not be fully paid, or sufficient security given for the same, within 40 days next after the said services performed, then it shall be lawful for the officer of the customs concerned in such salvage to borrow or raise so much money as shall be sufficient to satisfy and pay such charges and rewards, or any part thereof then remaining unpaid, or not secured as aforesaid, by or upon one or more bill or bills of sale, under his hand and seal of the ship or vessel, or cargo saved, or such part thereof as shall be sufficient, redeemable upon payment of the principal sum borrowed, and interest upon the same at the rate of 4*l*. per cent. per annum."

An act of the 53 Geo. 3. c. 57, continued and extended by the 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 76, contains some regulations supplying defects in former statutes. They enact, that goods of a perishable nature, or so much damaged that they cannot be kept, may, at the request of any person interested or concerned in the same, or in saving thereof, be sold with the consent of a justice, the money being deposited in the hands of the lord of the manor, and an account of the sale transmitted to the deputy vice-admiral. They also authorise the passage of horses, carts, carriages, &c. to the part of the sea coast where a vessel may be wrecked, over the adjoining lands, if there be no road leading so conveniently thereto, and under penalty of 100*l*. the damages to be settled by two justices in the event of the parties not agreeing—(1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 57, 30.)

It is ordered by the same statute, that no lord of the manor, or other person claiming to be entitled to wreck or goods, shall appropriate or dispose of the same until he shall have caused to be given in writing to the deputy vice-admiral of that part of the coast, or to his agents if they reside within 50 miles, if not, then to the corporation of the Trinity House, a report containing an accurate and particular description of the wreck or goods found, and of the place where and time when found, and of

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Years ending with 1833.

Stock.		Tons.
Average cost during the Year.	Close of the Year.	
1 1 0	12,230	
1 5 5	2,950	
1 1 10	8,260	
1 3 4	7,680	
1 4 1	5,570	
1 4 11	4,920	
1 16 0	2,520	
2 0 5	2,490	
1 14 1	3,300	
1 15 0	4,960	

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Recently, however, Mowee, on the island of that name, has been preferred by many as a place for fitting. In 1831, there belonged to the Sandwich Islands, 24 ships, of the burden of 2,620 tons; of these 10 ships, burden 765 tons, were the property of natives, and the remainder of foreigners established on the islands. The following table was drawn up by a gentleman long resident at Honoruru:—

Account of the Number of Ships that touched at Woahoo, one of the Sandwich Islands, during the Eight Years ending with 1831, distinguishing between English and American, and between Whaling and Merchant Ships.

Years.	English.						American.						Under other Foreign Flags.		Total.	
	Whalers.		Merchant.		Total.		Whalers.		Merchant.		Total.		Ships.	Tons.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.				
1824	15	5,798	2	500	17	6,298	50	18,828	16	3,163	66	18,521	6	1,240	88	24,727
1825	19	7,765	2	400	21	8,165	37	11,539	19	4,077	56	16,616	6	850	62	23,495
1826	11	4,854	2	410	13	5,264	67	21,892	21	3,866	88	25,858	6	1,112	94	31,724
1827	18	6,503	2	331	20	6,834	65	21,261	16	3,393	81	21,914	7	1,721	88	27,646
1828	29	9,772	6	331	35	10,103	90	31,183	22	3,841	112	37,024	8	2,213	120	43,237
1829	21	8,172	6	1,189	27	9,361	87	31,087	21	5,210	108	36,297	4	1,090	132	42,587
1830	16	6,982	10	1,853	26	8,835	77	28,469	23	4,072	100	30,193	3	615	129	35,887
1831	23	8,567	7	1,234	30	9,801	58	21,550	28	4,389	86	29,149	5	1,172	114	34,771

The decrease in the amount of American ships at Woahoo is accounted for by the fact of many of them now touching in preference at Mowee.—(We have these details entirely from private sources.)

SAPAN WOOD is obtained from a species of the same tree that yields the Bann wood (*Cesalpinia Sapan* Lin.). It is a middle-sized forest tree, indigenous to Sumatra, Pegu, the Philippine Islands, &c. It has been employed for dyeing in the greater part of Asia for many centuries. It found its way into Europe some time before the discovery of America; but very little is now imported. Its colouring matter differs but little from that of Brazil wood, but the best sapan wood does not yield more than half the quantity that may be obtained from an equal weight of Brazil wood, and the colour is not quite so bright.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 329.) Its price in the London market varies from 8*l.* to 14*l.* a ton.

SAPPHIRE (Ger. *Sapfir*; Du. *Saffiersteen*; Fr. *Saphir*; It. *Zaffiro*; Sp. *Sapfir*; Rus. *Jachant*; Lat. *Sapphirus*), a precious stone in very high estimation. Colours blue and red; also gray, white, green, and yellow. It occurs in blunt-edged pieces, rounded pebbles, and crystallised. Varies from transparent to translucent. Refracts double. Harder than diamond, it is the hardest substance in nature. The blue variety, or sapphire, is harder than the ruby, or red variety. Brittle. Specific gravity 4 to 4.2.

It is found in Bohemia, Saxony, France, &c.; but the red sapphire, or Oriental ruby, is not found in any considerable quantity anywhere except in Ava. Next to diamond, sapphire is the most valuable of the gems. The white and pale blue varieties, by exposure to heat, become snow white, and, when cut, exhibit so high a degree of lustre, that they are used in place of diamond. The most highly valued varieties are the crimson and carmine red; these are the Oriental ruby of the jeweller; the next sapphire; and last, the yellow or Oriental topaz. The asterias, or star-stone, is a very beautiful variety, in which the colour is generally of a reddish violet, and the form a rhomboid, with transparent angles, which exhibit an opalescent lustre.—(See *RUBY*.)

Mr. Crawford gives the following details with respect to the sapphire and ruby mines of Ava:—"The precious stones ascertained to exist in the Burmese territory are chiefly those of the sapphire family, and the spinelle ruby. They are found at 2 places, not very distant from each other, at Mogant and Kyatpéan, about 5 days' journey from the capital, in an E. S. E. direction. From what I could learn, the gems are not obtained by any regular mining operations, but by digging and washing the gravel in the beds of rivulets or small brooks. All the varieties of the sapphire, as well as the spinelle, are found together, and together with them large quantities of corundum. The varieties ascertained to exist, are the Oriental sapphire; the Oriental ruby, or red stone; the opalescent ruby, or cat's eye ruby; the star ruby; the green; the yellow and the white sapphires; and the Oriental amethyst. The common sapphire is by far the most frequent, but, in comparison with the ruby, very little prized by the Burmese, in which they agree with other nations. I brought home with me to England a perfect specimen, both as to colour and freedom from flaws, weighing 22 carats. The sapphire and ruby mines are considered the property of the king; at least he lays claim to all stones that exceed in value a viss of silver, or 100 ticals. The miners, it appears, endeavour to evade the law by breaking the large stones into fragments. In the royal treasury, there are, notwithstanding many fine stones of both descriptions. The year before our visit, the king received from the mines ruby weighing 124 grains; and the year preceding that 8 good ones, but of smaller size. No stranger is permitted to visit the mines; even the Chinese and Mohammedans residing at Ava are excluded."—(*Journal of an Embassy to the Court of Ava*.—p. 412.)

SARCOCOLLA, a subviscid, sweetish, and somewhat nauseous gum-resin. It is brought from Arabia and Persia in small grains of a pale yellow colour; the whiter, as being the freshest, is preferred. It is but seldom imported.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SARDINES, or **SARDINIANS** (Ger. *Sardellen*; Fr. *Sardines*; It. *Sardine*; Sp. *Sardinas*), a species of fish of the herring tribe, but smaller. They are taken in considerable quantities on our coasts, and are exceedingly plentiful on the coasts of Algiers, Portugal, Andalusia and Granada in Spain, and along the shores of Italy. The sardines, caught on the coast of Provence, in France, are esteemed the best. From June to 1,200 fishing smacks are engaged in catching these fish on the coast of France from June to the middle of October. The French frequently cure them in red wine.

* Professor Jameson says, in his *Mineralogy*, that some peculiarly beautiful sapphires are found in the Capelan mountains, in Pegu. But we do not believe that there are any such mountains in any part of the world; and, in point of fact, there are no mountains in Pegu, nor have any precious stones been ever found in it.

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when thus prepared, designate them *anchoisetes*, or *anchovied sardines*. These are packed in vessels previously employed for holding wine, and exported to the Levant. When perfectly fresh, sardines are accounted excellent fish; but if kept for any time, they entirely lose their flavour, and become quite insipid.

SARDONYX, a precious stone, a variety of chalcedony.

The ancients selected this substance to engrave upon, no doubt from its possessing two peculiar and necessary qualities, viz. hardness and tenacity, by which it is capable of receiving the finest touch or stroke of the tool without chipping, and showing the art of the engraver to the highest perfection.—(*Heaven Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 121.)

SARSAPARILLA (Ger. *Sarsaparille*; Fr. *Salsepareille*; It. *Salsapariglia*; Sp. *Sarsaparilla*), the root of the *Smilax Sarsaparilla*, a plant growing in South America and the West Indies. It is imported in bales. It is known in the London market by the names of Lisbon, Honduras, and Vera Cruz, but it is also brought from Jamaica. The Lisbon root, which is the produce of Brazil, has a reddish or dark brown cuticle, is internally farinaceous, and more free from fibre than the other kinds: the Honduras has a dirty brown, and sometimes whitish, cuticle; it is more fibrous, and has more ligneous matter than the Lisbon and Vera Cruz. It is in long, slender twigs, covered with a variegated brown cuticle, and has a small woody heart. The Jamaica differs from the others, in having a deep reddish-brown close texture; and the red colour partially diffused through the ligneous part. The root is inodorous, and has a mucilaginous, very slightly bitter taste: the bark is the only useful part of the plant; the ligneous part being tasteless, inert, woody fibre.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The quantity imported in 1831 amounted to 176,854 lbs., of which 107,410 lbs. were retained for home consumption. The duty, which formerly varied, according as it was brought from a foreign country or a British possession, from 1s. 3d. to 1s. per lb., was reduced, in 1832, to 6d. per lb.

SASSAFRAS (Ger. and Fr. *Sassafras*; It. *Sassafrasso*; Sp. *Sasafras*), a species of laurel (*Laurus Sassafras*, Lin.), a native of the southern parts of North America, Cochinchina, and several of the Indian islands. Sassafras wood, root, and bark, have a fragrant odour, and a sweetish aromatic taste. The wood is of a brownish white colour; and the bark ferruginous within, spongy, and divisible into layers. Their sensible qualities and virtues depend on an essential oil, which may be obtained separate by distilling the chips or the bark with water. It is very fragrant, hot, and penetrating to the taste, of a pale yellow colour, and heavier than water. It is used only in the *materia medica*. Very little is imported.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

SAUNDERS (RED) (Arab. *Sundal-ahmer*; Hind. *Ruckut-chundum*), the wood of a holy tree (*Pterocarpus santalinus*) indigenous to various parts of India, Ceylon, Timor, &c. The wood is brought to Europe in billets, which are very heavy and sink in water. It is extremely hard, of a fine grain, and a bright garnet red colour, which brightens on exposure to the air. It is employed to dye lasting reddish brown colours on wood. It yields its colouring matter to ether and alcohol, but not to water. The quantity imported is but inconsiderable. The price in bond varies at this moment (February, 1834) from 13l. to 14l. a ton.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 236.)

SCAMMONY (Ger. *Skammonien*; Fr. *Scammonée*; It. *Scammonea*; Sp. *Escamonea*), a gum-resin, the produce of a species of convolvulus, or creeper plant, which grows abundantly in Syria. When an incision is made into the roots, they yield a milky juice, which, being kept, grows hard, and is the scammony of the shops. It is imported from Aleppo in what are called drums, weighing from 75 to 125 lbs. each; and from Smyrna in cakes like wax, packed in chests. The former is light and friable, and is considered the best; that from Smyrna is more compact and ponderous, less friable, and fuller of impurities. It has a peculiar heavy odour, not unlike that of old cheese; and a bitterish, slightly acid taste. The colour is blackish or bluish grey, changing to dirty white, or lathering when the surface is rubbed with a wet finger. Its specific gravity is 1.235. It is very liable to be adulterated; and when of a dark colour, heavy, and splintery, it ought to be rejected. It is used only in medicine.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The duty on scammony, which was formerly as high as 6s. 4d. per lb., was reduced in 1832 to 2s. 6d.

SCULPTURES, figures cut in stone, metal, or other solid substance, representing or describing some real or imaginary object. The art of the sculptor, or statuary, was carried to the highest pitch of excellence in ancient Greece. Fortunately, several of the works of the Grecian sculptors have been preserved; and serve at once to stimulate and direct the genius of modern artists.

Models, are casts or representations of sculptures.

The act 54 Geo. 3. c. 56, vests the property of sculptures, models, copies, and casts, in the proprietor 14 years; provided he cause his name, with the date, to be put on them before they are published; and the same term in addition, if he should be living at the end of the first period. In actions for piracy, double costs to be given. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 107, prohibits the importation, on pain of forfeiture, of any sculptures, models, casts, &c. first made in the United Kingdom.

SEAL (Lat. *Stigillum*), a stone, piece of metal, or other solid substance, generally round or elliptical, on which is engraved the arms, crest, name, device, &c. of some state, prince,

public body, or private individual. It is employed as a stamp to make an impression on sealing wax, thereby authenticating public acts, deeds, &c., or to close letters or packets. Seals were very early invented, and much learning has been employed in tracing their history, and explaining the figures upon them.—(See particularly the work of *Hopkins, De Sigillorum Prisco et Novo Jure*, 4to, 1842.) They are now very generally used.

The best are usually formed of precious stones, on which the crest or the initials of the person's name are engraved, set in gold. But immense numbers are formed of stained glass, and set in gilt copper. They are manufactured at London, Birmingham, &c., and are extensively exported.

SEAL FISHERY. The seal, an amphibious animal, of which there are many varieties, is found in vast numbers in the seas round Spitzbergen, and on the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland. As it frequents the British shores, it is well known, and has been repeatedly described. Seals are principally hunted for their oil and skins. When taken in the spring of the year,—at which time they are fattest,—a full grown seal will yield from 8 to 12 gallons of oil, and a small one from 4 to 5 gallons. The oil, when extracted before putrefaction has commenced, is beautifully transparent, free from smell, and not unpleasant in its taste. The skin, when tanned, is extensively employed in the making of shoes; and when dressed with the hair on, serves for the covering of trunks, &c.

"To the Esquimaux the seal is of as much importance as bread to a European. Its flesh forms their most usual food; the fat is partly dressed for eating, and partly consumed in their lamps, the liver, when fried, is esteemed, even among sailors, as an agreeable dish. The skin, which the Esquimaux dress by processes peculiar to themselves, is made water proof. With the hair off, it is used as coverings, instead of planks, for their boats, and as outer garments for themselves; shielded with which, they can invert themselves and canoe in the water, without wetting their bodies wet. It serves also for coverings for their tents, and for various other purposes. The jackets and trousers made of seal-skin by the Esquimaux are in great request among the whale fishers for preserving them from cold and wet."—(*Searesby's Arctic Regions*, vol. i. p. 510.)

Seals in fine weather prefer the ice to the water, and vast herds of them are frequently found lying on the field ice; the places where they are met with being thence called "seal meadows." The seal hunters endeavour to surprise them while sleeping, and to intercept their retreat to the water. They strike them with muskets and bludgeons, but principally the latter, they being easily despatched by a blow on the nose.

The seal fishery has long been prosecuted to a considerable extent in the northern seas by ships from the Elbe and the Weser; but very few ships have been sent out for sealing since from England, though occasionally some of the whale ships have taken large quantities of seals. Latterly, however, the seal fishery has been prosecuted on a large scale, and with extraordinary success, by vessels of from 60 to 120 tons each, having crews of from 10 to 30 men, fitted out from the ports of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, &c. The business is attended with a good deal of risk, and instances frequently occur of the vessels being crushed to pieces by the collision of the fields of ice. We borrow the following details from Mr. Bliss's late tract on the *Trade, Statistics, &c. of Canada and our North American Possessions*.

"There is another department of the colonial fishery which has originated within no distant period, and is now becoming of great extent and importance. The large fields of ice which, in the months of March and April, drift southward from the Polar seas, are accompanied by many herds of seals: these are found sleeping in what are called the seal meadows of the ice, and are there attacked and slaughtered in vast numbers. For this purpose the fishers of Newfoundland, from which island these voyages are principally made, without waiting till the return of spring shall have opened their harbours, saw channels through the ice for their vessels, and set sail in quest of those drifting fields, through the openings of which they work a passage, attended with great difficulties and dangers, till they encounter their prey on the seal meadows. This bold and hazardous enterprise seems well compensated by its success. The number of seals thus taken is almost incredible, and is greatly on the increase. They were captured by the Newfoundland fishermen, in 1829, 280,013 seals; in 1830, 553,435; and in 1831, 710,735; making a total catch during these 3 years, of no fewer than 1,582,783 seals! The number of vessels employed in the fishery from Newfoundland, in 1831, was 115; and in 1832, 159; being an increase of about 3,400 tons."—(p. 70.)

Subjoined is a statement of the prices of the different sorts of fish oil in London, in January, 1834.

Fish oils, cod, Newfoundland, per tun (Imp.)	L. s.	d.	Fish oils, southern fishery, pale, per tun (Imp.)	L. s.	d.
seal, brown and yellow	25	0	22	0	0
" " " " " "	23	0	20	0	0
" " " " " "	21	10	18	0	0
" " " " " "	21	10	22	0	0

Undressed seal skins are worth from 1s. to 1s. 6d. each.

See also *Mr. Gregor's British America*, 2d edit. vol. i. p. 197. &c. There is a good account of the whaling in *Laing's Voyages to Spitzbergen*.

SEALING WAX (Ger. *Siegellack*; Fr. *Cire d'Espagne*, *Cire à cacheter*; It. *Cera Lacca*, *Cera di Spagna*; Sp. *Lacre*; Rus. *Surgutsch*), the wax used for sealing letters and legal instruments, &c. It is a composition of gum lac, melted and incorporated with resin, and afterwards coloured with some pigment, as vermilion, verditer, ivory black, &c.

SEAMEN, the individuals engaged in navigating ships, barges, &c. upon the high seas. Those employed for this purpose upon rivers, lakes, or canals, are denominated watermen.

A *British Seaman* must be a natural born subject of his Majesty; or be naturalized by act of parliament; or made a denizen by letters of denization; or have become a British subject by the conquest or cession of some newly acquired territory; or (being a foreigner) have served on board his Majesty's ships of war, in time of war, for the space of 3 years—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54. § 16.) But his Majesty may, by proclamation during war, declare that foreigners who have served two years in the royal navy, during such war, shall be deemed British seamen.—(§ 17.)

Various regulations have been enacted with respect to the hiring of seamen, their con-

while on board countries; but arise between a due obedience voyage, by mail

1. Hiring of proper proof of merchant ships; any master or any seaman or where he or the crew, without first their wages; wages each seaman long time as he or contract the wages under a penalty forfeited by the by each mariner when signed, provisions have been in the coasting trade

The following c. 73.) to be West India trade still continues to

It is hereby agreed

for the port of the month of they severally shall agree with and hire pursuant to the law and oblige themselves and ship or boats in places where the anchors for the present day or night; nor a pretence whatsoever first obtained of the freely agree to be liable of King George the Seamen in the Merc the Third, intituled, trading to his Majesty parties to these present such seamen; that each of for the effectual gov completed with, wages or hire, to get further agreed, that sealed to his wages port of discharge, as in the delivery; and whatever apparel, food and other necessaries for their refreshment or may happen, to the and seamen, on the to go on shore each agreed by the said port to such indulgence by the said as the maintenance of the above; and entered into lighted, agreed, by these present will take charge of deliver his charge to the beam; and, in other, exclusive of the said case he is entitled and mariner, who shall be no plunderer) shall be entitled; that, for the acknowledgment of any thing used, the to their respective

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while on board, and the payment of their wages. These regulations differ in different countries; but, in all, they have been intended to obviate any disputes that might otherwise arise between the master and seamen as to the terms of the contract between them, to secure due obedience to the master's orders, and to interest the seamen in the completion of the voyage, by making their earnings depend on its successful termination.

1. *Hiring of Seamen.*—To prevent the mischiefs that frequently arose from the want of proper proof of the precise terms upon which seamen engaged to perform their service in merchant ships, it is enacted by statute (2 Geo. 2. c. 36.), "that it shall not be lawful for any master or commander of any ship or vessel bound to parts beyond the seas, to carry any seaman or mariner, except his apprentice or apprentices, to sea from any port or place where he or they were entered or shipped, to proceed on any voyage to parts beyond the seas, without first coming to an agreement or contract with such seamen or mariners for their wages; which agreement or agreements shall be made in writing, declaring what wages each seaman or mariner is to have respectively, during the whole voyage, or for so long time as he or they shall ship themselves for; and also to express in the said agreement or contract the voyage for which such seaman or mariner was shipped to perform the same;" under a penalty of 5*l.* for each mariner carried to sea without such agreement, to be forfeited by the master to the use of Greenwich Hospital. This agreement is to be signed by each mariner within 3 days after he shall have entered himself on board the ship; and is, when signed, conclusive and binding upon all parties. By a subsequent statute, these provisions have been extended to vessels of the burden of 100 tons and upwards, employed in the *coasting trade.*—(31 Geo. 3. c. 39.)

The following is the form of the articles of agreement required by statute (37 Geo. 3. c. 73.) to be entered into between the masters and mariners of ships engaged in the West India trade. It is substantially the same with that which previously was, and still continues to be, in common use for all ships employed in foreign trade.

Ship

It is hereby agreed between the master, seamen, and mariners of the ship _____ now bound for the port of _____ and the master or commander of the said ship, That, in consideration of the monthly or other wages against each respective seaman or mariner's name hereunto set, they severally shall and will perform the above-mentioned voyage: and the said master doth hereby agree with and hire the seamen and mariners for the said voyage at such monthly wages, to be paid pursuant to the laws of Great Britain; and they, the said seamen and mariners, do hereby promise and oblige themselves to do their duty, and obey the lawful commands of their officers on board the said ship or boats thereunto belonging, as becometh good and faithful seamen and mariners, and at all places where the said ship shall put in or anchor during the said ship's voyage, to do their best endeavours for the preservation of the said ship and cargo, and not to neglect or refuse doing their duty by day or night; nor shall go out of the said ship on board any other vessel, or be on shore under any pretence whatsoever, till the voyage is ended, and the ship discharged of her cargo, without leave first obtained of the master, captain, or commanding officer on board: and, in default thereof, they freely agree to be liable to the penalties mentioned in the act of parliament made in the 24 year of the reign of King George the Second, intituled "An Act for the better Regulation and Government of Seamen in the Merchants' Service;" and the act made in the 37th year of the reign of King George the Third, intituled, "An Act for preventing the Desertion of Seamen from British Merchant Ships trading to his Majesty's Colonies and Plantations in the West India;" and it is further agreed by the parties to these presents, that 24 hours' absence without leave shall be deemed a total desertion, and render such seamen and mariners liable to the forfeitures and penalties contained in the acts above recited; that each and every lawful command which the said master shall think necessary to issue for the effectual government of the said vessel, suppressing immorality and vice of all kinds, be strictly complied with, under the penalty of the person or persons disobeying forfeiting his or their whole wages on hire, together with every thing belonging to him or them on board the said vessel: and it is further agreed, that no officer or seaman, or person belonging to the said ship, shall demand or be entitled to his wages, or any part thereof, until the arrival of the said ship at the above-mentioned port of discharge, and her cargo delivered, nor less than 20 days, in case the seaman is not employed in the delivery; and it is hereby further agreed between the masters and officers of the said ship, that whatever apparel, furniture, and stores, each of them may receive into their charge, belonging to the said ship, shall be accounted for on her return; and in case any thing shall be lost or damaged through their carelessness or insufficiency, it shall be made good by such officer or seaman, by whose means it may happen, to the master and owner of the said ship: and whereas it is customary for the officers and seamen, on the ship's return home in the river, and during the time their cargoes are delivering, to go on shore each night to sleep, greatly to the prejudice of such ship and freighters; be it further agreed by the said parties, that neither officer nor seaman shall, on any pretence whatsoever, be entitled to such indulgence, but shall do their duty by day in discharge of the cargo, and keep such watch by night as the master or commander of the said ship shall think necessary, in order for the preservation of the above; and whereas it often happens that part of the cargo is embezzled after being delivered in the lighters; and, as such losses are made good by the owners of the ships, be it therefore agreed by these presents, that whoever officer or seaman the master shall think proper to appoint, shall take charge of the cargo in the lighters, and go with the same to the lawful quay, and there deliver his charge to the ship's husband, or his representative, or see the same safely weighed at the King's beam; and, in consequence of their true fidelity, such seamen shall be entitled to 2*s.* 6*d.* each night, exclusive of their monthly pay; and should it so happen that lighters are detained any considerable time at the quay before they can be unloaded, such officer and seaman so appointed shall in that case be entitled to 2*s.* 6*d.* for every 24 hours, exclusive of their monthly pay; that each seaman and mariner, who shall well and truly perform the above-mentioned voyage, (provided always, that there be no disorders, embezzlement, or other unlawful acts, committed on the vessel's cargo or crew,) shall be entitled to their wages or hire that may become due to him pursuant to this agreement; that, for the due performance of each and every the above-mentioned articles and agreements, and acknowledgment of their being voluntary and without compulsion, or any other clandestine means being used, the said parties have hereunto subscribed their names, the day and month set opposite to their respective names.

merchant has a right to claim satisfaction from the master and owners, they may; by the provision of merchants, deduct the value thereof from the wages of the seamen by whose misconduct the injury has taken place. And the last proviso introduced into the usual agreement signed by the seamen, is calculated to enforce this rule in the case of embezzlement of the cargo or of the ship's stores. This proviso, however, is to be construed indistinctly, as affecting only the particular persons guilty of the embezzlement, and not the whole crew. Nor is any innocent person liable to contribute a portion of his wages to make good the loss occasioned by the misconduct of others.

The offences of running away with the ship, or voluntarily yielding her up to an enemy, or making a revolt, are punishable by death. The statute 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7. enacts,

"That if any commander or master of any ship, or any seaman or mariner, shall in any place, where the judicial hath jurisdiction, betray his trust and turn pirate, enemy, or rebel, and practically and feloniously run away with his or their ship or ships, or any barge, boat, ordnance, ammunition, goods, or merchandise, or yield them up voluntarily to any pirate, or shall bring any seducing messages from any pirate, enemy, or rebel, or consult, combine, or confederate with, or attempt or endeavour to corrupt any commander, master, officer, or mariner, to yield up or run away with any ship, goods, or merchandise, or to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship and goods committed to his trust, or that shall receive his master, or make or endeavour to make a revolt in the ship; shall be adjudged, deemed, and taken to be a *pirate, felon, and robber*, and being convicted thereof according to the directions of this act, shall have and suffer pain of death, loss of lands, goods, and chattels, as *pirates, felons, and robbers* upon the seas ought to have and suffer.

The wilful destruction or loss of the ship is, in all countries, punishable by death. But doubts having been entertained whether the destruction of a ship that had been insured came within the scope of the previously existing statutes, they were repealed by the 43 Geo. 3. c. 113, and the following provision substituted in their stead:—

"That if any person or persons shall, from and after the sixteenth day of July, 1803, wilfully cast any ship, boat, or otherwise destroy, any ship or vessel, or in any wise counsel, direct, or procure the same to be done, and the same be accordingly done, with intent or design thereby wilfully and maliciously to prejudice any owner or owners of such ship or vessel, or any owner or owners of any goods laden on board the same, or any person or persons, body politic or corporate, that hath or have underwritten or shall underwrite any policy or policies of insurance upon such ship or vessel, or on the freight thereof, or upon any goods laden on board the same, the person or persons offending therein, being thereof lawfully convicted, shall be deemed and adjudged a principal felon or felons, and shall suffer death as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy."

3. *Payment of Seamen's wages, &c.*—In order to stimulate the zeal and attention of seamen, it has been the policy of all maritime states to make the payment of their wages depend on the successful termination of the voyage. "*Freight is the mother of wages; the safety of the ship the mother of freight.*" When, therefore, by any disaster happening in the course of the voyage, such as the loss or capture of the ship, the owners lose their freight, the seamen also lose their wages.

If a ship destined on a voyage out and home has delivered her outward bound cargo, but perishes in the homeward voyage, the freight for the outward voyage is due; so in the same case the seamen are entitled to receive their wages for the time employed in the outward voyage and the unloading of the cargo, unless by the terms of their contract the outward and homeward voyages are consubstantiated into one. If a ship sail to several places, wages are payable to the time of the delivery of the last cargo. Upon the same principle, where money had been advanced to the owners in part of the freight outwards, and the ship perished before her arrival at the port of delivery, it was held that the seamen were entitled to wages in proportion to the money advanced.

If, after seamen have been hired, the owners of a ship do not think proper to send her on the intended voyage, the seamen are to be paid for the time during which they may have been employed on board the ship; and in the event of their sustaining any special damage by breaking off the contract, it is but reasonable that they should be indemnified.

In the case of shipwreck, it is the duty of the seamen to exert themselves to the utmost to save as much as possible of the vessel and cargo. If the cargo be saved, and a proportion of the freight paid by the merchant in respect thereof, it seems, upon principle, that the seamen are also entitled to a proportion of their wages. And for their labour in saving the cargo, or the remains of the ship, they, as well as other persons, may be entitled to a recompence by way of *salvage*. The laws of Oleron rule, that if, in case of shipwreck, "the seamen preserve a part of the ship and lading, the master shall allow them a reasonable consideration to carry them home to their own country; and in case they save enough to enable the master to do this, he may lawfully pledge to some honest persons such part thereof as may be sufficient for the occasion."

By the laws of Wisby, "the mariners are bound to save and preserve the merchandise to the utmost of their power, and whilst they do so (*ce-faisant*, according to the *French* translation), ought to be paid their wages, otherwise not." By the Hanseatic Ordinance, if a ship happens to be cast away, the mariners are obliged to save as much as in them lies, and the master ought to requito them for their pains to their content, and convey them at his own charge to their dwelling places; but if the mariners refuse to assist their master, in such case they shall have neither reward nor wages paid them." It is not quite clear, from the lan-

guage of these ancient ordinances whether the payment directed to be made to seamen on those melancholy occasions, is to be a reward only for their labour in the salvage, or a recompence for their former services in the ship, for which, according to general principles, they are entitled to no payment, if no freight is earned. But Cleirac, in his *Commentary on the Laws of Oleron*, says, that by an ordinance of Philip II. of Spain, made in the year 1563, it is ordained, that the seamen shall save as much as they can from shipwreck; and, in that case, the master is bound to pay them their wages, and to give them a further reward for their labour out of the goods. And the Hanseatic Ordinance of the year 1614 expressly directs, that if so much of the ship be saved as equals the value of the wages of the seamen, they shall be paid their whole wages. In like manner, the Ordinance of Rotterdam and the French Ordinance also expressly direct the payment of wages out of the relics and materials of the ship.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iv. c. 2.)

"I have not been able," says Lord Tenterden, "to find any decision of an English court on the point, and the legislature has made no provision relating to it. As an inducement to the mariners to exert themselves in the hour of danger, it may not be unfit to hold out to them the prospect of obtaining their wages, if they save so much of the ship as shall be sufficient to pay them; but their claim upon the ship seems not to extend to a case, wherein, according to the principles of the law upon which their claim is founded, no wages are payable to them."—(Part iv. c. 2.)

The laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, direct, that if a seaman die during the voyage, wages shall be paid to his heirs; but it is not clear whether the sum thus directed to be paid is to be understood as meaning a payment proportioned to the time of his service, or the whole sum that he would have earned had he lived till the conclusion of the voyage. This question has not been judicially decided in England; but by the act 37 Geo. 3. c. 73. it is ordered, that the wages due to any seaman, who has died on board any ship trading to the West Indies, shall be paid, within 3 months of the arrival of such ship in Great Britain, to the receiver of the sixpenny duty for Greenwich Hospital, for the use of the seaman's executor or administrator. All masters neglecting or refusing to pay the same, incur a penalty of 50*l.*, and pay double wages for each offence.

A seaman impressed from a merchant ship into the royal service, is entitled to receive the proportion of his wages due to him at the time of impressment, provided the merchant ship arrive in safety at the port of her discharge.

Policy requires that the wages of seamen should not be paid to them in foreign countries, as well to prevent desertion, as to preserve, for the benefit of their families, what might otherwise be spent in riot and debauchery. Conformably to this principle it has been enacted,

"That no master or owner of any merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, to any seaman or mariner, during the time he shall be in parts beyond the seas, any money or effects upon account of wages, exceeding one moiety of the wages which shall be due at the time of such payment, until such ship or vessel shall return to Great Britain or Ireland, or the plantations, or to some other of his Majesty's dominions, whereto they belong, and from whence they were first fitted out; and if such master or owner of such merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, any wages to any seaman or mariner above the said moiety, such master or owner shall forfeit and pay double the money he shall so pay or advance, to be recovered in the High Court of Admiralty by any person who shall first discover and inform of the same."—(8 Geo. 1. c. 24.)

The time when wages should be paid has also been made the subject of parliamentary enactments. Thus, as to ships engaged in *foreign voyages*, it is ordered, that upon the arrival of any ship in Great Britain from parts beyond the seas, the master or commander shall be obliged to pay the seamen thereto belonging their wages, if demanded, in *thirty days* after the ship's entry at the Custom-house, except in cases where a covenant shall be entered into to the contrary; or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, if demanded; deducting the penalties and forfeitures imposed by the act, "under the penalty of paying to each seaman or mariner that shall be unpaid, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, *twenty shillings* over and above the wages that shall be due to each person, to be recovered by the same means and methods as the wages may be recovered; and such payment of wages aforesaid shall be good and valid in law, notwithstanding any action, bill of sale, attachment, or incumbrance whatsoever."—(2 Geo. 2. c. 36.)

And as to ships employed in the *coasting trade* in the manner before mentioned, it is enacted, that the master, commander, or person having charge of the ship, shall be obliged to pay the seamen their wages, if demanded, within *five days* after the ship shall be entered at the Custom-house, or the cargo be delivered, or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, unless an agreement shall have been made to the contrary; in which case the wages shall be paid according to such agreement, deducting in every case the penalties imposed by this act, under the like forfeiture of *twenty shillings*, to be recovered in the same manner as with regard to ships coming from abroad; and such payment shall be good in law, "notwithstanding any action, bill of sale, attachment, or incumbrance whatsoever."—(31 Geo. 3. c. 39.)

Seamen have a threefold remedy for the recovery of wages; viz. against the ship, the owner, and the master; and they may proceed either in the admiralty courts or those of common law in the former case all may join, and payment may be obtained out of the value

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Vacancies

of the ship. The contract remains in the custody of the master or owner, but they are bound to produce it when required, and it is conclusive evidence of the contract between the parties. By the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 58. justices of the peace are authorised summarily to decide upon the complaint of any seaman as to the nonpayment of wages not exceeding 20*l.*; and if they find the claim well founded, may, in the event of its not being paid within 2 days, issue their warrant for the levy of the same by distress: parties dissatisfied may appeal to the admiralty.

4. Payment to Greenwich Hospital.—During the reign of George II. an establishment attached to Greenwich Hospital was erected (20 Geo. 2. c. 38.) "for the relief and support of maimed and disabled seamen, and the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned, in the merchant service. To provide a fund for this charitable institution, every person serving in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects in England, (except apprentices under the age of 18, persons employed in boats upon the coasts in taking fish which are brought fresh on shore, or in boats within rivers, or upon boats upon the coast, and pilots (except persons employed in the service of the East India Company, and who are not entitled to the benefit of this institution, being provided for by a fund established by the Company);) pays sixpence per month, which is deducted out of his wages by the master, and by him paid over to the persons appointed under the authority of the act at the port to which the ship belongs, before she shall be allowed to clear inwards. For the management and distribution of this fund, a corporation was created, composed chiefly of eminent merchants, with power to purchase land and erect a hospital, and to provide for seamen rendered incapable of service by sickness, wounds, or other accidental misfortunes, and decrepit and worn out by age, either by receiving them into the hospital, or by pensions; and also to relieve the widows and children of seamen killed or drowned in the merchant service, provided the children are not of the age of 14 years; or, if of that age and upwards, are incapable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmity, and are proper objects of charity; and to make reasonable allowances to those who shall lose an eye or limb, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, in fighting, defending or working their ships, or doing any other duty in their service, in proportion to their hurt; so far forth as the income and revenues of the charity will extend for those purposes. But no person is to be provided for as a worn-out seaman, who has not been employed in the merchant service five years, and paid the contribution. And in providing for this class, a preference is given to such as have served longest and contributed most.

5. Account of the Money deducted out of the Wages of Seamen employed in the Merchant Service of the Country, for the Years 1828 and 1829; showing the Gross Amount collected, the Nett Money paid to Greenwich Hospital, and the Amount and Rate per Cent. paid for collecting the same in each Year, and for what Purposes employed.

	1828.		1829.			
	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.		
Gross amount of the collection	23,083	1 1	26,157	2 3		
Money paid to Greenwich Hospital	18,815	19 8	21,412	17 5		
Total expense of collection	4,837	1 5	4,724	4 10		
<i>Details of the Total Expense of Collection.</i>						
To the deputy receivers of Great Britain and Ireland, America, Guernsey, Jersey, and Newfoundland, 4 <i>l.</i> per cent. for collecting, except the port of Liverpool, which is 7 <i>l.</i> per cent.	8,091	3 0	3,243	4 1		
To the receivers general for Scotland and Ireland, a salary of 50 <i>l.</i> per annum each	100	0 0	100	0 0		
Payable clerk at the Custom-house, 10 per cent. on the amount collected in America	78	4 8	77	8 10		
Salary of the chief receiver at Newfoundland, 7 <i>l.</i> per cent. on the collection	-	-	81	1 1/2		
Salaries to the receiver general and comptroller at the port of London, their clerks, clerk at the custom, messenger, and housekeeper	1,036	0 0	1,055	0 0		
Expenses	437	11 8	-	-		
Superannuation allowances	36	5 0	36	5 0		
Printing, stationery, taxes, and housekeeper's disbursements	468	18 10	431	4 10		
	£.	4,837	1 5	£.	4,724	4 10

The monies paid to Greenwich Hospital are applied to the general purposes of the institution.

The total expense of collecting amounted in the year 1828 to 22 per cent., and in 1829 to 18 per cent. on the gross receipts; but arrangements are now ordered to be carried into effect, by which the whole expense will be reduced to about 10 per cent.

Royal Hospital, Greenwich, 10th of May, 1830.

W. H. HOOPER, Secretary.

II. Account of Merchant Seamen now in the Royal Hospital for Seamen at Greenwich, with the Comparative Amount of Service in the Navy and in the Merchants' Employ.

Number of Men who have served in the Navy.	Number of Men who have served in the Merchants' Service.	Total Number of Years served by them in the King's Service.	Total Number of Years served by them in the Merchants' Service.	Average Number of Years served by each Man in the Navy.	Average Number of Years served by each Man in the Merchants' Service.
Nil.	1,121	18,195	14,485	16 1/2	13
The establishment of Greenwich Hospital is					2,710
Of these are—					
Seamen who have served in merchant ships					1,121
Seamen who have served in king's ships only					1,118
Royal marines					424
Land forces					22
Absent					0
Vacancies					18
					2,710

any ship or vessel belonging to any subject of the U. K. trading to parts beyond seas, or of any British registered ship of the burden of 80 tons or upwards employed in the fisheries of the U. K., or in trading to or from any port or place, or otherwise, to carry to sea, from this kingdom or any other place, any seaman or other person as one of his crew or complement (apprentices excepted), without first entering into an agreement in writing with every such seaman, specifying what monthly or other wages such seaman is to receive, the capacity in which he is to act, and the nature of the voyage in which the ship is intended to be employed, so that the seaman may have some means of judging of the probable period for which he is likely to be engaged; and the said agreement shall contain the day of the month and year in which the same shall be made, and shall be signed by the master in the first instance, and by the seaman respectively at the port or place where such seaman shall be respectively shipped; and the master shall cause the same to be, by or in presence of the party who is to attest their respective signatures thereon, truly and distinctly read over to every such seaman before he shall be required to sign the same, in order that he may be enabled to understand the purport and meaning of the engagement he enters into and the terms to which he is bound.—§ 2.

Regulations respecting Forms of Agreements.—In the cases of ships bound to parts beyond seas, except as herein-after provided, every agreement shall be in the form and shall contain true entries (except as herein-after provided) of the several particulars set forth in the schedule marked (A.) at the end of this act, so far as the same can be ascertained; and the owners and the master of every such ship, or one of them, shall, on reporting his ship's arrival at her port of destination in the U. K., deposit with the collector or comptroller of customs at such port a true copy of such agreement, attested by the signatures of the master, that every person interested in such agreement may at all times know the terms and conditions thereof; and in the cases of ships employed in fishing on the coasts of the U. K., and of ships regularly trading from one part of the U. K. to another, and of ships regularly trading or making regular voyages to any of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Guernsey, or to any port on the continent of Europe between the River Rhine inclusive and Brest, the agreements to be entered into as aforesaid shall be in the form and shall contain due entries under their respective heads of the particulars set forth in the schedule (B.) at the end of this act, so far as the same can be ascertained; and the owner or one of the owners of every such ship employed in fishing or in trading in any of the cases last mentioned shall, within ten days next after the expiration of every 6 months ending the 30th of June and the 31st of December each year, deposit with the collector or comptroller of the customs of the port to which the ship belongs a true copy of every agreement entered into with any person composing part of the crew within the preceding 6 months, attested by the signature of such owner; and all copies of agreements required to be deposited as aforesaid shall, when the same have been deposited, and be required to be produced in evidence on the part of any seaman, be received and taken as legal proof of the contents of the agreement.—§ 3.

Penalty for Default.—If any master of any ship as aforesaid carry out to sea any seaman (apprentices excepted) without having first entered into the agreement hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* in respect of each and every seaman carried out contrary to this act; and if any master neglect to cause the agreement to be distinctly read over to each seaman, as enjoined above, he shall for every such neglect forfeit and pay the sum of 5*l.*; and if any master neglects to deposit a copy of the agreement with the collector or comptroller of the customs as is hereby required, or shall wilfully deposit a false copy of such agreement, he shall for every such neglect or offence forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*—§ 4.

Seamen not to be deprived of legal Remedies, &c.—No seaman, by entering into or signing such agreement as aforesaid, shall forfeit his lien upon the ship, nor be deprived of any remedy for the recovery of his wages which seamen are now lawfully entitled to against either the ship, the master, or the owners thereof; nor shall any agreement made contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions of this act, or any clause whereby a seaman shall consent to forego the right which the maritime law gives him in wages in the case of freight earned by ships subsequently lost, or containing any words to that effect, be valid or binding on any seaman signing the same; and in cases in which it may be necessary that the agreement should be produced to sustain a claim on the part of a seaman, no obligation shall lie upon the seaman to produce the same, nor shall any seaman fall in any suit or proceeding for the recovery of his wages for want of the production of such agreement, or of any deposited copy thereof as aforesaid, or for the want of any notice to produce the same; any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 5.

Seamen refusing to join or to proceed in the Ship, &c. may be committed to Gaol.—In case a seaman shall, after having signed an agreement as before-mentioned, neglect or refuse to join the ship on board of which he has engaged to serve, or refuse to proceed to sea in her, or absent himself therefrom without leave, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace, at home or abroad, near the place, upon complaint of the fact made upon oath by the master, mate, or owner thereof, and such justice is required, by his warrant, to cause such seaman to be apprehended and brought before him; and in case such seaman shall not give a reason to the satisfaction of such justice for his neglect, refusal, or absence, upon due proof thereof it shall be lawful for such justice to commit such seaman to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for a period not exceeding 30 days; provided that in case such seaman, on being brought before said justice, shall consent to join the ship and proceed on the voyage for which he has agreed, it shall be lawful for said justice, at the request of the master, instead of committing such seaman, to cause him to be conveyed on board the said ship, or be delivered to the master, for the purpose of proceeding on the voyage, and also to award to the master such costs as shall seem reasonable, not exceeding in any case the sum of 40*s.*, which shall be chargeable against and may be deducted from the wages to grow due to such seaman.—§ 6.

Penalty for temporary Absence from Duty.—If any seaman, after having signed the aforesaid agreement, or after the ship on board of which he has agreed to serve has left her first port of clearance, and before the period for which he has agreed to serve be completed, shall wilfully and without leave absent himself from the ship, or from his duty, he shall (in all cases not of absolute desertion, or not treated as such by the master) forfeit out of his wages to the master or owner of such ship the amount of 2*d.* per day for every 24 hours of such absence, and in a like proportion for any less period of time, or, at the option of the said master, the amount of such expenses as have been necessarily incurred in hiring a substitute to perform his work; and in case any seaman while he belongs to the ship shall without sufficient cause neglect to perform such and his reasonable duties as is required of him by the master or other person in command, he shall be subject to a like forfeiture in respect of every such offence, and of every 24 hours' continuance thereof; and in case a seaman, after signing such agreement, or after the ship's arrival at her port of delivery, and before her cargo be discharged, shall quit the ship without a previous discharge or leave from the master, he shall forfeit 1 month's pay out of his wages, but no such forfeitures shall be incurred unless the fact of the seaman's temporary absence, neglect of duty, or quitting the ship be duly entered in the ship's log-book, which entry shall specify truly the day of the day at which the same shall have occurred, and the period during which the seaman was absent or neglected his duty, the name of the vessel, the name of the owner or master thereof, in all cases of default, substantiated by the evidence of the mate or some other credible witness.—§ 7.

The Amount of Forfeitures in ascertained when Seamen contract for the Voyage.—In all cases when the seaman has contracted for wages by the voyage or by the run, and not by the month or other rate

period of time, the amount of forfeitures incurred under this act shall be ascertained as follows: viz., if the whole time spent in the voyage agreed upon shall exceed 1 calendar month, the forfeiture of 1 month's pay, expressed in this act, shall be taken to be a forfeiture of a sum of money bearing the same proportion to the whole wages as a calendar month shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage, and in like manner a forfeiture of 2 days' pay or less shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of a sum bearing the same proportion to the whole wages as the same period of time shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage; and if the whole time spent in the voyage shall not exceed 1 calendar month, the forfeiture of 1 month's pay shall be taken to be a forfeiture of the whole wages contracted for; and if such time shall not exceed 2 days, the forfeiture of 2 days' pay shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of the whole wages contracted for; and the master is authorised to state the amount of all such forfeitures enacted out of the wages of any seaman incurring the same.—13.

Forfeiture for Desertion.—Every seaman who absolutely deserts the ship to which he belongs shall forfeit to the owner or master all his clothes and effects left on board, and all wages and emoluments to which he might otherwise be entitled, provided the circumstances attending such desertion be entered in the log-book at the time, and certified by the signature of the master and mate or other credible witness; and an absence of a seaman from the ship for any time within the space of 24 hours immediately preceding the sailing of the ship without permission from the master, or for any period however short under circumstances plainly showing that it was his intention not to return, shall be deemed an absolute desertion; and in case any such desertion take place in parts beyond seas, and the master be under the necessity of engaging a substitute for the deserter at a higher rate of wages than that stipulated in the agreement to be paid to the seaman deserting, the owner or master shall be entitled to recover from the deserter by summary proceeding, in the same manner as wages are hereby made recoverable, any excess of wages which he shall pay to such substitute beyond the amount payable to the deserter had he duly performed his service pursuant to agreement.—14.

Penalty for harbouring Deserters.—If any person shall, on shipboard or on shore, harbour or secrete a seaman who has signed an agreement to proceed on a voyage to parts beyond seas, and has deserted or absented himself without leave from his ship, knowing or having reason to believe him to be a deserter, or to be absent without leave, he shall for every seaman so harboured or secrete forfeit 100*l.* and no debt exceeding 5*l.*, incurred by any seaman after he has signed any agreement as aforesaid, shall be recoverable until the voyage agreed for has been concluded; nor shall it be lawful for any keeper of a public-house, or of a lodging-house for seamen, to withhold or detain any cheer, bed or bedding, clothes, tools, or other effects of any seaman, for any debt alleged to have been contracted by such seaman; and in case any chest, bed, &c., or other effects as aforesaid, be withheld contrary to this act, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions, upon complaint upon oath made by such seaman or on his behalf, to inquire into the matter, and if he see fit to cause such property or effects so withheld or detained to be seized and delivered over to the seaman.—15.

The Period within which Wages are to be paid.—The master or owner of every ship is hereby required to pay to every seaman entered as aforesaid his wages, if the same be demanded, within the periods following: viz., if the ship be employed in trading coastwise, the wages shall be paid within 2 days after the termination of the agreement, or at the time when such seaman is discharged, whichever shall first happen; if the ship be employed in trading otherwise than coastwise, then the wages shall be paid, at the latest, within 3 days after the cargo is delivered, or within 10 days after the seaman's discharge, whichever shall first happen; in either of which last-mentioned cases of payment being delayed, the seaman at the time of his discharge is entitled to be paid on account a sum equal to one fourth part of the estimated balance due to him; and in case any master or owner neglect or refuse to make such payment, he shall for every such neglect or refusal forfeit and pay to the seaman the amount of 2 days' pay for each day, not exceeding 10 days, during which payment shall without adequate cause be delayed beyond the period at which such wages or part wages are hereby required to be paid; for recovery of which forfeiture the seaman has the same remedies as he is entitled to for recovery of his wages: provided that nothing in this clause contained shall extend to the cases of ships employed in the southern whale fishery, or on voyages for which seamen by the terms of their agreement are compensated by shares in the profits of the adventure.—11.

Payment of Wages to be valid notwithstanding Bill of Sale, &c.—Every such payment of wages to a seaman shall be valid and effectual in law, notwithstanding any bill of sale or assignment made by any seaman of such wages, or of any attachment or incumbrance thereon; and no assignment or sale of wages made prior to the earning thereof, nor any power of attorney expressed to be irrevocable for the receipt of such wages, shall be valid or binding upon the party making the same.—12.

Orders to give Seamen Certificates on Discharge.—Upon the discharge of a seaman from ship, he shall be entitled to receive from the master a certificate, signed by him, of his service and discharge, specifying the period of service and the time and place of his discharge; and any master refusing to give such certificate, without reasonable cause, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay such seaman the sum of 5*l.*—13.

For obtaining immediate Payment of Wages of Seamen in certain Cases.—If after a seaman has been discharged from any ship or vessel 3 days he shall be desirous of proceeding to sea on another voyage, and in order thereto requires immediate payment of the wages due to him, any justice of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions may, on application from such seaman, and on satisfactory proof that he would be prevented from employment by delay, summon the master or owner of such ship or vessel before him, and require cause to be shown why immediate payment of such wages shall not be made; and if it appear to the satisfaction of such justice that there is no reasonable cause for delay, he shall order payment to be made forthwith, and in default of compliance with such order such master or owner shall forfeit and pay the sum of 5*l.*—14.

Summary Mode of recovering Wages not exceeding 20*l.*—And whereas seamen, in cases of dispute, may be exposed to great inconvenience, expense, and delay in obtaining payment of their wages; to remedy thereof it is enacted, in all cases of wages not exceeding 20*l.*, which are due and payable to a seaman for service in any ship, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions, residing near the place where the ship has endeavoured to receive, cleared or discharged her cargo, or near the place where the master or owner upon whom the claim is made shall be or reside, upon complaint on oath made to such justice by any seaman, or on his behalf, to summon such master or owner to appear before him to answer such complaint, and upon his appearance, or in default thereof, on proof of his having been summoned, such justice is empowered to examine upon the oath of the parties and their witnesses (if there be any) touching the complaint and the amount of wages due, and to make such order for payment as shall appear reasonable and just; and in case such order be not obeyed within 2 days after making thereof, it shall be lawful for such justice to issue his warrant to levy the amount of the wages awarded as due, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the party on whom such order for payment shall be made, rendering to such party the surplus of any shall remain of the produce of the sale) after deducting thereout all charges and expenses incurred by the seaman in making and hearing the complaint, as well as those incurred by the distress and levy and in the enforcement of the justice's order; and in case sufficient distress cannot be found it shall be lawful for the said justice to cause the amount of the said wages and expenses to be levied on the ship in respect of the service on board which the wages are claimed, or the tackle and apparel

thereof: and if an appeal be taken of the court of appeal of all costs shall be final and—15.

In what Case a Seaman's Wages may or in any Voyage may be Compelled by the Judge to be Paid to the Plaintiff.—If any ship whatever is sold at any port or more British vessel (charged) to heretofore agreement, either home or abroad, which they were taking them with any reasonable excuse or neglect except in cases of and expended on any such expenses the public notice.

Supply of Mates. the same shall be done and discharged in case any of the vessel the necessary shall stand in need of the owner and master from the seaman.

Sections 19 and general register of the admiralty registers, to go to the Master of Ships, &c. (see post, p. 445) ships; and where made to the registers of every shall not only be arrival at their ports such port an account have belonged to return under the schedule marked.

Masters of Ships. the 31st of December on the coats of ship regularly transport on the collector or comptroller of customs London, an account engaged during the names of the any time during return, under the end of the

Returns to be made from the U. K., cut up to the port thereof, or by or shall be able to sale of the ship.

Lists to be certified or confirmed or master of a required, shall be

Disposal of the then on board a J. M.'s counsel dispose of the entitled to the death of such so in the assets of arise to the pre and disabled sea the merchant vessel provided board; a ship within 1 month then the master with the proceeds with respect to

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thereof; and if such ship be not within the jurisdiction of such justice, then he is empowered to apprehend and commit the party upon whom the order for payment shall be made to the common goal of the county, court, or in any court of record in H. M.'s dominions, and it shall be the duty of all costs and expenses attending their recovery; and the award and decision of such justice shall be final and conclusive as well on every seaman as on the owner and master of the ship.

In what Case Costs of Suit for Recovery of Wages not to be allowed.—If any suit for the recovery of a seaman's wages be instituted against the ship, or the master or owner thereof, in the court of admiralty or in any vice-admiralty court, or in any court of record in H. M.'s dominions, and it shall appear to the justice that the plaintiff might have had an effectual remedy for the recovery of his wages by complaint to a justice of the peace as herein-before provided, then and in every such case such justice is hereby required to certify to that effect, and thereupon no costs of suit shall be awarded to the plaintiff.—§ 15.

If Ship is sold at a Foreign Port, Crew to be sent Home at the Expense of the Master or Owners.—When any ship whatever belonging to any subject of the U. K., except in cases of wreck or condemnation, is sold at any port out of H. M.'s dominions, the master in all such cases (unless the crew in the presence of the British consul or vice-consul, or if there be none such, then in the presence of one or more British resident merchants at such port, shall signify their consent in writing to be there discharged) is hereby required, besides paying them the wages to which they shall be entitled under the agreement, either to provide them with adequate employment on board some other British vessel bound, or to furnish the means of sending them back to the port in H. M.'s dominions at which they were originally shipped, or to some port in the U. K., as shall be agreed upon, by providing them with a passage home, or depositing with the consul or vice-consul such money as he shall deem reasonably sufficient to defray the expenses of their subsistence and passage; and if the master refuse or neglect to do so, such expenses shall be a charge upon the owner whose ship is so sold, except in cases of barratry, wreck, or condemnation, and may be recovered as so much money paid and expended on his account, together with full costs, at the suit of the consul or other person defraying such expenses, or of the attorney-general, in case the same has been allowed to the consul out of the public monies.—§ 17.

Supply of Medicines to be kept on Board, &c.—Every ship sailing from the U. K. to any place out of the same shall have and keep constantly on board a sufficient supply of medicines, suitable to accidents and diseases arising on voyages; and in case any default be made in providing such medicines, or in case any of the seamen receive any hurt or injury in the service of the ship, the expense of providing the necessary surgical and medical advice, and attendance and medicines, which the seaman shall stand in need of until he be cured or brought back to the U. K., shall be borne and defrayed by the owner and master of the ship, or one of them, without any deduction whatever on that account from his seaman's wages.—§ 18.

Sections 19 and 20 provide for the establishment of an office at the Custom-house, London, for the general register of merchant seamen, consisting of a registrar, &c., under the direction of the lords of the admiralty; and authorise letters and packets, on the business of the office, addressed to the registrar, to go free of postage.

Masters of Ships to deliver Lists of their Crew on their Return.—Whereas by the act 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 24 (see post, p. 220), a certain book by way of muster-roll is required to be kept on board merchant ships; and whereas it is expedient for the better effecting the objects of this act that a return should be made to the registrar of merchant seamen of every of the said particulars, it is enacted, that the masters of every British ship bound to parts beyond seas, except in the cases herein-after provided, shall not only keep the book required by the said recited act, but shall, on reporting his ship on her arrival at her port of destination in the U. K., deliver to the collector or comptroller of customs at such port an account, signed by himself, of all the seamen and others (including apprentices) who have belonged to the ship at any time during the absence from the U. K., containing a true and correct return under their respective heads of the several particulars expressed in the form set forth in the schedule marked (C.) at the end of this act.—§ 21.

Masters of Ships in the Home Trade to return like Lists.—Within 21 days after the 30th of June and the 31st of December in each year, the owner or one of the owners of every ship engaged in trading on the coasts of the U. K., or in regularly trading from one part of the U. K. to another, and of every ship regularly trading to any of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or to any port on the continent of Europe between the river Elbe inclusive and Brest, shall deposit with the collector or comptroller of the customs of the port to which the ship belongs, or with the registrar in London, an account, signed by the owner, or master, of the voyages in which such ship has been engaged during the half year ending on the days above mentioned, and setting forth the Christian and surnames of the several persons (including the master and apprentices) who belonged to the ship at any time during such periods, which account shall be in the form and shall contain a true and correct return, under their respective heads, of the several particulars expressed in the schedule marked (D.) at the end of this act.—§ 22.

Return to be made in case of Ship lost or sold Abroad.—In case any ship be lost or sold while absent from the U. K., then an account containing a similar return as in the cases before mentioned, made out up to the period of such loss or sale, by the persons who were at that time owner and master thereof, or by one of them, shall be transmitted to the registrar in the port of London so soon as he shall be able to make such return after the loss, and within 12 calendar months at furthest after the sale of the ship.—§ 23.

Lists to be certified, &c.—The said accounts and returns required by this act to be delivered to the collector or comptroller of customs, shall be transmitted by them to the registrar; and every owner or master of a ship who shall refuse or wilfully neglect to deliver such list or account as is hereby required, shall for every such refusal or neglect forfeit and pay the sum of 25s.—§ 24.

Disposal of the Effects of Seamen dying Abroad.—Whenever a British seaman abroad dies elsewhere than on board a British ship, leaving any money or effects within the limits of any British consulate, H. M.'s consul there is hereby required to claim and take charge of such money and effects, and to dispose of the effects for the benefit of the next of kin of the deceased or other person who may be entitled to the same; and in case no claim be made to the same within 3 calendar months after the death of such seaman, the consul shall, after abating the amount of any expenses incurred in getting in the assets of the deceased, remit the balance of such monies as either have arisen or shall hereafter arise to the president and governors of the corporation "for the relief and support of sick, maimed, and disabled seamen, and of the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchant service," to be by them paid over and disposed of in the manner and under the regulations provided by the act 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 22; and in case any seaman dying as last mentioned leave on board any ship to which he belonged any monies, clothes, or other effects, and the same he not claimed within 1 month after the ship's return to the U. K. by the executor or administrator of the deceased, then the master of the ship is hereby required to deposit the same or the proceeds arising therefrom with the president and governors aforesaid, to be disposed of in the manner provided by the said act with respect to the wages of deceased seamen.—§ 25.

Parish Rates may be put on Apprentices in the Sea Service.—Overseers of the poor or other competent

persons are hereby empowered to bind by indenture and put out any boy having attained the age of 17 years, and of sufficient health and strength, who or whose parent or parents is or are maintained by any parish or township, or who shall beg for alms therein, with his consent, but not otherwise, an apprentice in the sea service to any of H. M.'s subjects being master or owner of any ship registered in any port of the U. K., for so long time and until such boys shall respectively attain the age of 21 years, which binding shall be as effectual as if such boy had been bound by virtue of any statute now in force respecting the binding of parish apprentices, or as if such boy were of full age and had bound himself an apprentice, and notwithstanding the residence of the master or owner to whom he may be bound be more than 40 miles distant from such parish or place: provided that every such binding shall be made in the presence of 2 justices acting for the county, riding, borough, or place within which such parish or township is situate, which justices shall execute the indenture in testimony of their being satisfied that such boy hath attained the age and is of sufficient health and strength as required by this act; and that the period when the service under such indenture shall expire may the more certainly appear, the age of every such boy shall be inserted in his indenture, the same being truly taken from the entry of his baptism in the register book of the parish in which he was born (where the same can be obtained), a copy of which shall be given and attested by the officiating minister of such parish without fee or reward; and where no such entry of baptism can be found, the justices shall inform themselves as fully as they can of the boy's age, and from such information shall insert the same in his indenture, and the age of every such boy so inserted therein shall (in relation to the continuance of his service) be taken to be his true age without any further proof thereof. —*§ 26.*

Parish Apprentices may be turned over to the Sea Service.—It shall be lawful for any person to whom any parish apprentice is bound to a service on shore according to the statutes already in force relating to such apprentices, or for the executor or administrators, or, there being none such, for the widow of any such deceased person, with the concurrence of two or more justices residing in or near to the place where such poor boy shall be bound apprentice, to assign and turn over such boy, with his consent, but not otherwise, apprentice to any master or owner of any ship not having her complement of apprentices as herein required, to be employed by such master or owner in the sea service during the unexpired period of his apprenticeship. —*§ 27.*

Indentures may be assigned on the Death of the Master.—In the event of the death of the master of any parish apprentice to the sea service, it shall be lawful for the widow, executor, or administrator of such deceased master to assign his indenture for the residue of the unexpired term to any master or owner of any ship not having the complement of apprentices herein required; all which assignments, if executed within the port of London, shall be attested by the registrar or one of his assistants or clerks, and if at any other port by the collector or comptroller of the customs thereof. —*§ 28.*

Parish Officers to prepare Indentures.—Such overseers, &c. shall cause the indentures of apprenticeship to be prepared and transmitted in duplicate, if the master or owner of the ship to whom such apprentice is bound be or reside within the limits of the port of London, to the registrar, and if at any other port to the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port; and the said overseers or other persons shall cause each poor boy to be conducted and conveyed to such port or place by the constable and at the expense of the parish or township sending him thither, and shall also, upon the execution by the master of the counterpart of the indenture, cause to be paid down to the master the sum of 5*l.*, to be expended in providing such boy with necessary sea clothing and bedding; which sum, with the other expenses, are to be allowed in their accounts in relation to the poor. —*§ 29.*

How Counterparts of Indentures to be Attested.—The counterparts of all indentures shall, if the master be or reside within the limits of the port of London, be executed in the presence of and attested by the registrar or one of his assistants or clerks, and if at any other port by the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port, and also in both cases by the constable or other officer who shall convey such apprentices thither, and such indentures shall bear date respectively on the days on which they are executed; and the constable or his return shall deliver such counterpart to the overseers or other competent persons to be registered and preserved. —*§ 30.*

Every Ship to have Apprentices according to her Tonnage.—The master of every ship belonging to any subject of the U. K., and of the burden of 50 tons and upwards, shall have on board, at the time of clearing out from any port of the U. K., 1 apprentice or more, in the following proportions to the ship's admeasurement, according to the certificate of registry: viz., every ship of 50 tons and under 200 tons shall have 1 apprentice at the least, every ship of 200 tons and under 400 tons shall have 2 apprentices at the least, every ship of 400 tons and under 500 tons shall have 3 apprentices at the least, every ship of 500 tons and under 700 tons shall have 4 apprentices at the least, and every ship of 700 tons and upwards shall have 5 apprentices at the least, all of whom at the period of their being bound shall have been under 17 years of age, and shall have been duly bound for the term of 4 years at the least; and if any master neglect to have on board his ship the number of apprentices hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* in respect of each apprentice so deficient. —*§ 31.*

Apprentices exempt from Contributions.—No apprentice bound or assigned pursuant to this act, nor any master or owner in respect of any such apprentice, shall be liable for the payment of any contribution for the support of any hospital or institution. —*§ 32.*

Indentures and Assignments to be registered.—The registrar in London, and the collector and comptroller of customs at each other port, shall, in a book to be kept for that purpose, enter all indentures and assignments of parish apprentices, specifying the dates thereof, the names and ages of the apprentices, the parishes or places from whence sent, the names and residences of the masters to whom bound or assigned, and the names, ports, and burden of the respective ships to which such masters belong, and shall make and subscribe on each indenture or assignment an indorsement purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and every collector and comptroller shall also at the end of each quarter of the year transmit a list of the indentures and assignments registered by him within the preceding quarter, containing all the particulars aforesaid, to the registrar in London. —*§ 33.*

Indentures of Apprentices to be registered.—In every case of a person voluntarily binding himself apprentice to the sea service, the indentures to be executed on such occasions shall be registered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the registrar in London, and by the collector and comptroller of customs at each other port at which the indenture shall be executed, in which books shall be expressed the dates of the several indentures, the names and ages of the apprentices, the names and residences of their masters, and (if known) the names, ports, and burden of the several ships on board which they are to serve; and such registrar or collector and comptroller shall indorse and subscribe upon each indenture a certificate purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and the said collector and comptroller shall also at the end of each quarter of the year transmit a list of the indentures so registered by them within the preceding quarter, containing all the particulars aforesaid, to the said registrar, for the purposes of this act; and it shall be lawful for the master, or his executor or administrator, with the consent of the apprentice if of the age of 17 years or upwards, and if under that age with the consent of his parent or guardian, to assign or transfer his indenture to any other master or owner of any registered ship; and all such voluntary apprentices may, during the term for which they are bound, be employed in any ship of which the master of any apprentice is

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No Steam duty on Agreements.—Agreements with the crew of a ship made in conformity with this act, and all indentures of parish and voluntary apprentices to the sea service, and all counterparts and assignments of such indentures executed after the passing of this act, shall be wholly exempt from stamp duty.—§ 35.

Penalty on Masters neglecting to register Indentures, &c.—If any master to whom any apprentice mentioned in this act shall be bound or assigned neglect to cause the indenture or the assignment thereof (as the case may be) to be registered as required by this act, or shall, after the ship has cleared outwards on the voyage upon which such ship may be bound, suffer his apprentice to quit his service (not entering into that of H. M.), except in case of death, desertion, sickness, or other unavoidable cause, to be certified in the log-book of the ship, every such master shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*—§ 36.

Justices to determine Complaints.—Two or more justices, residing at or near to any port at which any ship having on board any sea apprentice shall at any time arrive, shall have full power and authority to inquire into and examine, hear, and determine all claims of apprentices upon their masters under their indentures, and all complaints of hard or ill usage exercised by their masters towards their apprentices, or of misbehaviour on the part of any apprentice, and to make such orders therein as they are empowered to do in other cases between masters and apprentices.—§ 37.

Common Assaults may be summarily punished by 2 Justices.—In case of any assault or battery which shall, after the commencement of this act, be committed on board any British merchant ship in any place at sea, or out of H. M.'s dominions, it shall be lawful for any 2 justices in any part of H. M.'s dominions, upon complaint of the party aggrieved, to hear and determine any such complaint, and to proceed and make such adjudication thereon as any 2 justices are empowered to do by the act 9 Geo. 4, c. 31, subject however to such provisos and limitations as are contained in the said act with respect to the cases of assault and battery therein mentioned; and the fine or forfeiture to be imposed in such case shall be payable to the merchant seaman's hospital or institution at or nearest to the port at place where such adjudication is made.—§ 38.

Masters entitled to receive the Wages of Apprentices entering into the Navy.—No parish or voluntary apprentice to the sea service shall be at liberty to enter into H. M.'s naval service during his apprenticeship without the consent of his master; but if nevertheless he voluntarily enter on board any of H. M.'s ships of war, and be allowed by his master to continue therein, such master, in case he give notice to the secretary of the admiralty of his consent to his apprentice remaining in H. M.'s service during the residue of his apprenticeship, shall upon the production of his indenture, be entitled, at the time of paying off the ship, to receive to his own use any balance of wages that may be then due and payable to such apprentice up to the period of expiration of his indenture.—§ 39.

Driving on shore, &c. any Person belonging to the Crew a Misdemeanor.—If any master of a British ship on shore and leave behind, or shall otherwise wilfully and wrongfully leave behind on shore or at sea, in any place in or out of H. M.'s dominions, any person belonging to his crew, before the arrival of such ship in the U. K., or before the completion of the voyage or voyages for which such person was engaged, whether such person have formed part of the original crew or not, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall suffer such punishment by fine and imprisonment, or both, as to the court before which he is convicted shall seem meet; and the said offence may be prosecuted by information at the suit of the attorney-general, or by indictment or other proceeding in any court of criminal jurisdiction in H. M.'s dominions, at home or abroad, where such master or other person shall happen to be, although the place where the offence may have been committed be out of the ordinary local jurisdiction of such court; and such court is hereby authorised to issue a commission for the examination of any witnesses absent or out of its jurisdiction; and at the trial the depositions so taken, if such witnesses be then absent, shall be received in evidence.—§ 40.

Seamen not to be discharged Abroad without Sanction.—No master shall discharge any individual person of his crew, whether British subject or foreigner at any of H. M.'s colonies or plantations, without the previous sanction in writing of the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, or other officer appointed in that behalf by the government there, or in the absence of all such authorities at or near the port or place at which the ship is then lying, then of the chief officer of customs resident at or near to such port or place; nor shall he discharge any person at any other place abroad without the like previous sanction in writing of H. M.'s minister, consul, or vice-consul there, or in the absence of any such functionary, then of two respectable merchants resident there; all which functionaries are hereby required, and all which merchants are hereby authorised, in a summary way to inquire into the grounds of such proposed discharge by examination on oath, and to grant or refuse such sanction according to their discretion, having regard to the objects of this act.—§ 41.

Not to be left Abroad on the Plea of Incapacity to proceed.—No master shall be at liberty to leave behind abroad, either on shore or at sea, any person of his crew, on the plea of such person not being in a condition to proceed on the voyage, or having deserted from the ship, or otherwise disappeared, unless upon a previous certificate in writing of one of such functionaries or merchants as aforesaid, if there be any such at or within a reasonable distance from the place where the ship shall then be, if there be time to procure the same, certifying that such person is not in such condition, or has deserted or disappeared, and cannot be brought back; and all such functionaries are hereby required, on the application of any such master, to inquire by examination on oath into the circumstances, and to give or refuse such certificate according to the result of such examination.—§ 42.

If any of the Crew are left behind, the Proof of Sanction shall be on the Master.—If any master shall leave behind any one of his crew contrary to this act, in any indictment or proceeding the proof of his having obtained the sanction or certificate aforesaid shall be upon him, it being the intention hereof that, except in the case of entering into H. M.'s naval service, no person of the crew shall be discharged, either with or without his consent, in any place abroad where such functionary can be found, unless he have given his sanction thereto.—§ 43.

Seamen when allowed to be left behind to be paid their Wages.—Every master who shall leave any person of his crew on shore at any place abroad, under certificate of his not being in a condition to proceed on the voyage, shall deliver to one of the said functionaries, or if there be none such to any two respectable merchants there, or if there be but one thereof to such one merchant, a just and true account of the wages due to such person, and pay the same to the seaman, either in money or by a bill drawn upon the owner of his ship; and if by bill, then such functionary or merchant is hereby required by certificate indorsed on such bill to testify that the same is drawn according to this act for money due on account of wages of a seaman, or to that effect; and any master who shall deliver a false account, or refuse or neglect to deliver a just and true account of the wages due to such person, and to pay the amount in money or by bill as aforesaid, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay, in addition to the wages due, the penal sum of 25*l.*—§ 44.

Not to prevent Seamen from entering into the Navy.—Nothing in this act or in any agreement shall

prevent any seaman or person belonging to any merchant ship whatever from entering or being received into H. M.'s naval service, nor shall any such entry be deemed a desertion from the merchant ship, nor incur any penalty or forfeiture whatever, either of wages, clothes, or effects, or other matter or thing, notwithstanding any agreement made to the contrary; and all masters and owners of ships are strictly prohibited from introducing into any ship's articles or agreement with the crew any clause or matter by which any penalty or forfeiture of any kind is agreed to be incurred by a seaman upon his entry into H. M.'s service.—§ 45.

Seamen entering into the Navy from Merchant Ships entitled to the immediate Delivery of Clothes, &c.—When any seaman quits a merchant ship in order to enter into H. M.'s naval service, and is actually received into such service, not having previously committed any act amounting to and treated by the master as a total desertion, he shall be entitled immediately upon entry to the delivery up of all his clothes and effects on board such merchant ship, and (in case the ship shall have earned freight) to receive from the master the proportionate amount of his wages up to the period of such entry, in money, or by a bill on the owner; all which clothes, effects, money, and bill such master is required to deliver up to him accordingly, under a penalty of 25*l.* for any refusal or neglect; to be recovered with full costs of suit by such seaman: provided, that if no freight have been earned at the time of such entry, then the master shall be required to give the seaman on entering a bill upon the owner for his wages to the period of such entry, payable on the ship's safe arrival at her destined port; but in case the master shall have no means of ascertaining the balance justly due, he shall make out and deliver to such seaman a certificate of the period of his services and the rate of wages he is entitled to, producing at the same time to the commanding officer of H. M.'s ship the agreement entered into with the seaman for the voyage; and every master, upon the delivery up of such clothes and effects, and the settlement, as now directed, of such wages, shall be entitled to receive from the officer in command of H. M.'s ship into which such seaman has entered, a certificate signed by the officer, which he is hereby required to give upon the request of the master, testifying that such seaman has entered into H. M.'s ship to serve, as proof that the master had not parted with the seaman contrary to the provisions of this act.—§ 46.

Power to H. M. to sue for the Amount advanced for Seamen left abroad.—In all cases where any master has forced on shore or left behind any person against the provisions of this act, and any such person shall become distressed and be relieved under the provisions of the act 11 Geo. 4. c. 20, or under any act hereafter to be passed, then, in addition to the wages due from and the penalties imposed on such master, H. M. shall be entitled to sue him or the owner of the ship, at the option of the lords of the admiralty, for all charges and expenses incurred on the subsistence, necessary clothing, and conveyance home of such person, as so much money paid and expended to the use of the delinquent, which, together with full costs of suit, may be recovered in the same manner as other debts due to H. M. are recoverable; and in any proceeding for that purpose proof of the account furnished to the said commissioners by any one of such functionaries, or by such two merchants or one merchant, according to the case, as provided by the said act of the 11 Geo. 4. c. 20, shall, together with proof of payment by the said lords or by the treasurer of the navy, of the charges incurred on account of such person, be sufficient evidence that he was relieved and conveyed home at H. M.'s expense; and the court in which any proceeding for the recovery of the said money is instituted is authorised to issue a commission for the examination of witnesses abroad, and the depositions so taken shall be received as evidence.—§ 47.

Ship's Agreement on Arrival at a Foreign Port to be deposited with the Consul.—Every master of a British ship, on his arrival at any foreign port where there is a British consul or vice-consul, shall deliver to such functionary the agreement with his ship's crew, to be preserved by him during the ship's stay there, and to be returned to the master before his leaving the port, without any fee or charge for the same; and if any master refuse or neglect to deliver such agreement to the consul or vice-consul, as is hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 2*l.*—§ 48.

No Seaman to be shipped at a Foreign Port without the Privity of the Consul.—During the ship's stay at any foreign port no seaman shall be shipped by any master except with the privity of the consul or vice-consul, indorsed or certified on the agreement, under a penalty of 25*l.* for every seaman shipped in breach of this act.—§ 49.

Masters to produce Agreements to Officers of King's Ships.—The master of every British ship is hereby required to produce and show to the master of the ship, and the agreement with his crew, to the captain, commander, or other commissioned officer of any of H. M.'s ships requiring a production and sight thereof; and it shall be lawful for any such officer in H. M.'s naval service, if he think it necessary, to muster the crew and passengers (if any) of any British ship, in order to be satisfied that the provisions of this act, and the laws relating to navigation with respect to the crews of merchant ships have been duly complied with; and if any master shall, upon being required by any such officer, neglect or refuse to produce the muster-roll or agreement, or obstruct any officer in mustering the said crew or passengers, or produce any false muster-roll, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 25*l.*—§ 50.

Registrar and Officers of Customs empowered to require Production of the Agreement, &c.—For the better carrying into effect the purposes of this act it shall be lawful for the registrar and his assistants, and also for the collectors or other chief officers of customs, at the several ports of the U. K. and of the British possessions abroad, to demand from the master of every ship required to enter into an agreement with his crew, the production of the muster-roll of the ship, and also of such agreement with liberty to take a copy of either or both, and to muster the crew and apprentices of such ship, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the provisions of this act, and of the laws relating to navigation have been complied with; and if any master, on such demand being made, refuse or neglect to produce such muster-roll or agreement, or refuse to allow a copy of either document to be taken, or refuse to permit, or prevent his crew and apprentices from being mustered, he shall for every such neglect, refusal, offence, forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*—§ 51.

Definition of the Terms Master, Seaman, Ship and Owner.—Every person having the charge or command of any British ship shall, within the meaning and for the purposes of this act, be deemed and taken to be the master of such ship; and every person (apprentices excepted) employed or engaged to serve in any capacity on board the same, shall be deemed and taken to be a seaman within the meaning and for the purposes of this act; and the term "ship," as used in this act, shall be taken and understood to comprehend every description of vessel navigating on the sea; and the term "owner," as applied to a ship, shall be understood to comprehend all persons, if more than one, of whom the ship belongs; and all steam and other vessels employed in carrying passengers or goods shall be deemed trading ships within the meaning and for the purposes of this act.—§ 52.

Recovery of Penalties.—All penalties and forfeitures imposed by this act, for the recovery whereof no specific mode is herein provided, shall be recovered, with costs of suit, in manner following: (that is to say), all penalties and forfeitures not exceeding 20*l.* shall be recoverable at the suit of any person by information and summary proceeding before any one or more justices or justices in any part of H. M.'s dominions, residing near to the place where the offence shall be committed, or where the offender shall be, which justices or justices shall have full power to levy the amount of any such penalty or forfeiture and costs by distress and sale of the offender's goods, or by commitment of the offender to

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... payment of the amount; and all penalties and forfeitures exceeding 20l. shall and may be recovered, with costs of suit, in any of H. M.'s courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, or Dublin, as in the colonies, at the suit of H. M.'s attorney-general or other chief-law officer of the crown in any part of H. M.'s dominions other than in Scotland, and if there at the suit of the lord advocate; and that all penalties and forfeitures mentioned in this act for which no specific application is before made shall, when recovered, be paid and applied as follows; viz. one moiety of every such penalty provided shall be paid to the informer or person upon whose discovery or information the same has been recovered, and the residue shall be divided between Greenwich Hospital and the merchant seamen's hospital at institution at the port to which the ship shall belong, and if there be none such at said port, then the whole of the said residue shall be paid to Greenwich Hospital: provided, that it shall be lawful for the court before which or the justice or justices before whom any proceedings are instituted for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty imposed by this act to mitigate or reduce such penalty as to them shall appear just and reasonable, in such manner, however, that no penalty shall be reduced below half the original amount: and provided also, that all proceedings so to be instituted be commenced within 4 years after the commission of the offence, if the same have been committed at or beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn, or within a year if committed on the European side of those limits, or within 6 calendar months after the return of the offender or complaining party to the U. K.—23.

As to Ships belonging to any British Colony having a Legislature.—This act shall not extend or apply to any ship registered in or belonging to any British colony having a legislative assembly, or to the crew of any such ship, while such ship is within the precincts of such colony; any thing herein contained to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.—§ 54.

Schedules referred to in the preceding Act.

SCHEDULE (A.)

is Agreement made pursuant to the Directions of an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixth Year of the Reign of His Majesty King William the Fourth, between _____ the Master of the Ship _____ of the Port of _____ and of the Burden of _____ Tons, and the several Persons whose names are subscribed hereto.

It is agreed by and on the part of the said persons, and they severally hereby engage, to serve on board the said ship in the several voyages expressed, on a voyage from _____ to _____ [here the intended voyage is to be described as nearly as can be done, and the places at which it is intended the ship shall touch, or if that cannot be done, the nature of the voyage in which she is to be employed], and back to _____ and the said crew further engage to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner, and to be at all times diligent in their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master

in every thing relating to the said ship, and the materials, stores, and cargo thereof, whether on board such ship, in boats, or on shore [here may be inserted any other clauses which the parties may think proper to be introduced into the agreement, provided that the same be not contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of this act]. In consideration of which services, to be duly, honestly, carefully, and faithfully performed, the said master doth hereby promise and agree to pay in the said crew, by way of compensation or wages, the amount against their names respectively expressed. In witness whereof the said parties have herein subscribed their names on the days against their respective signatures mentioned.

Place and Time of Entry.			Men's Names.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Amount of Wages per Calendar Month, Share, or Voyage.	Witness to Signature.	Name of Ship in which the Seaman last served.
Day.	Month.	Year.							

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner on the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner on the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

SCHEDULE (B.)

is Agreement made, pursuant to the Directions of an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixth Year of the Reign of His Majesty King William the Fourth, between _____ the Master of the Ship _____ of the Port of _____ and of the Burden of _____ Tons, and the several Persons whose Names are subscribed hereto.

It is agreed by and on the part of the said persons, and they severally hereby engage, to serve on board the said ship in the said several voyages against their respective names expressed, which ship is to be employed in [here the nature of the ship's employment is to be described, whether in the fisheries, on the coast, or in trading from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or to any of the islands of the West, the Indies, the East, the South Sea, or to any part of the continent of Europe (but not the river Elbe inclusive and there)]; and the said crew further engage to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner, and to be at all times diligent in their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master in every thing relating to the said ship and the materials, stores, and cargo thereof, whether on board

such ship, in boats, or on shore [here may be inserted any other clauses which the parties may think proper to be introduced into the agreement, provided that the same be not contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of this act]. In consideration of which services, to be duly, honestly, carefully, and faithfully performed, the said master doth hereby promise to pay to the said crew, by way of compensation or wages, the amount against their names respectively expressed: provided always, and it is hereby declared, that no seaman shall be entitled to his discharge from the ship during any voyage to which she may be engaged, nor at any other than a port in the United Kingdom. In witness whereof the said parties have herein subscribed their names on the days against their respective signatures mentioned.

Place and Time of Entry.			Men's Names.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Amount of Wages per Calendar Month, Share, or Voyage.	Witness to Signature.	Name of Ship in which the Seaman last served.
Day.	Month.	Year.							

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner on the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner on the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmity, and are proper objects of charity; and also to relieve the widows and children (such children being proper objects of charity) of such seamen as at the time of their death shall have been receiving or been entitled to pensions, under and by virtue of this act, from the fund hereby to be created, as decrepit or worn-out seamen, provided that no widow shall be entitled to any benefit under this act who shall not have been the wife of such seaman or pensioner before he became entitled to relief under his provisions: provided nevertheless, that no seaman shall be entitled to any provision or benefit of this act, on account of any hurt or damage received on board any ship or vessel, unless he produces, or cause to be produced, a certificate of the said hurt or damage from the master, mate, boatswain, and surgeon, or so many of them as were in the vessel to which he belonged at the time of his receiving such hurt or damage, or of the master and 2 of the seamen, if there be no other officer, or in case the master shall die, or be killed or drowned, then of the person who shall take upon him the care of the ship or vessel, and 2 of the seamen on board the same under their hands and seals, thereby signifying how and in what manner such seaman received such hurt or damage, whether in fighting, defending, working, loading, or unloading the said ship or vessel, where and when he entered, and how long he had served on board the same; and the parties so signing and sealing such certificate are hereby required to make oath to the truth thereof before some justice of the peace, if given in Great Britain or Ireland, or the chief officer of the customs of the port or place where there is no justice of the peace, or before the British consul or resident in any foreign country where such certificate is executed (who are respectively authorised and required to administer the same without fee or reward) and in case of sickness, whereby such seaman shall be rendered incapable of service, a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying that he was healthy when he entered on board such ship or vessel, and that such sickness was contracted on board the same, or on shore in doing his duty in the service of the ship, and not otherwise, and expressing the time and place he entered on board such ship or vessel, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman killed, slain, or drowned in the said service, shall be relieved or entitled to any allowance by virtue of this act unless she or they, or some person on her or their behalf, shall produce a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying how and in what manner such seaman lost his life in the service of the said ship or vessel, the time and place he entered on board, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman in the said service shall be entitled to any relief by virtue of this act, unless she or they shall produce, or cause to be produced, a certificate under the hands and seals of the minister and churchwardens and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, or under the hands and seals of the minister and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, where there are no churchwardens, or if in Scotland, by the minister and elders, or if in Ireland, by a justice of the peace for the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. shall at the time reside, and if such widow, &c. are some of the people called Quakers, then by any 2 reputable persons of that persuasion of the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. have a legal settlement, or do inhabit and reside, to be attested by 2 or more credible witnesses that such widow was the lawful wife and real widow, and that such child or children was or were the lawful child or children of such deceased seaman as aforesaid, and that such child or children is or are under the age of 15 years, or if of that age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and is or are proper objects of charity; and that no seaman shall be provided for a pension or otherwise, as decrepit or worn out, unless he have served in the merchant service for the space of five years, and have during that time paid the monthly duty out of his wages, imposed by the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., or by this act required to be henceforward paid at: deducted, as the case may happen, for the uses and purposes herein provided.—2 2.

Forgery of Certificate.—Forged certificates to be null and void; and those knowingly using them to be liable to the punishment of an incorrigible rogue.—2 3.

Court.—The president and assistants to make a court, who are to meet weekly. The court may apply the monies of the corporation, and appoint the officers and their salaries, and do all other matters and things necessary.—2 4.

All Masters and Owners of Merchant Ships or Vessels, &c. to pay 2s. per Month.—For effecting the ends and purposes aforesaid, every master of any merchant ship or vessel belonging to any British subject, and every owner, being a British subject, navigating or working his own ship or vessel, whether the said ship or vessel be employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, shall, from and after the 31st day of December, 1834, pay 2s. per month, and proportionally for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed in such merchant ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid: provided always, that such masters or owners, or their widows, and children under 14 years of age, or being objects of charity as aforesaid, shall be entitled to a proportionate increase of the pension or allowance by this act provided, according to the difference between the amount of the monthly duty paid by other seamen, mariners, and pilots, in the case such master or owner shall have paid the 2s. per month for a period of 5 years or 60 months before any application to the said president and governors for relief under this act; but in case any such master or owner be killed or drowned, or become decrepit, maimed, or disabled, before he or they shall have paid such increased rate of 2s. per month for the full period of 5 years or 60 months as aforesaid, then such masters or owners, or their widows and children, shall be entitled to such smaller pension or allowance as the said president and governors, or the trustees to be appointed, shall think fit.—2 5.

All Seamen, or other Persons serving on board such Ships or Vessels, to pay 1s. per Month.—Every seaman or other person whatsoever who shall serve or be employed in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any British subject, whether employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, and every pilot employed on board any such ship or vessel, from and after the 31st day of December, 1834, pay 1s. per month, and proportionally for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed on or before the said ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid: provided that this act shall not be construed to extend to any person employed in taking fish in any boat upon any of the coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, nor to any person employed on board or vessels that trade only from place to place within any river of Great Britain or Ireland.—2 6.

Masters of Ships to keep in their Hands 1s. per Month out of Seamen's Pay.—The master, owner, or wages, shares, or other profits payable to seamen or other persons employed on board such ship or vessel other than those hereby excepted, the said monthly duty, and shall pay the same, together with the amount of the duty owing from himself, to such officer or officers as shall be lawfully appointed at any of the out-ports for collecting the said duty of 1s. per month, if such seamen or other persons be entitled in any such wages, shares, or profits.—2 7.

Appointments of Receivers.—President and governors, with the concurrence of commissioners of customs, to appoint such persons to receive the monthly duties at the out-ports as they may think fit, making them a reasonable allowance for their trouble, which is not, however, in any case, to exceed 5 per cent. on the gross sum collected.—2 8.

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SEAMEN (ESTABLISHMENT FOR).

Master Roll.—Every master is to keep a true and faithful muster roll of the crew of his ship, specifying in writing the name of every one of the crew, including apprentices, with the various particulars as to the place of each person's birth, the place and time of his entry to the ship, the place and time of his discharge from or leaving the same, and if he be discharged or left, with the other particulars specified in the subjoined formula, in the event of his being hurt, killed, &c. :—

A List and Account of the Crew (including the Master and Apprentices) of the Ship _____ of the _____, whereof _____ is the Master, at the Period of her Departure from the Port of _____ in the United Kingdom, and on her Return to the Port of _____ in the United Kingdom, and also of those who have joined the ship at any time during the Voyage.

Man's Name.	Place of Birth.	Place and Time of Entry.			Place and Time of Discharge, or leaving the Ship.			When and how certified hurt or damaged.	When or how discharged or died at sea.	When Discharged or Died at Sea.	L. s. d.	Remarks.
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Duplicates of this account are to be delivered to the collectors of the duties at the port where the vessel discharges; and any master or commander neglecting to keep such muster roll, and neglecting or refusing to deliver it to the collectors of the duties, shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 5*l*. The collectors are to transmit to the president and governors the duplicates received from such vessels as do not belong to the port of discharge; and the latter are to transmit them to the same. Collectors neglecting to transmit such duplicates incur a penalty of 5*l*.—*§ 9*.

Masters to deduct Penalties from Wages.—The master of every ship coming within the provisions of this act shall deduct out of the wages of the seamen thereof the amount of all forfeitures incurred by any such seamen, and every master is hereby required truly to enter the same in a book to be kept by him for that purpose, which shall be signed by the master and the person next in command, both of them certifying that it contains all the forfeitures which have been incurred by the seamen of the ship during the voyage, to the truth whereof the master shall make oath when required before the officers of the president and governors in London, or before their collectors at the out-ports; and the said book, or a true copy thereof signed and certified as aforesaid, shall, within 1 calendar month after the ship's return from her voyage, be delivered to the said officer by the master, together with extracts from the log-book of the entries therein of the causes of the several forfeitures; and every master who shall refuse or neglect to deliver such account shall forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l*.—*§ 10*.

Examination of Masters, &c.—Collectors may summon masters of vessels, and examine them upon oath as to the truth of the muster-rolls; masters refusing to appear or to answer, to forfeit 12*l*.—*§ 11*.

Regulations as to Government Ships.—Secretaries, &c. of public government offices to give in a list of ships and vessels employed in their service, and of the seamen or other persons employed in such ships or vessels; and the treasurers, &c. of such offices are to pay no wages or freight to any master, &c. until he produce an acquittance signed by receiver of duties.—*§ 12*.

Payment of Duties.—The said monthly duties are to be paid at the port where the ship or vessel anchors her cargo, before she be cleared inwards; and all officers are interdicted from granting any tickets, transits, &c., or permitting any vessel to go out of any port, unless it appear by the acquittances of the collectors of the said duties that they are not more than 3 months in arrears of the same; every officer acting contrary to this regulation to forfeit 10*l*. But masters or owners may agree with the trustees and collectors for half-yearly payments.—*§ 13*.

Prevention of delay.—To prevent unnecessary delay, it is enacted, that if masters fail to produce proper acquittances or certificate of agreement, tidewriters to be continued on board at their expense.—*§ 14*.

Penalties by this act recoverable before a magistrate.—*§ 15*.

Appointment of Trustees, &c.—From and after the 1st day of October, 1834, it shall be lawful for the owners, masters, and commanders employed on board ships and vessels belonging to any of the out-ports to assemble and meet at any time and place within the same that shall be appointed by any 3 or more of them by giving 10 days' previous notice, to be fixed at the custom-house, wharf, quay, or other public place; and such persons, or the greater part of them, being so assembled, are authorized from time to time to nominate and appoint, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, 15 persons to be trustees for such out-port, for receiving, collecting, and applying the said duties, which trustees shall continue to act until the 30th day of December, 1835, and until new trustees are nominated and confirmed; and that within 10 days after the 30th day of December in each succeeding year, the owners, masters, &c. at such out-ports shall have power to meet and choose 15 persons to be trustees for the year ensuing, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, or the majority of them so assembled, having given previous notice in the manner before directed; which said respective trustees shall continue from time to time until new trustees are nominated, &c. as aforesaid; and the said instrument shall be sent, free of expense, to the president and assistant committees of the said corporation, who are required to confirm the same under the common seal of the corporation, without fee or reward, within 15 days after the receipt thereof; which trustees when so confirmed (and whereof five shall be a quorum) shall have the same powers and authorities as by-law, and to revoke or alter the same, and to receive and apply any sums of money which shall be contributed, devised, or bequeathed by any well-disposed persons for the purposes aforesaid, and to appoint receivers and other officers, and to collect, receive, pay, and apply the said duties of 1*l*. per month and 1*s*. per month so to be allowed and paid by the seamen or other persons serving on board any ship or vessel belonging to such persons, at such out-ports, according to such rules, orders, and regulations as are or shall be established by virtue and in pursuance of this act, or have been established and continued under the provisions of the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38, so far as the same are not inconsistent with or repealed or varied by the provisions of this act; and the said receivers and other officers shall have the same powers and authorities as the other receivers and officers appointed in pursuance of this act, and shall be liable to the same penalties and forfeitures: provided always, that if the instrument of trust be not sent to the president and assistant or committees within 30 days after every appointment of trustees, the trust thereby created shall be considered void, and the trustees appointed under it as discharged from the same; and that the president and governors shall have power to appoint a receiver or receivers for the port or place from which such instrument of trust has not been sent, for collecting the forementioned duties and allowances payable at such port or place aforesaid; and the said president and governors shall have power to demand from the outgoing trustees of such port or place an account in writing of the former management of such void trust, and also to demand payment from such trustees of any balance which may at the time of such default be in their hands, who are hereby required to pay the same to such receiver appointed as aforesaid, together with the books of account and other books belonging to such trustees relative to such trust.—*§ 16*

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Appointments on Default.—These are not to be revocable within 5 years.—§ 17.
Former Trustees.—Trustees previously appointed at the several out-ports to be subject to the provisions of this act.—§ 18.
Trustees in Bristol.—The corporation of the Merchants Venturers of Bristol are appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there; and empowered to hold lands, &c. for the purpose of this act.—§ 19.
Full Trustees.—The guild of the Trinity-house of Kingston-upon-Hull appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there.—§ 20.
Glasgow and Glasgow, &c.—The ports of Glasgow, Greenock, and Port Glasgow, &c. to be deemed an united port, and masters of ships belonging thereto to elect trustees for collecting duties, &c.—§ 21.

Transmission of Accounts.—Trustees of out-ports to transmit accounts of the yearly receipts and expenditure to president and governors.—§ 22.
Transmitters of Muster Rolls.—Collectors appointed by trustees or corporations aforesaid are exempted from sending duplicate of muster rolls to the president and assistants.—§ 23.

Sections 23 and 25, enact that no seaman shall be entitled to the benefit of this act unless he pays the duty; and that those seamen who have served longest shall be first provided for.
Disabled Seamen to be provided for at the port where the accident happens.—§ 26.

Disabled Seamen having served and paid 5 years, to be provided for where they have contributed most.—§ 27.

Seamen shipwrecked, or made Prisoners by the Enemy, may be relieved.—§ 28.
More regular Certificates cannot be obtained, *others may be admitted.*—In all cases where the certificate as directed to be produced by this act for the purpose of entitling parties to relief and support cannot be obtained, such other certificates as shall be satisfactory to the president and governors or trustees respectively shall be received and allowed, so as to entitle the party producing the same to the pensions or other relief provided by this act.—§ 29.

Rights of deceased Seamen to be paid to the Trustees.—All sums of money due for wages to any seaman, mariner, or other person engaged on board any British merchant ship in any port or ports in Great Britain and Ireland, who shall have died on board during the voyage, shall, within 3 months after the arrival of such ship in any port of Great Britain and Ireland, be paid to the trustees of the said port appointed in pursuance of this act, or to the receiver or collector or other authorized agent of the said president and governors, where there are no such trustees, to and for the use of the executors or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and in case no claim shall be made on the said trustees by such executors or administrators on account of such wages, within 1 year after the same have been paid over, then the said trustees shall remit the same to the collector or receiver or other their authorized agent of the president and governors at the port of London, in such manner and times as the said president, &c. shall direct, to and for the use of the executors or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and in case no claim shall be made on the said president, &c. by the executors, &c. of such seaman on account of such wages within 1 year after the same shall have been first paid over to their collector, then it shall be lawful for them to direct such wages to be paid over (but without interest for the same) to the widow, or if there be no widow claiming, then to the lawful issue respectively, or such persons as by virtue of the statutes of distribution of intestate effects shall be entitled to the same; and if any master or commander of any merchant ship neglect or refuse to pay over to the said trustees, or the receiver or collector at the port aforesaid, all such sums of money within the time before limited, he shall forfeit for every such offence double the amount of the sums of money due to any seaman or other person for wages.—§ 30.

Wages, if not demanded in 3 Years by representatives, to go to the use of the president and governors as the trustees of the respective ports.—§ 31.

Payment to Seamen's Hospital in London.—President and governors to pay 5 per cent. out of duties received by them from seamen in the port of London to the Seamen's Hospital Society in that port.—§ 32.

Deductions from Gross Amount.—It shall be lawful for the receiver or collector or other authorized agent of the president and governors at the port of London, and he is hereby authorized, to deduct, and receive from the gross amount of such sums of money as shall be derived from the unclaimed wages of deceased seamen, received by him in respect of such wages, 5 per cent. in satisfaction of all expenses and trouble he may be put to in the receipt, collection, or transmission thereof.

The contributions to the new fund will, most likely, amount to about 50,000*l.* a year; so that, if it be discreetly and economically managed, it will afford the means of suitably providing for a large number of disabled merchant seamen, as well as for the wives and children of those who have lost their lives in that service. The distressing consequences of those accidents and casualties to which seamen are so peculiarly liable, will thus be materially reduced; so that the service will, in fact, be rendered less hazardous, and more respectable.

(Sup.)

[SEAMEN (AMERICAN).

We subjoin the principal statutory regulations for the protection and government of seamen in the United States.

Act of Congress of the 20th of July, 1790.—§ 1. That from and after the first day of December next, every master or commander of any ship or vessel bound from a port in the United States to any foreign port, or of any ship or vessel of the burthen of fifty tons or upwards, bound from a port in one state to a port in any other than an adjoining state, shall, before he proceed on such voyage, make an agreement in writing or in print, with every seaman or mariner on board such ship or vessel (except such as shall be apprentices or servant to himself or owners) declaring the voyage or voyages, term or terms of time, for which such seaman or mariner shall be shipped. And if any master or commander of such ship or vessel, shall carry out any seaman or mariner (except apprentices or servants as aforesaid) without such contract or agreement being first made and signed by the seaman and mariners, such master or commander shall pay to every such seaman or mariner, the highest price or wages which shall have been given at the port or place where such seaman or mariner shall have been shipped, for a similar voyage, within three months next before the time of such shipping: *Provided* such seaman or mariner shall perform such voyage: or if not, then for such time as he shall continue to do duty on board such ship or vessel; and shall, moreover, forfeit twenty dollars for every such seaman or mariner, one half to the use of the person prosecuting for the same, the other half to the use of the United States; and such seaman or mariner, not having signed such contract, shall not be bound by the regulations, nor subject to the penalties and forfeitures, contained in this act.

§ 2. That at the foot of every such contract, there shall be a memorandum in writing, of the day and the hour on which such seaman or mariner, who shall so ship and subscribe, shall render themselves on board, to begin the voyage agreed upon. And if any such seaman or mariner shall neglect

to render himself on board the ship or vessel, for which he has shipped, at the time mentioned in such memorandum, and if the master, commander, or other officer of the ship or vessel, shall, on the day on which such neglect happened, make an entry in the logbook of such ship or vessel, of the name of such seaman or mariner, and shall, in like manner, at the time that he so neglected to render himself, (after the time appointed), every such seaman or mariner shall forfeit, for every hour which he shall so neglect to render himself, one day's pay, according to the rate of wages agreed upon, to be deducted out of his wages. And if any such seaman or mariner shall wholly neglect to render himself on board of such ship or vessel, or having rendered himself on board, shall afterwards desert and escape, so that the ship or vessel proceed to sea without him, every such seaman or mariner shall forfeit and pay to the master, owner, or consignee, of the said ship or vessel, a sum equal to that which shall have been paid to him by advance at the time of signing the contract, over and besides the sum so advanced, both which sums shall be recoverable in any court, or before any justice or justices of any state, city, town, or county, within the United States, which, by the laws thereof, have cognizance of debts of equal value, against such seaman or mariner, or his surety or sureties, in case he shall have given surety to proceed the voyage.

§ 3. That if the mate or first officer under the master, and a majority of the crew of any ship or vessel, bound on a voyage to any foreign port, shall, after the voyage is begun (and before the ship or vessel shall have left the land) discover that the said ship or vessel is too leaky, or is otherwise unfit in her crew, body, tackle, apparel, furniture, provisions, or stores, to proceed on the intended voyage, and shall require such unfitness to be enquired into, the master or commander shall, upon the request of the said mate (or other officer) and such majority, forthwith proceed to or stop at the nearest or most convenient port or place where such enquiry can be made, and shall there apply to the judge of the district court, if he shall there reside, or if not, to some justice of the peace of the city, town, or place, taking with him two or more of the said crew, who shall have made such request; and thereupon such judge or justice is hereby authorized and required to issue his precept, directed to three persons in the neighborhood, the most skillful in maritime affairs, that can be procured, requiring them to repair on board such ship or vessel, and to examine the same, in respect to the defects and insufficiency complained of, and to make report to him, the said judge or justice, in writing, under their hands, or the hands of two of them, whether in any, or in what, respect the said ship or vessel is unfit to proceed on the intended voyage, and what addition of man, provisions, or stores, or what repairs or alterations in the body, tackle, or apparel, will be necessary; and upon such report, the said judge or justice shall adjudge and determine, and shall endorse on the said report his judgment, whether the said ship or vessel is fit to proceed on the intended voyage; and if not, whether such repairs can be made, or deficiencies supplied, where the ship or vessel then lays, or whether it be necessary for the said ship or vessel to return to the port from whence she first sailed, to be there refitted; and the master and crew shall in all things conform to the said judgment; and the master or commander shall, in the first instance, pay the costs of such view, report, and judgment, to be taxed and allowed on a fair copy thereof, certified by the said judge or justice. But if the complaint of the said crew shall appear, upon the said report and judgment, to have been without foundation, then the said master, or the owner or consignee of such ship or vessel, shall deduct the amount thereof, and of reasonable damages for the detention (to be ascertained by the said judge or justice) out of the wages growing due to the complaining seamen or mariners. And if, after such judgment, such ship or vessel is fit to proceed on her intended voyage, or after procuring such man, provisions, stores, repairs, or alterations, as may be directed, the said seamen or mariners, or either of them, shall refuse to proceed on the voyage, it shall and may be lawful for any justice of the peace to commit, by warrant under his hand and seal every such seaman or mariner (who shall so refuse) in the common goal of the county, there to remain without bail or mainprize, until he shall have paid double the sum advanced to him at the time of subscribing the contract for the voyage, together with such reasonable costs as shall be allowed by the said justice, and inserted in the said warrant, and the surety or sureties of such seaman or mariner (in case he or they shall have given any) shall remain liable for such payment; nor shall any such seaman or mariner be discharged upon any writ of habeas corpus, or otherwise, until such sum be paid by him or them, or his or their surety or sureties, for want of any form of commitment, or other previous proceedings. *Provided*, That sufficient matter shall be made to appear, upon the return of such habeas corpus and an examination then to be had, to detain him for the causes thereinbefore assigned.

§ 4. That if any person shall harbor, or secrete, any seaman or mariner, belonging to any ship or vessel, knowing them to belong thereto, every such person, on conviction thereof, before any court in the city, town or county, where he, she, or they, may reside, shall forfeit and pay ten dollars for every day which he, she, or they, shall continue so to harbor or secrete such seaman or mariner, one half to the use of the person prosecuting for the same, the other half to the use of the United States; and no sum exceeding one dollar, shall be recoverable from any seaman or mariner by any one person, for any debts contracted during the time such seaman or mariner shall actually belong to any ship or vessel, until the voyage, for which such seaman or mariner engaged, shall be ended.

§ 5. That if any seaman or mariner who shall have subscribed such contract as is hereinbefore described, shall absent himself from on board the ship or vessel, in which he shall so have shipped, without leave of the master or officer commanding on board; and the mate, or other officer having charge of the logbook, shall make an entry therein of the name of such seaman or mariner, on the day on which he shall so absent himself, and if such seaman or mariner shall return to his duty within forty-eight hours, such seaman or mariner shall forfeit three days' pay for every day which he shall so absent himself, to be deducted out of his wages; but if any seaman or mariner shall absent himself for more than forty-eight hours at one time, he shall forfeit all the wages due to him, and all his goods and chattels which were on board the said ship or vessel, or in any store where they may have been lodged at the time of his desertion, to the use of the owners of the ship or vessel, and moreover shall be liable to pay to him or them, all damages which he or they may sustain by being obliged to hire other seamen or mariners in his or their place; and such damages shall be recovered with costs, in any court, or before any justice or justices, having jurisdiction of the recovery of debts to the value of ten dollars, or upwards.

§ 6. That every seaman or mariner shall be entitled to demand and receive, from the master or commander of the ship or vessel to which they belong, one-third part of the wages which shall be due to him, at every port where such ship or vessel shall unlade and deliver her cargo before the voyage be ended, unless the contrary be expressly stipulated in the contract; and as soon as the voyage is ended, and the cargo or ballast be fully discharged at the last port of delivery, every seaman or mariner shall be entitled to the wages which shall be then due according to his contract: and if such wages shall not be paid within ten days after such discharge, or if any dispute shall arise between the master and seaman or mariner, touching the said wages, it shall be lawful for the judge of the district where the said ship or vessel shall be, or in case his residence be more than three miles from the place, or of his absence from the place of his residence, then, for any judge or justice of the peace, to annul the contract of such ship or vessel to appear before him, to show cause why process should not issue against such ship or vessel, her tackle, furniture, and apparel, according to the course of admiralty courts, to answer for the said wages; and if the master shall neglect to appear, or appearing, shall not show

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time mentioned in such vessel, shall, on the day or vessel, of the name of rejected to render him or every hour which he has agreed upon, to be in respect to render him afterwards deny shall man or mariner shall a sum equal to that act, over and besides the any justice or justice were thereof, have cogniz or sureties, in case he

crew of any ship or ves- (and before the ship or) or is otherwise undi- on the intended voyage, shall, upon the request or stop at the nearest or apply to the judge of ce of the city, town, or such request; and here- receipt, directed to them recurred, requiring them the defects and inoffe- In writing, under their of such ship or vessel is sold stores, or what repairs thereon, the said judge judgment, whether the ber such repairs can be or it be necessary for the there refitted; and the ter or commander shall, be taxed and allowed an out of the said crew shall then the said master, or thereof, and of reasonable of the wages owing to such ship or vessel is fit to stores, repairs, or altera- shall refuse to proceed on mit, by warrant under his mon gain of the county, the sum advanced to him reasonable costs as shall be sureties of such seaman such payment; nor shall or otherwise, until such form of commitment, or a paper, upon the return the causes herebefore

belonging to any ship or reef, before any court in pay ten dollars for every or mariner, one half in the United States; and or by any one person, for along to any ship or ves- sed.

act as is herebefore de- shall so have shipped, o, or other officer having or mariner, on the day return to his duty within every day which he shall men shall absent himself to him, and all his goods where they may have been and moreover shall by being obliged to him recovered with costs, in try of debts to the value

From the master recon- which shall be due to go before the voyage be as the voyage is ended, such wages shall not be the master and seamen district where the said the place, or of his abid, to summon the magis- should not issue a writ of admiralty courts, in appearing, shall not the

that the wages are paid, or otherwise satisfied or forfeited, and if the matter in dispute shall not be forthwith settled, in such case the judge or justice shall certify to the clerk of the court of the district, that there is sufficient cause of complaint whereon to found admiralty process, and thereupon the clerk of such court shall issue process against the said ship or vessel, and the suit shall be proceeded on in said court, and final judgment be given according to the course of admiralty courts in such cases and in such suit all the seamen or mariners (having cause of complaint of the like kind against the same ship or vessel) shall be joined as complainants; and it shall be incumbent on the master or commander to produce the contract and logbook, if required, to ascertain any matters in dispute; and otherwise the complainants shall be permitted to state the contents thereof, and the proof of the contract shall lie on the master or commander; but nothing herein contained shall prevent any seaman from proceeding from having or maintaining any action at common law, for the recovery of his wages, or from immediately process out of any court having admiralty jurisdiction, wherever any ship or vessel may be found, in case she shall have left the port of delivery where her voyage ended before payment of the wages, or in case she shall be about to proceed to sea before the end of the ten days next after the delivery of her cargo or ballast.

7. That if any seaman or mariner, who shall have signed a contract to perform a voyage, shall, at any port or place, desert, or shall absent himself from such ship or vessel, without leave of the master, or officer commanding in the absence of the master, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace within the United States (upon the complaint of the master) to issue his warrant to apprehend such seaman, and bring him before such justice; and if it shall then appear, by due proof, that he has deserted a contract within the intent and meaning of this act, and that the voyage agreed for is not fulfilled, altered, or the contract otherwise dissolved, and that such seaman or mariner has deserted the ship or vessel, or absented himself without leave, the said justice shall commit him to the house of correction, or common goal of the city, town, or place, there to remain until the said ship or vessel shall be ready to proceed on her voyage, or till the master shall require his discharge, and then to be delivered to the said master, he paying all the cost of such commitment, and deducting the same out of the wages due to such seaman or mariner.

8. That every ship or vessel, belonging to a citizen or citizens of the United States, of the burthen of one hundred and fifty tons or upwards, navigated by ten or more persons in the whole, and bound on a voyage without the limits of the United States, shall be provided with a chest of medicines, put up by some apothecary of known reputation, and accompanied by directions for administering the same; and the said medicines shall be examined by the same or some other apothecary, once, at least, in every year, and supplied with fresh medicines in the place of such as shall have been used or spoiled; and in default of having such medicine chest so provided, and kept fit for use, the master or commander of such ship or vessel shall provide and pay for all such advice, medicine, or attendance of physicians, as any of the crew shall stand in need of in case of sickness, at every port or place where the ship or vessel may touch or trade at during the voyage, without any deduction from the wages of such sick seaman or mariner.

9. That every ship or vessel, belonging as aforesaid, bound on a voyage across the Atlantic ocean, shall, at the time of leaving the last port from whence she sails, have on board, well secured under deck, at least sixty gallons of water, one hundred pounds of salted fresh meat, and one hundred pounds of wholesome shipbread, for every person on board such ship or vessel, over and besides such other provisions, stores, and live stock, as shall, by the master or passengers, be put on board, and in like proportion for shorter or longer voyages; and in case the crew of any ship or vessel, which shall not have been so provided, shall be put upon short allowance in water, flesh, or bread, during the voyage, the master or owner of such ship or vessel shall pay, to each of the crew, one day's wages beyond the wages agreed on, for every day they shall be so put to short allowance, to be recovered in the same manner as their stipulated wages.

The provisions of the 8th section of this act, relating to a chest of medicines, have since been extended to all merchant vessels, of 75 tons or upwards, bound to the West Indies.

Act of the 10th of July, 1795.—§ 1. That from and after the first day of September next, the master or owner of every ship or vessel of the United States, arriving from a foreign port into any port of the United States, shall, before such ship or vessel shall be admitted to an entry, render to the collector a true account of the number of seamen that shall have been employed on board such vessel since she was last entered at any port in the United States, and shall pay, to the said collector, at the rate of twenty cents per month for every seaman so employed; which sum he is hereby authorized to retain out of the wages of such seamen.

2. That from and after the first day of September next, no collector shall grant to any ship or vessel whose enrolment or license for carrying on the coasting trade has expired, a new enrolment or license, before the master of such ship or vessel shall first render a true account to the collector, of the number of seamen, and the time they have severally been employed on board such ship or vessel, during the continuance of the license which has so expired, and pay to such collector twenty cents per month for every month such seamen have been severally employed as aforesaid; which sum the said master is hereby authorized to retain out of the wages of such seamen. And if any such master shall render a false account of the number of men, and the length of time they have severally been employed, as is herein required, he shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars.

3. That it shall be the duty of the several collectors to make a quarterly return of the sums collected by them, respectively, by virtue of this act, to the secretary of the treasury; and the president of the United States is hereby authorized, out of the same, to provide for the temporary relief and maintenance of sick or disabled seamen, in the hospitals or other proper institutions now established in the several ports of the United States, or in ports where no such institutions exist, then in such other manner as he shall direct. Provided, That the moneys collected in any one district, shall be expended within the same.

4. That if any surplus shall remain of the moneys to be collected by virtue of this act, after defraying the expense of such temporary relief and support, that the same, together with such private donations as may be made for that purpose, (which the president is hereby authorized to receive,) shall be interest in the stock of the United States, under the direction of the President; and when, in his opinion, a sufficient fund shall be accumulated, he is hereby authorized to purchase or receive cessions or donations of ground or buildings, in the name of the United States, and to cause buildings, when necessary, to be erected as hospitals for the accommodation of sick and disabled seamen.

5. That the president of the United States be, and he is hereby authorized to nominate and appoint, in such ports of the United States as he may think proper, one or more persons, to be called directors of the marine hospital of the United States, whose duty it shall be to direct the expenditure of the fund assigned for their respective ports, according to the 3d section of this act; to provide for the accommodation of sick and disabled seamen, under such general instructions as shall be given by the president of the United States for that purpose, and also, subject to the like general instructions to direct and govern such hospitals, as the president may direct to be built in the respective ports; and that the said directors shall hold their offices during the pleasure of the president, who is authorized to fill up all vacancies that may be occasioned by the death or removal of any of the persons so to be appointed, and the said directors shall render an account of the moneys received and expended by them, once in

every quarter of a year, to the secretary of the treasury, or such other person as the president shall direct; but no other allowance or compensation shall be made to the said directors, except the payment of such expenses as they may incur in the actual discharge of the duties required by this act.

Act of the 3d of March, 1799.—§ 1. That the president of the United States shall be, and he hereby is, authorized to direct the expenditure of any moneys which have been, or shall be, collected by virtue of an act, entitled "An act for the relief of sick and disabled seamen," to be made within the states wherein the same shall have been collected, or within the states next adjoining thereto, excepting what may be collected in the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; any thing in the said act contained, to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.

§ 2. That the secretary of the navy shall be, and he hereby is, authorized and directed to detain, after the first day of September next, from the pay thereafter to become due, of the officers, seamen, and marines, of the navy of the United States, at the rate of twenty cents per month, for every such officer, seaman, and marine, and to pay the same, quarterly annually, to the secretary of the treasury, to be applied to the same purposes as the money collected by virtue of the above mentioned act is appropriated.

§ 3. That the officers, seamen, and marines, of the navy of the United States, shall be entitled to receive the same benefits and advantages, as, by the act abovementioned, are provided for the relief of the sick and disabled seamen of the merchant vessels of the United States.

Act of the 3d of May, 1802.—§ 1. That the moneys heretofore collected in pursuance of the several acts "for the relief of sick and disabled seamen," and at present unexpended, together with the moneys hereafter to be collected by authority of the beforementioned acts, shall constitute a general fund, which the president of the United States shall use and employ, as circumstances shall require, for the benefit and convenience of sick and disabled American seamen: *Provided*, That the sum of fifteen thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, appropriated for the erection of a hospital in the district of Massachusetts.

§ 2. That it shall be lawful for the president of the United States to cause such measures to be taken as, in his opinion, may be expedient for providing convenient accommodations, medical assistance, necessary attendance, and supplies, for the relief of sick or disabled seamen of the United States, who may be at or near the port of New Orleans, in case the same can be done with the assent of the government having jurisdiction over the port; and for this purpose, to establish such regulations, and to authorize the employment of such persons, as he may judge proper; and that, for defraying the expense thereof, a sum, not exceeding three thousand dollars, be paid out of any moneys arising from the said fund, not otherwise appropriated.

§ 3. That, from and after the thirtieth day of June next, the master of every boat, raft, or flat, belonging to any citizen of the United States, which shall go down the Mississippi, with intention to proceed to New Orleans, shall, on his arrival at fort Adams, render to the collector or naval officer thereof, a true account of the number of persons employed on board such boat, raft, or flat, and the time that each person has been so employed, and shall pay, to the said collector or naval officer, at the rate of twenty cents per month, for every person so employed; which sum he is hereby authorized to retain out of the wages of such person; and the said collector or naval officer shall not give a clearance for such boat, raft, or flat, to proceed on her voyage to New Orleans, until an account be rendered to him of the number of persons employed on board such boat, raft, or flat, and the money paid to him by the master or owner thereof; and if any such master shall render a false account of the number of persons, and the length of time they have severally been employed, as is herein required, he shall forfeit and pay fifty dollars, which shall be applied to, and shall make a part of, of the said general fund, for the purposes of this act: *Provided*, That all persons employed in navigating any such boat, raft, or flat, shall be considered as seamen of the United States, and entitled to the relief extended by law to sick and disabled seamen.

§ 5. That each and every director of the marine hospitals within the United States, shall, if it can with convenience be done, admit into the hospital of which he is director, sick foreign seamen, on the application of the master or commander of any foreign vessel to which such sick seaman may belong; and such seaman so admitted shall be subject to a charge of seventy-five cents per day for each day he may remain in the hospital, the payment of which the master or commander of such foreign vessel shall make to the collector of the district in which such hospital is situated; and the collector shall not grant a clearance to any foreign vessel, until the money due from such master or commander, in manner and form aforesaid, shall be paid; and the director of each hospital is hereby directed, under the penalty of fifty dollars, to make out the accounts against each foreign seaman that may be placed in the hospital, under his direction, and render the same to the collector.

Act of the 25th of February, 1803.—§ 3. That whenever a ship or vessel, belonging to a citizen of the United States, shall be sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged, or when a seaman or mariner, a citizen of the United States, shall, with his own consent, be discharged in a foreign country, it shall be the duty of the master or commander to produce in the consul, or vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, the list of his ship's company, certified as aforesaid, and to pay to such consul, vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, for every seaman or mariner so discharged, being designated on such list as a citizen of the United States, three months' pay, over and above the wages which may then be due to such mariner or seaman, two thirds thereof to be paid by such consul or commercial agent, to each seaman or mariner so discharged, upon his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the other remaining third to be retained for the purpose of creating a fund for the payment of the passage of seamen or mariners, citizens of the United States, who may be desirous of returning to the United States, and for the maintenance of American seamen who may be destitute, and may be in such foreign port; and the several sums retained for such fund shall be accounted for with the treasury every six months, by the persons receiving the same.

§ 4. That it shall be the duty of the consuls, vice consuls, commercial agents, vice commercial agents of the United States, from time to time, to provide for the mariners and seamen of the United States, who may be found destitute within their districts, respectively, sufficient subsistence and passages to some port in the United States, in the most reasonable manner, at the expense of the United States, subject to such instructions as the secretary of state shall give; and that all masters and commanders of vessels belonging to citizens of the United States, and bound to some port of the same, are hereby required and enjoined to take such mariners or seamen on board of their ships or vessels, at the request of the said consuls, vice consuls, commercial agents, or vice commercial agents, respectively, and to transport them to the port in the United States to which such ships or vessels may be bound, on such terms, not exceeding ten dollars for each person, as may be agreed between the said master and consul, or commercial agent. And the said mariners or seamen shall, if able, be bound to do duty on board such ships or vessels, according to their several abilities: *Provided*, That no master or captain of any ship or vessel shall be obliged to take a greater number than two men to every one hundred tons burthen of the said ship or vessel, on any one voyage; and if any such captain or master shall refuse to do so, on the request or order of the consul, vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, such captain or master shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars for each mariner or seaman so refused, to be recovered, for the benefit of the United States, in any court of competent jurisdiction. And the certificate of any such consul or commercial agent, given under his hand and

official seal, shall be the recovery of the

The reader is reminded that the SEAWORTHYNESS of a vessel is a condition of the goods of

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official seal, shall be prima facie evidence of such refusal, in any court of law having jurisdiction for the recovery of the penalty aforesaid.

The reader may also be referred to *Kent's Commentaries on American Law* for a comprehensive and excellent statement of the law relating to seamen.—*Am. Ed.*]

SEAWORTHY, a term applied to a ship, indicating that she is in every respect fit for her voyage.

It is provided in all charterparties, that the vessel chartered shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, well apparelled, furnished with an adequate number of men and mariners, tackle, provisions, &c." If the ship be insufficient in any of these particulars, the owners, though ignorant of the circumstance, will be liable for whatever damage may, in consequence, be done to the goods of the merchant; and if an insurance has been effected upon her, it will be void.

But whether the condition of seaworthiness be expressed in the charterparty or not, it is always implied. "In every contract," said Lord Ellenborough, "between a person holding himself forth as the owner of a lighter or vessel ready to carry goods for hire, and the person putting goods on board, or employing his vessel or lighter for that purpose, it is a term of the contract on the part of the lighterman or carrier implied by law, that his vessel is tight, and fit for the purpose for which he offers and holds it forth to the public: it is the immediate foundation and substratum of the contract that it is so: the law presumes a promise to that effect on the part of the carrier, without any actual proof; and every reason of sound policy and public convenience requires that it should be so."

Not only must the ship and furniture be sufficient for the voyage, but she must also be furnished with a sufficient number of persons of competent skill and ability to navigate her. And for sailing down rivers, out of harbours, or through roads, &c., where either by usage or the laws of the country a pilot is required, a pilot must be taken on board. But no owner or master of a ship shall be answerable for any loss or damage by reason of no pilot being on board, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot shall have arisen from any refusal to take a pilot on board; or from the negligence of the master in not heaving to, for the purpose of taking on board any pilot who shall be ready and offer to take charge of the ship.—(46 Geo. 3. c. 164.)

A ship is not seaworthy unless she be provided with all the documents or papers necessary for the manifestation of the ship and cargo. Neither is she seaworthy, if, during war, she be not supplied with the sails required to facilitate her escape from an enemy.

It is only necessary, to guarantee the owners from loss, that the ship should be seaworthy at the time of her departure. She may cease to be so in a few hours, and yet they may not be liable. The question to be decided in such cases always is, whether the ship's disability arose from any defect existing in her before her departure, or from a cause which occasioned it afterwards. But if a ship, within a day or two of her departure, become leaky or foundered at sea, or be obliged to put back, without any visible or adequate cause to produce such an effect—such as the starting of a plank or other accident to which the best ships are liable, and which no human prudence can prevent—the fair presumption is that she was not seaworthy when she sailed; and it will be incumbent on the owners to show that she was seaworthy at that time. They are liable for damage occasioned by every injury arising from any original defect in the ship, or from bad stowage; but they are not liable for any injury arising from the act of God, the king's enemies, or the perils of the sea.

It is further to be observed, that how perfect soever a ship may be, yet, if from the nature of her construction, or any other causes, she be incapable of performing the proposed voyage, with the proposed cargo on board, she is not seaworthy. *She must be, in all respects, fit for the trade in which she is meant to be employed.* And it is a wholesome rule that the owners should be held to a pretty strict proof of this.

It has been already observed, that any defect in point of seaworthiness invalidates an insurance upon a ship. There is not only an express but an implied warranty in every policy, that the ship shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, &c.," and the reason of this is plain. The insurer undertakes to indemnify the insured against the extraordinary and unforeseen perils of the sea; and it would be absurd to suppose that any man would insure against those perils, but in the confidence that the ship is in a condition to encounter the ordinary perils to which every ship must be exposed in the usual course of the proposed voyage.

By the old law of France it was directed, that every merchant ship, before her departure from the place of her outfit, should be surveyed by certain sea officers appointed for that purpose, and reported to be seaworthy, "*en bon état de navigation*;" and that previous to her return, before she took her homeward cargo on board, she should be again surveyed. Valin has shown—(Tit. *Fret*, art. 12.) that very little confidence could be placed in these surveys, which, he tells us, were only made upon the external parts, for the ship was not unsheathed; and, therefore, her internal and hidden defects could not be disclosed. This practice seems now to be abandoned by the French; at least, there is no allusion to it in the *Code de Commerce*. It is, one should think, much better to leave the question as to the seaworthiness of the ship to be ascertained, as in England, after a loss has happened, by an investigation of the true cause of such loss, than to permit so important a question to be decided upon the

report of officers without any motive to inquire carefully into her actual condition. A ship may, to all appearance, be perfectly capable of performing a voyage; and it is only after a loss has happened, that her latent defects can be discovered, and her true state at the time of her departure rendered manifest. Indeed, the survey made by the French was not deemed a conclusive proof that the ship was, at her departure, really seaworthy: it merely raised a presumption that such was the case; but it was still open to the freighter or the insurer to show the contrary.

For further information upon this point, the reader is referred to the able and excellent works of *Chief Justice Abbott (Lord Tenterden)* on the *Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 2., and of *Mr. Serjeant Marshall* on *Insurance*, book i. c. 5. § 1.

SEEDS, in commerce, the grains of several species of gramina. Those of most importance are clover seed, flax or linseed, hemp seed, mustard seed, rape seed, tares, &c.; for which, see the respective articles.

SEGARS, or CIGARS. See **TOBACCO.**

SENA (Fr. *Sene*; Ger. *Sennablater*; It. *Senna*; Sp. *Sen*; Lat. *Cassia Senna*; Arab. *Suna*). The plant (*Cassia Senna*) which yields the leaves known in commerce and the *materia medica* by the name of senna, is an annual, a native of Upper Egypt, and Bernou in Central Africa. The senna after being collected in Upper Egypt, is packed up in bales, and sent to Boullae, where it is mixed with other leaves, some of which are nearly equally good, while others are very inferior. After being mixed, it is repacked in bales at Alexandria, and sent to Europe. A great deal of senna is imported from Calcutta and Bombay, under the name of East India senna; but it is originally brought to them from Arabia.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) Senna is very extensively used in medicine. The total quantity imported in 1831 amounted to 250,296 lbs. of which 130,222 lbs. were retained for home consumption. Of the imports, 42,519 lbs. came directly from Egypt; 200,990 lbs. from the East Indies; and a small quantity at second hand from Italy and other places. The imports of senna from India in 1832 amounted to 4,1917 lbs. The duty was reduced, in 1832, from 1s. 3d. to 6d. per lb.

SHAGREEN (Ger. *Schagrin*; It. *Chagrin*; Rus. *Schagrim*, *Schugren*), a kind of grained leather, used for various purposes in the arts. It is extensively manufactured at Astrakhan in Russia.—(See *Tyoko's Russia*, vol. iii. p. 403.)

SHAMMY, or CHAMOIS LEATHER (Ger. *Sämischleder*; Fr. *Chamois*; It. *Camoscio*; Rus. *Samshunil*, *Koshi*), a kind of leather dressed in oil, or tanned, and much esteemed for its softness, pliancy, and capability of bearing soap without hurt. The real shammy is prepared of the skin of the chamois goat. But leather prepared from the skins of the common goat, kid, and sheep, is frequently substituted in its stead.

(SHARES IN JOINT STOCK COMPANIES (PRICES OF, &c.))—The following Table may, we hope, be useful to such of our readers as have not ready access to the lists regularly published in London. It embraces the various companies of which shares are usually on sale in the London market, exhibiting the number of shares in each, the sum paid up on account of such shares, the price which they brought on the 3d of April, 1840, the then dividend on account of each share, and the periods when the dividends are payable. It is taken from Wettenhall's List, the most authentic record of such matters. It can hardly, we think, fail to be interesting; for, though some of the particulars embodied in it will soon become obsolete, others will not easily change, and it will be always valuable as a standard of comparison.

Increase of Companies.—The extraordinary increase of joint-stock companies, for the construction of railways, the formation of banks, insurance offices, &c., is not one of the least interesting phenomena of the present times. This increase makes it peculiarly desirable that the law as to these associations, both as respects the engagements between them and the public, and the rights and obligations of the partners in reference to each other, should be clearly defined and laid down; and we have heard that it is intended to introduce a measure in furtherance of these objects. The subject, however, is one of considerable difficulty, and should be approached with great caution. But whatever may be done in this matter, we trust that no attempt will be made, directly or indirectly, to lessen the indefinite responsibility of every partner in such concerns for their debts and engagements. We look upon this unlimited individual responsibility as by far the best, or rather the only, security that is worth a straw for their honest and prudent management. The introduction of partnerships *en commandite*, or of partnerships with limited responsibility, would be both unnecessary and mischievous: unnecessary, because there is no disinclination on the part of individuals to embark, as the law now stands, in any undertaking, how hazardous soever, that affords a reasonable prospect of even a moderate return; and mischievous, because partnerships with limited responsibility may be, and in fact frequently are, converted into engines for deceiving and defrauding the public. Some companies have endeavoured to defeat this indefinite liability by inserting clauses to that effect among the conditions on which they profess to do business. But it is believed that these stipulations are illegal; of their inexpediency there can be no doubt: and as they may entrap the unwary, and give rise to litigation, their prohibition by an act of the legislature would seem to be a prudent measure.

Table of the principal Shares paid up

No. of Shares.	Sum paid up.
1,700	1,700
1,000	1,000
1,200	1,200
1,001	1,001
1,000 1/4 sh.	1,000 1/4
4,000	4,000
600	600
400	400
8,000 3/4	8,000 3/4
500	500
90,000	90,000
3,375 3/4	3,375 3/4
251	251
1,797	1,797
11,800	11,800
2,519 1/8	2,519 1/8
1,910	1,910
5,086	5,086
600	600
710	710
8,283	8,283
6,328	6,328
11,080 1/8	11,080 1/8
2,973 3/4	2,973 3/4
645 3/4	645 3/4
1,997	1,997
700	700
75	75
2,408	2,408
700	700
850	850
500	500
5,000	5,000
847	847
1,788	1,788
1,400	1,400
91,418	91,418
6,598	6,598
500	500
800	800
4,806	4,806
700	700
600	600
300	300
8,847	8,847
200	200
653	653
8,762	8,762
2,253	2,253
1,150	1,150
2,601 1/4 sh.	2,601 1/4
848	848
1,000 sh. 1,000 1/4 sh.	1,000 sh. 1,000 1/4
900	900
1,000	1,000
6,000	6,000
800	800
128	128
605	605
808 1/2, 1,065 1/2 sh.	808 1/2, 1,065 1/2
1,000	1,000
322 1/2, 310 1/2 sh. 10	322 1/2, 310 1/2
2,200	2,200
68,324	68,324
1,372 7/8	1,372 7/8
50,000	50,000
30,000	30,000
4,800	4,800
4,438	4,438
8,800	8,800
2,000	2,000
372	372
1,500	1,500
6,498	6,498
1,000	1,000
8,294	8,294
1,362	1,362
1,000	1,000
7,281	7,281
1,700	1,700
3,000	3,000
6,000	6,000
5,000	5,000
60,000	60,000
6,548	6,548
3,000	3,000
50,000	50,000
50,000	50,000
24,000	24,000
1,200 1/4 sh.	1,200 1/4

SHARES (PRICES OF, ETC.).

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Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales, the number of Shares in each, the sum paid up on account of such Shares, with their Prices, Dividends, &c. on the 3d of April, 1840.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.		Dividends per Annum.		Dividends Due.
			£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	
CANALS.							
		Shares Paid.					
1,700	Ashdon and Oldham, Average 87L 18s.		112	0	7	0	per ct.
1,682	Ashby de-la-Zouch, Av. 113L		72	0	1	0	0
720	Barnsley	160			14	0	0
1,800	Basingstoke	100			5	0	0
1,800	Brecknock and Aberegrany	150			5	10	0
1,000 1/4 sh.	Birmingham 1/8th share, Bl. 15s. & 7 1/2 s. d.	100			21	0	0
4,000	Birm. and Lev. Junction	100			27	0	0
400	Chilmer and Blackwater	100			10	0	0
600	Cosenry	100			5	0	0
487	Cromford	100			11	0	0
1,300 5/4	Dudley	100			27	0	0
600	Derby	100			4	10	0
20,000	Drumce and Moyone Av. 133	411 13s. 4d.			13	0	0
2,575 3/4	Ellenore and Chester	100			1	0	0
251	Erewash	100			8	0	0
1,977	Firth and Clyde Av. 400L 15s.				2	0	0
11,800	Grand Junction	100			30	0	0
2,519 1/8	Grand Union	100			10	0	0
1,500	Grand Surrey	100			24	0	0
3,000	Grand Westerns	100 100			1	0	0
400	Glanogoushire Av. cost 172L 13s. 4d.				19	0	0
743	Grantham	150			13	12	8
1,233	Huddersfield Av. 57L 6s. 6d.				2	0	0
1,300	Kennet and Avon Av. 39L 18s. 10d.				30	0	0
11,888 1/8	Lancaster Av. 47L 8s. 8d.				1	5	0
2,497 3/4	Leeds and Liverpool	140			65	0	0
845 3/4	Leicester	100			15	10	0
1,977	Leicester and Northampton Av. 83L 10s.				6	10	0
70	Loughborough Av. 142L 17s.				2,250	0	0
2,400	Monmouthshire	100			125	0	0
700	Montgomeryshire	100			8	0	0
820	Melton Mowbray	100			200	0	0
520	Nersey and Iwerell	100			260	0	0
5,000	Macclesfield	100			4	0	0
847	North	100			325	0	0
1,788	Onflow	100			610	0	0
2,400	Peak Forest Av. about 78				61	0	0
21,113	Regent's (or London) Av. 33L 16s. 8d.				121 & 121	3s. 6d.	0
5,000	Reichelt Av. 85				65	0	0
600	Shropshire	125			138	0	0
700	Somerset Coal	150			150	0	0
2,600L	Somerset Lock Fund Stock 12L 10s.				11	0	0
300	Stafford and Worcester	140			690	0	0
600	Stretwary	125			380	0	10
300	Stourbridge	145			390	0	0
1,847	Stratford on Avon Av. 79L 8s. 8d.				44	0	0
200	Stourwater	150			500	0	0
533	Swavesey	100			265	0	0
2,752	Swansea Av. 35				42	0	0
1,800	Thames and Severn, black,	100			34	0	0
2,310 1/4 sh.	Trent and Mersey 1 sh. 5d.				697	10	0
1,148	Thames and Medway Av. 10L 5s. 6d.				7	0	0
1,000 1/2 1/4 sh.	Warwick and Birmingham Av. 100				268	0	0
900	Warwick and Napton	100			195	0	0
6,000	Worcester and Birmingham Av. 78L 8s.				68	0	0
4,000	Wills and Berks Av. 67L 10s. 8d.				296, 10s. & 282, 6s.	1	10
800	Witley and Eastington	100			6	0	0
198	Wobech	105			30	0	0
805	Wey and Arun	110			22	10	0
DOCKS.							
60 & 1,065 1/4 sh.	Commercial	110			65	0	0
	East and West India	Stock			107	0	0
1,033	East Country	100			10	0	0
262, 5s. 3/10 5s. 10	Leaden	Stock			66	10	0
	Ditto Bonds				4	0	0
2,209	Strait Av. 147L 9s.				5	3	6
68,324L	Ditto Bonds Various amounts				104	0	0
1,572,782	St. Katherine	Stock			101	0	0
500,000	Ditto Bonds				4	10	0
800,000	Ditto Bonds 1840				4	0	0
	Southampton	50			4	0	0
WATER-WORKS.							
4,800	Birmingham	25			20	0	0
4,438	East London	100			161	10	0
1,500	Grand Junction Av. 41L 13s. 4d.				36	5	0
2,000	Keat	100			44	0	0
372	Liverpool Bottle	220			327	0	0
1,500	New River London Bridge Water An- nities				59	0	0
6,488	Manchester and Salford Av. 30				67	10	0
1,000	Vauxhall, late South London	100			105	0	0
4,374	West Middlesex Av. 63L 12s. 6d.				66L 10s. ex. div.	0	0
1,862	York Building Co. Lessee Prop.	100			35	0	0
BRIDGES.							
1,800	Hammermith	50			22	0	0
7,221	Southwick with new subst. Av. 63L 2s. 8d.				2	10	0
1,700	Ditto, New, of 7 1/2 per cent.	50			15	5	0
6,000	Waterloo	100			3	0	0
6,000	Ditto Old Ann. of 4L	50			20L 10s. ex. div.	1	2
6,000	Ditto New ditto of 7L	40			18	0	0
60,000L	Ditto Bonds				6	0	0
6,948	Vauxhall Av. 70L 10s. 3d.				0	19	0
ASSURANCE COMPANIES.							
2,000	Athlon	500			73	0	0
50,000	Alliance, Brit. and For.	100			14	18	0
50,000	Ditto Marine	100			5	10	0
4,000	Atlas	50			15	3	0
1,500 1/4 sh.	Birmingham Fire	20			107	10	0
		55			5	5	0

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Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—continued.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.		Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Dec.
			<i>L. s. d.</i>	<i>L. s. d.</i>		
20,000	British Fire	Shares Paid. 2.0 50d.	40 0 0	4 0 0 per ct.	March and Sep.	800
12,000	British Commercial	50 5	51. 15s. & 6d. 17s. 6d.	8 0 0 —	June and Dec.	8,000
3,000	Chert's, Mod. and Gen. Life	100 2 1/2	4 5 0	5 0 0 —	August	1,000
4,000	Crown	100 10	—	0 0 0 —	November	4,000
90,000	Eagle	50 11 1/2	—	8s. per ct. ba.	October	8,200
800	Economic Life	1,000 50 0	5 7 0	0 5 0	October	400
10,000	Eng. and Scot. Law, Fire and Life	50 2	400 0 0	8s. 10. ct. & 30s. 10.	Jan. and July	750
2,371	European Life	50 2	22 0 0	1 2 0	—	15,000
50,000	Empire Fire	100 2	1 18 0	0 2 0	—	—
25,000	Freemasons	30 3	—	5 0 0 per ct.	—	6,000
100,000	Globe	Stock 100 2 1/2	198 0 0	6 0 0 —	Jan. and Dec.	—
20,000	Guardian	—	98 0 0	5 0 0 —	July	—
3,000	Hape Life	25 2 1/2	—	4 0 0 —	September	6,800
2,400	Imperial Fire	50 2	—	0 2 6	March	2,500
750	Imperial Life	100 10	10 5 0	—	June and Dec.	15,000
13,458	Indemnity Marine	100l. 6l. 18s. 6d.	25 10 0	—	August	7,000
2,000	Kent Fire	50 50	92 0 0	3 10 0	Feb. and Aug.	8,000
10,000	Law Life	100 10	70 0 0	3 0 0	April	6,000
90,000	Legal and General Life	50 3	80 0 0	0 16 0	—	8,000
3,800	London Fire	25 12 1/2	19 10 0	0 10 0	March and Sep.	4,000
31,000	London Ship	25 12 1/2	18 10 0	0 10 0	—	12,500
10,000	Marine	100 10	—	0 10 0	July	6,000
50,000	Marine Life	50 2	—	4 0 0 —	—	18,000
31,000	National Life	100 6	12 0 0	8 0 0 —	—	18,000
30,000	Palladium Life	50 2	2 7 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July	15,000
50,000	Phoenix	100 2	178 0 0	6l. per ct. ba.	—	10,000
2,500	Proteus Life	20 1	0 18 0	4 0 0 per ct.	—	11,000
10,000	Provident Life	100 10	18 0 0	1 0 0	June	10,000
100,000	Rock Life	2 1 2	8 15 0	0 5 0	October	20,000
658,219, 17s. 10d.	Royal Exchange	Stock	902 1/2 & 903 1/2	8s. per ct. ba.	June and Dec.	25,000
10,000	Royal Naval, Mill, and E. L. Com.	25 3	3 0 0	4 0 0 per ct.	—	6,000
6,000	Sun Fire	100 3	210 0 0	8l. 10s. per ct. ba.	July	2,000
5,000	Universal Life	100 6	7 15 0	5 0 0 per ct.	May	8,000
1,500	Union Fire	2.0 20	184l. & 185l.	3 10 0	Jan. and July	5,100
JOINT STOCK BANKS.						
25,000	Agricultural and Com. of Ireland	25 10	57 10 0	8 0 0 per ct.	Jan. and July	11,475
10,000	Australia	40 40	—	—	—	20,000
50 0	Ditto New	40 20	28l. 10s. & 29l. 5s.	—	—	20,000
10,000	Birmingham Bank	50 10	—	10 0 0 —	March	—
20,000	British North American	30 50	28l. 5s. & 28l. 15s.	7 0 0 —	June and Dec.	15,000
10,000	Commercial Bank of England	5 5	—	7 0 0 —	—	—
20,000	Colonial	100 25	32l. 15s. & 33l.	7 0 0 —	Jan. and July	—
10,000	Hibernian	100 25	—	8 0 0 —	March and Sep.	28,000
50,000	Imperial Bank of England	20 8	—	—	—	31,250
4,000	Ioman State	25 5	6 10 0	—	—	38,000
30,000	London and Westminster	100 20	22l. 15s. & 23l. 12s. 6d. 17s. 6d. & 15s.	6 0 0 —	March	—
60,000	London Joint Stock Company	50 10	12 10 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July	38,868
40,000	London and County	50 10	8 0 0	—	—	—
25,000	Liverpool	100 12 1/2	21 0 0	10 0 0 —	—	8,000
50,000	Manchester and Liverpool Dist.	10 15	9 12 6	7 10 0 —	March	10,000
20,000	Manchester	100 25	—	7 0 0 —	October	18,000
400,000	Metropolitan	25 7 1/2	—	—	—	10,000
25,000	Northamptonshire and Glamorganhire	20 10	—	10 0 0 —	Feb. and Aug.	—
20,000	Provincial Bank of Ireland	100 25	41 5 0	8 0 0 —	Jan. and July	10,000
4,000	Ditto New	10 10	17 0 0	5 0 0 —	—	15,000
20,000	National Bank of Ireland	50 17 1/2	—	—	—	—
10,000	National Provincial England	100 35	24l. 15s. & 24l. 12s. 6d.	5 0 0 —	—	5,128
10,000	Ditto New	20 10	9l. 15s. & 10l. 5s.	—	31 December	2,200
80,000	Northern and Central Bank of England	10 10	—	5 0 0 —	—	1,000
20,000	North and South Wales	20 5	—	6 0 0 —	—	1,500
21,500	Northamptonshire Union	25 5	14 0 0	14 0 0 —	July	2,000
15,000	Gloucestershire	50 10	30 0 0	—	Feb. and Aug.	1,500
8,000	Hampshire	50 5	—	10 0 0 —	August	—
10,000	North Wales	25 5	—	5 0 0 —	—	—
15,000	Southern District	20 5	—	5 0 0 —	May	—
20,000	West of Eng. and South Wales Dis.	20 12 1/2	12 5 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July	1,800
20,000	Wilt and Dorset	15 7 1/2	8 5 0	6 0 0 —	—	8,000
10,000	Union Bank of Australia	25 17 1/2	—	—	—	4,000
60,000	Union Bank of London	50 5	6 2 6	—	—	10,000
GAS LIGHT AND COKE COMPANIES.						
2,500	Bath	200 16l.	—	0 16 0 —	March and Sep.	8,000
100	Birmingham	25	—	1 0 0 —	—	10,000
6,000	British	40 16	18 0 0	1 5 0 —	May and Nov.	6,000
5,000	Ditto Provincial	30 19	—	1 7 0 —	—	11,000
278	Birmingham	77l. 10s.	93 0 0	4 10 0 —	Jan. and July	10,000
2,400	Birmingham and Staffordshire	50	73 0 0	4 0 0 —	March and Sep.	10,000
800	Brentford	50	18 0 0	—	April	30,000
4,200	Beistol	20	38 0 0	2 0 0 —	March and Sep.	10,000
2,200	Birmingham	20	10 15 0	—	—	—
2,171	Ditto General	30 20	9 10 0	—	—	—
240	Canterbury	50	—	6 0 0 —	Jan. and July	6,000
300	Chelmsford	50	—	4 0 0 —	December	15,000
1,000	Cheltenham	50	—	8 0 0 —	April and Oct.	10,000
1,000	City of London	100 100	—	15 0 0 —	March and Sep.	8,500
4,000	Ditto New	75	110 0 0	10 0 0 —	June and Dec.	1,500
800	Continental Consolidated	75 62 1/2	—	6 10 0 per sh.	Jan. and July	—
70 0	Ditto New	50 11	23l. & 24l.	—	—	20,000
800	Coventry	25	2 10 0	—	—	10,000
600	Dudley	20	17 0 0	6 0 0 per ct.	—	4,000
20,000	Deptford, Rotherhithe, Bermondsey,	1 1	20 0 0	—	June and Dec.	11,500
4,000	Equitable	50 50	11 7 6	—	—	—
10,000	Imperial	50 50	53 10 0	5 0 0 —	—	—
53,000	Ditto Bonds	100	—	4 0 0 —	August	6,000
800	Isle of Thanet	25 20	18 0 0	—	April and Oct.	2,000
2,150	Independent	20 30	50 0 0	6 0 0 —	March and Sep.	30,000
3,000	London	50 50	—	4 0 0 —	—	—
900	Liverpool	212l. 18s.	370 0 0	17 0 0 —	March	2 1/2

No. of Shares.	Dividends Dec.
800	—
8,000	—
1,000	—
4,000	—
8,200	—
900	—
400	—
750	—
15,000	—
6,000	—
6,800	—
2,500	—
15,000	—
7,000	—
8,000	—
6,000	—
800	—
3,000	—
40,000	—
12,500	—
6,000	—
18,000	—
15,000	—
10,000	—
11,000	—
10,000	—
20,000	—
25,000	—
6,000	—
2,000	—
8,000	—
2,100	—
5,100	—
7,968	—
11,475	—
20,000	—
34,000	—
20,000	—
15,000	—
28,000	—
31,250	—
38,000	—
38,868	—
8,000	—
10,000	—
18,000	—
10,000	—
5,128	—
2,200	—
1,000	—
1,500	—
2,000	—
4,000	—
10,000	—
8,000	—
6,000	—
10,000	—
15,000	—
8,500	—
1,500	—
20,000	—
10,000	—
4,000	—
11,500	—
6,000	—
10,000	—
8,500	—
2,000	—
30,000	—
2 1/2	—

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—continued.

Dividends per annum.	Dividends Due.	No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.			Dividends per Annum.			Dividends Due.
					£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
0 per ct.	March and Sep.	300	Malden	500	100	0	0	10	0	0	Feb. and Aug.
0 per ct.	June and Dec.	1,000	Phoenix	80	30	10	0	4	0	0	June and Dec.
0 per ct.	August	1,000	Ratcliff	100	30	0	0	6	0	0	March and Sep.
0 per ct.	October	4,000	South Metropolitan Company	50	52			4	0	0	July
0 per ct.	November	3,200	United General	50	48			6	0	0	Jan. and July
0 per ct.	October	300	Warwick	50				6	0	0	—
0 per ct.	Jan. and July	400	Wakefield	25				1	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	750	Warrington	20				3	0	0	October
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Wolverhampton Chartered	50				3	0	0	June and Dec.
0 per ct.	—	6,000	Ditto Navv	50	10			1	13	0	—
IRON RAILWAYS.											
0 per ct.	July	4,000	Birmingham and Derby	100	90			55	6	0	—
0 per ct.	September	2,500	Birmingham and Gloucester	100	70			100	40		—
0 per ct.	March	15,000	Bristol and Exeter	100	40			100	40		—
0 per ct.	June and Dec.	7,000	Chatham and Great Western	100	45			50	35		—
0 per ct.	August	7,000	Chester and Burkenhead	50	35			100	100		—
0 per ct.	Feb. and Aug.	4,000	Clarence	100	100			100	6		—
0 per ct.	—	6,000	Dublin and Drogheda	100	100			25	1		—
0 per ct.	April	600	Durham Junction	100	100			30	1		—
0 per ct.	March and Sep.	3,000	Deplford Junction	30	1			92	5s. & 9s.		—
0 per ct.	—	40,000	Eastern Counties	35	21			50	25		—
0 per ct.	July	25,000	Glasgow, Paisley, and Arrolshire	50	30			20	11		—
0 per ct.	—	4,000	Edinburgh, Leith, and Newhaven	50	25			100	100		—
0 per ct.	—	18,000	Edinburgh and Glasgow	50	25			100	100		—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock	25	17			100	100		—
0 per ct.	Jan. and July	18,000	Grand Junction	100	100			62	0	0	Jan. and July
0 per ct.	—	11,000	Ditto Half Shares	50	50			300	10s. & 30s. 15s.		—
0 per ct.	June	10,000	Great North of England	100	45			62	0	0	—
0 per ct.	October	3,000	Great Western	100	86			300	10s. & 30s. 15s. & 31s. & 31s. 10s.		—
0 per ct.	June and Dec.	25,000	Ditto New	50	30			5	0	0	10 September
0 per ct.	—	6,000	Gosport Junction	50	20			9	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	2,000	Hartlepool	100	100			9	0	0	—
0 per ct.	July	6,000	Hull and Selby	50	35			9	0	0	August
0 per ct.	—	4,000	Leeds and Selby	100	100			9	10	0	Jan. and July
0 per ct.	Jan. and July	4,000	Liverpool and Manchester	100	100			9	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	2,000	Ditto Half Shares	50	40			9	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	11,000	Ditto Quarter Shares	25	25			9	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	8,000	London and Brighton	50	35			84	6	0	—
0 per ct.	—	24,000	London and Blackwall	25	17s			152	5s. & 154	7s. & 6d. & 15s. & 15s. 5s. & 15s. & 8s. & 10s. & 8s. & 10s. & 12s. & 6d. & 15s. 10s. & 15s. 15s.	—
0 per ct.	—	20,000	London and Greenwich	20	20			154	10s. & 154s.		—
0 per ct.	—	20,000	Ditto New	20	20			154	10s. & 154s.		—
0 per ct.	—	25,000	London and Birmingham	100	90			8	0	0	Feb. and Aug.
0 per ct.	—	20,000	Ditto Quarter Shares	25	6			84	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	51,250	Ditto New Shares	32	24			44	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	20,000	Ditto Bonds, 1848	—	—			43	0	0	16 March
0 per ct.	—	20,000	London and Southwestern	Av. 93s. 17s. 6d.				43	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	28,866	Ditto Bonds	—	—			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	2,000	London and Croydon	Av. 14s. 18s. 6d.				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	15,000	Ditto Scrip	7s. 11s.				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	13,000	Llanely Railway and Dock Co.	100	70			72	10s. & 72s. 15s.		—
0 per ct.	—	13,000	Manchester and Leeds	100	60			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	13,000	Ditto New Shares	50	15			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Manchester and Birmingham	70	25			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Ditto Extension	70	7			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Milford Counties	100	90			78	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	15,000	North Midland	100	100			96	17	0	—
0 per ct.	—	5,128	Ditto New	100	100			18	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	2,500	North and Eastern	100	25			12	10	0	—
0 per ct.	—	2,500	Prescott and Wigan	20	20			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	2,000	Prescott and Wigan	50	50			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	1,500	Stockton and Drington	100	100			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	1,500	Shantlough and Tynan	100	100			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	1,500	South Eastern and Dover	50	18			11	11	10s.	—
0 per ct.	—	4,000	York and North Midland	60	40			—	—	—	—
MINES.											
0 per ct.	—	1,800	Arden Iron and Coal Company	50	36			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	8,000	Aldon Copper	5	8s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	4,000	Allen	15	12s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Anglo Mexican, in. St. pm.	100	100			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	8,000	Ditto Subscription	35				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	4,000	Blarney Iron and Coal	50	40			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Ditto Scrip	150	150			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	British Imp., in. St. pm.	35	30			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	4,000	Ditto Minerals and Coals United	25	35			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	11,000	Ditto St. John del Rey	30	14			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Biliver Copper Company	20	30			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Ditto Scrip	10	10			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	30,000	Irish Iron Company	100	60			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Casa Branca	10	5s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	8,000	Farduna	20	7s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	12,000	Ditto Registered	12	7s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Consett	40				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	5,500	Colubiar, in. St. pm.	55	55			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	1,500	Ditto New	11	11			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	3,500	English	25	14			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	30,000	General Mining Association	20	19			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	10,000	Hibernian	50	10s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	5,311	Mexican Company	100	8s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	30,000	Mining Company of Ireland	35	7			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	11,500	Bal del Monte, Registered	Av. 63s. 10s. 6d.				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	—	Ditto, Unregistered	—	—			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	—	Ditto Lona Navv	150				—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	—	Reinior Consolidated	5	4s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	—	Rhymer Iron	50	60			40	0	0	—
0 per ct.	—	—	Isle of North, Guiney	75	2s			—	—	—	—
0 per ct.	—	—	United Mexican, in. St. pm.	40	40			8	6	0	—

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—continued.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.			Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Due.
			L.	s.	d.		
	United Mexican Scrip . . .	Shares. Paid.					
	Ditto New Scrip . . .	81			0		
LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.							
1,000	London, with Bazaar Tickets . . .	783L.	18	10	0		
1,500	London University . . .	100 100	8	0	0		
700	Russell . . .	26 1/2	7	0	0		
	King's College . . .	100	18	10	0		
MISCELLANEOUS.							
10,000	Anglo-Mexican Mini . . .	10 10				3 4 0	
10,000	Australian Agricultural . . .	100 28/2s.				1 10 0	June and Dec. January
10,000	Assam Tea Company . . .	60 5					
10,000	Anti-Dryrot Co. Registered . . .	17 1/2					
10,000	British Patent Coal . . .	1					
50,000	British Agricultural Loan Com. . .	105 6					
8,800	British Rock and Patent Salt . . .	60 35				1 0 0	
8,000	British American Land Company . . .	50 33	10	0	0	4 0 0 per ct.	April and Oct. March and Sep.
10,000	Canada Company . . .	100 3 1/2				6 0 0	Jan. and July
10,000	Upper Canada Bonds . . .					6 0 0	
	City Bonds . . .		101	0	0	4 0 0	
5,000	Eastern Coast of Central America Com. . .						
	pany, Debentures . . .	80 15 1/2				4 0 0	
8,000	Gen. Rever. and Investment Co. . .	100 75				4 0 0	
7,000	Equitable Reversionary Society . . .	100 45				4 0 0	
2,100	Hungerford Market . . .	100 100					
5,000	London Cemetery . . .	80 13					
20,000	General Steam Navigation . . .	15 14					
	Hudson's Bay Stock . . .	100 100				11. 8s. & 2s. 6d. 1/2.	March and Sep. Jan. and July
8,000	London Reversionary Inf. Society . . .	60 10				10 0 0	
20,000	Mexican and South American . . .	10 7				0 10 0	
	New Brunswick (Land) . . .	100 45	12	0	0		
8,387	Reversionary Interest Society . . .	100 100	133L. & 134L.			5 0 0	
18,000	Royal Mail Steam Packet . . .	100 5				4 15 0	
2,000	St. George's Steam Packet Co. . .	100 100				8 0 0	
8,000	Ditto Quarter Shares . . .	21 25					
3,000	Ship Owners' Towing Company . . .	10 7 1/2				10 0 0	
14,000	South Australia . . .	100 100				4 0 0	
4,000	Thames Tunnel . . .	50 60	10L. & 9s. 15s. & 10L.				
10,000	Van Dieman's Land . . .	100 17 1/2	11	10	0	0 6 0	

N. B.—When the amount of a share only is mentioned, it is to be presumed that it is entirely paid up.—(Sup.)

[See sup., article STOCKS. *Ann. Ed.*]

SHARKS' FINS form a regular article of trade to China; and are collected for this purpose in every country from the eastern shore of Africa to New Guinea. In the Canton Price Currents they are as regularly quoted as tea or opium; and the price of late years has been, according to quality, from 15 to 18 dollars per picul, equal to from 50s. to 60s. per cwt. **SHAWLS** (Ger. *Schalen*; Fr. *Chals*, *Chales*; It. *Shavali*; Sp. *Schawalos*), articles of fine wool, silk, or wool and silk, manufactured after the fashion of a large handkerchief, used in female dress. The finest shawls are imported from India, where they are highly esteemed and cost from 60 to 300 guineas. But the British shawls manufactured at Norwich, Paisley, and particularly Edinburgh, have recently been very much improved; and though still inferior, in point of quality, to the finest specimens brought from the East, they look well, and are much cheaper. The native shawl manufacture is of very considerable value and importance.

Cashmere Shawls.—The shawl manufacture is believed to have originated in the valley of Cashmere, the ancient Caspura, situated in the north-west of India, between the 34th and 35th degrees of N. latitude, and the 73d and 74th degrees of E. longitude. Though not so flourishing as it once was, its manufacture is still prosecuted in this province to a very considerable extent. The shawls are the very best that are made, possessing unequalled fineness, delicacy, and warmth. They are formed of the inner hair of a variety of the common goat (*capra hircus*), reared on the cold, dry table land of Thibet, elevated from 14,000 to 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. The goat thrives sufficiently well in many other countries; but in the alpine plains of Hindostan it has hardly more hair than a greyhound; and though in higher latitudes the hair is more abundant, it is for the most part shaggy and coarse. It is only in the intensely cold and dry climate of Thibet that it yields the peculiarly soft woolly hair that constitutes the material of the Indian shawl. We do not, therefore, suppose that the efforts to naturalise the shawl-goat in Franca will turn out well. On the contrary, we believe the chances of success would be about equal were an attempt made to breed beavers in a hot country, without water, or camels in a moist country, free from heat and drought.

The inner or fine wool is covered over and protected by a quantity of long shaggy hair, which is, of course, carefully separated from it before it is manufactured. The genuine shawl-wool has been imported into this country; and the finest Edinburgh and Paisley shawls have been produced from it. But it must be admitted that shawls have nowhere been made that can come, as respects quality, into successful competition with those of Cashmere. The manufacture has been established at Delhi and Lahore for some years; but notwithstanding it is carried on by native Cashmerians, and though the material employed be quite the same, the fabrics are said to want the fineness of those made in Cashmere, and to have a degenerated, coarse appearance. It is difficult to account for this superiority. It has been ascribed to some peculiar quality of the water in the valley of Cashmere; but it is most probably owing to a variety of circumstances, which, though each may appear of little importance, collectively give a character to the manufacture.

The following details as to the manufacture of Cashmere shawls are extracted from a recent number of an English paper published at Delhi:—
“The great mart for the wool of which shawls are made, is at Kilmeth, which is said to be a dependency of Ladak, and situated 20 days' journey from the northern boundaries of Cashmere. There are 2 kinds of it: that which can be readily dyed is white; the other sort is of an ashy colour, which being with difficulty changed, or, at least, improved by art, is generally woven of its natural hue. About 1/2 lb. of either are obtained from a single goat once a year. After the down has been carefully separated from the hairs, it is repeatedly washed with rice-starch. This process is reckoned important; and it is to the quality of the water of their valley that the Cashmerians attribute the peculiar and un-

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1. Texwater
2. Lincoln
3. Dishley, or New
4. Cotswold
5. Romney Marsh
6. Dartmoor, or B
7. Ermore
8. Black-faced, or
9. Hereford, Ryala
10. Short-shropshire
11. Dorset
12. Wilt
13. Berk
14. South Down
15. Norfolk
16. Herwick
17. Clun
18. Dish-faced
19. Shropshire
20. Spanish
21. Dish-cross
For details
* Not yet fully qua
Hence, shawls are p
constant.—(C. & D.)

SHERRY. See WINE.

SHIPS. Nautical men apply the term ship to distinguish a vessel having 3 masts, each consisting of a lower mast, a topmast, and top-gallant-mast, with their appropriate rigging. In familiar language, it is usually employed to distinguish any large vessel, however rigged; but it is also frequently used as a general designation for all vessels navigated with sails; and it is in this sense that we now employ it.

Merchant Ships.—It is hardly possible to divide merchant ships into classes, at least with any degree of precision. Their size, shape, the mode of their rigging, &c. depend not merely on the particular trade for which they are destined, but on the varying tastes and fancies of their owners. The ships employed in the China trade, by the East India Company, are the largest merchantmen belonging to this country; the private traders to the East and West Indies rank next; then follow the whale ships, those engaged in the trade to the Baltic and Canada, the Mediterranean, and a host of others of every variety of burden and shape.

The reader will find, in the articles NAVIGATION LAWS, and REGISTER, an account of the peculiar privileges enjoyed by British ships, of the conditions and formalities necessary to be observed in order to acquire and preserve these privileges, of the mode of transferring property in ships, &c. And in the articles CHARTERPARTY, FREIGHT, MASTERS, OWNERS, SEAMEN, &c., the law with respect to ships and ship-owners, in their capacity of carriers or public servants, and the reciprocal duties and obligations of the masters and crews, is pretty fully expounded. In this place, therefore, we shall content ourselves with laying before the reader some official statements exhibiting the progress and present magnitude of the mercantile navy of Great Britain.

Increase of Shipping in England.—It would be to no purpose, even if our limits permitted, to enter into any details with respect to the shipping of England previously to the Revolution. Those who wish to examine the subject, will find most of the scattered notices of contemporary writers collected by Anderson in his "Chronological History of Commerce." The mercantile navy of England first became considerable in the reign of Elizabeth; and gradually increased under her successors, James I. and Charles I. At the Restoration, the British shipping cleared outwards amounted to 95,266 tons; but such was the increase of navigation during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., that at the Revolution, the British ships cleared outwards amounted to 190,533 tons. The war terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1697, checked this progress. But commerce and navigation have steadily advanced, with the exception of 2 short periods during the war of 1739, and the American war, from the beginning of last century down to the present day.

The first really authentic account of the magnitude of the commercial navy of England was obtained in 1701—2, from returns to circular letters of the commissioners of customs, issued in January of that year. From these it appears that there belonged, at the period in question, to all the ports of England and Wales, 3,291 vessels, measuring (or rather estimated to measure) 261,222 tons, and carrying 27,196 men and 5,660 guns. Of these there belonged to

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.		Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
London	560	84,852	10,065	Hull	115	7,564	167
Bristol	165	17,338	2,359	Whitby	110	8,292	571
Yarmouth	143	9,914	668	Liverpool	102	8,519	1,101
Exeter	191	7,107	978	Scarborough	100	6,860	666

None of the other ports had 100 vessels; and there is some mistake in the returns as to the tonnage assigned to Newcastle and Ipswich. Of the Hull vessels, 50 were at the time laid up, which accounts for the small number of men in that port.—(Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, anno 1701.)

I. Table of Ships cleared Outwards from 1663 to 1811.

Year.	English.	Foreign.	Total.	Year.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	Year.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
1663	70ns.	70ns.	70ns.	1760	840,241	107,227	947,468	1766	1,115,024	721,977	1,837,001
1665	85,366	47,834	148,900	1761	667,020	124,735	791,755	1767	1,379,033	138,223	1,517,256
1666	180,533	95,267	285,800	1762	547,444	114,026	661,470	1768	1,411,269	124,997	1,536,266
1667	144,364	100,584	244,768	1763	631,724	91,498	723,222	1769	1,515,021	100,728	1,615,749
1668	273,063	43,635	317,239	1764	662,454	75,800	738,254	1770	1,424,014	149,819	1,573,833
1669	213,063	45,625	268,318	1765	781,798	77,964	859,762	1771	1,511,240	184,729	1,695,969
1670	326,030	30,116	356,736	1766	865,303	66,470	931,773	1772	1,465,450	384,071	1,849,521
1671	421,431	36,575	468,006	1767	968,085	63,176	1,031,261	1773	1,244,224	475,516	1,719,740
1672	432,539	30,651	463,190	1768	877,004	66,866	943,870	1774	1,103,791	386,271	1,490,062
1673	476,941	36,627	503,568	1769	982,479	72,481	1,054,960	1775	1,319,161	365,710	1,684,871
1674	384,191	67,360	471,451	1770	974,811	57,864	1,032,675	1776	1,502,561	414,774	1,917,335
1675	609,795	61,366	671,161	1771	901,616	66,462	968,078	1777	1,445,271	615,011	2,060,282
1676	496,254	76,456	572,710	1772	732,656	93,775	826,431	1778	1,469,266	677,849	2,147,115
				1773	842,981	148,049	991,030	1779	1,493,208	615,201	2,108,409
				1774	751,366	156,111	907,477	1780	1,498,302	669,170	2,167,472
				1775	606,319	170,775	777,094	1781	1,624,103	631,810	2,255,913
				1776	815,150	225,478	1,040,628	1782	1,578,210	842,141	2,420,351
				1777	869,367	170,088	1,039,455	1783	1,531,138	696,760	2,227,898
				1778	823,219	118,208	941,427	1784	1,624,274	1,138,577	2,762,851
				1779	1,074,462	107,494	1,181,956	1785	1,507,353	696,222	2,203,575

The preceding Table is taken from the private view of the papers of the subject, and is not an authentic information.

Year.	Vessels.
1661	6,770
1662	8,500
1663	9,722
1664	11,200
1665	13,000
1666	11,974
1667	11,800
1668	10,800
1669	11,000
1670	11,000
1671	11,271
1672	11,731
1673	13,000
1674	13,000
1675	14,474
1676	15,000
1677	15,150
1678	15,000
1679	13,000
1680	13,500
1681	13,500
1682	14,000
1683	14,000
1684	14,000
1685	14,000
1686	14,000
1687	14,000
1688	14,000
1689	14,000
1690	14,000
1691	14,000
1692	14,000
1693	14,000
1694	14,000
1695	14,000
1696	14,000
1697	14,000
1698	14,000
1699	14,000
1700	14,000

III. Account of the Year 1833, extended (including from Foreign Ships v. p. 45.)

Country.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	1,115,024	7,219,777	1,837,001
France	1,379,033	138,223	1,517,256
Spain	1,411,269	124,997	1,536,266
Portugal	1,515,021	100,728	1,615,749
Italy	1,424,014	149,819	1,573,833
Holland	1,511,240	184,729	1,695,969
Prussia	1,465,450	384,071	1,849,521
Denmark	1,244,224	475,516	1,719,740
Sweden	1,103,791	386,271	1,490,062
Belgium	1,319,161	365,710	1,684,871
Germany	1,502,561	414,774	1,917,335
Austria	1,445,271	615,011	2,060,282
Russia	1,469,266	677,849	2,147,115
Poland	1,493,208	615,201	2,108,409
Prussia	1,498,302	669,170	2,167,472
Denmark	1,624,103	631,810	2,255,913
Sweden	1,578,210	842,141	2,420,351
Prussia	1,531,138	696,760	2,227,898
Denmark	1,624,274	1,138,577	2,762,851
Sweden	1,507,353	696,222	2,203,575

Country.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Spain	1,411,269	124,997	1,536,266
Portugal	1,515,021	100,728	1,615,749
Italy	1,424,014	149,819	1,573,833
Holland	1,511,240	184,729	1,695,969
Prussia	1,465,450	384,071	1,849,521
Denmark	1,244,224	475,516	1,719,740
Sweden	1,103,791	386,271	1,490,062
Belgium	1,319,161	365,710	1,684,871
Germany	1,502,561	414,774	1,917,335
Austria	1,445,271	615,011	2,060,282
Russia	1,469,266	677,849	2,147,115
Poland	1,493,208	615,201	2,108,409
Prussia	1,498,302	669,170	2,167,472
Denmark	1,624,103	631,810	2,255,913
Sweden	1,578,210	842,141	2,420,351
Prussia	1,531,138	696,760	2,227,898
Denmark	1,624,274	1,138,577	2,762,851
Sweden	1,507,353	696,222	2,203,575

The preceding Table of the British and foreign shipping cleared outwards from 1863 to 1811, both inclusive, is taken from the last edition of *Mr. Chadwera's Comparative Estimate*. It gives a very complete view of the progress of the navigation of the country; and from the attention paid by the author to every subject, and the facilities which his situation in the Board of Trade gave him for acquiring authentic information, its accuracy may be depended on.

II. Account of the Total Number of Vessels engaged in the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same, that entered Inwards from all Parts of the World, in the several Years from 1814 to 1835, both inclusive; and distinguishing British from Foreign.

Year.	British and Irish Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
1814	8,975	1,909,448	88,798	5,398	899,289	87,878
1815	8,389	1,372,103	86,390	5,411	794,869	84,000
1816	9,744	1,415,745	90,119	5,178	797,455	85,348
1817	11,255	1,625,121	97,273	3,388	445,011	57,047
1818	13,008	1,886,894	111,880	6,238	787,487	93,886
1819	11,974	1,809,128	107,858	8,218	842,884	82,893
1820	11,268	1,689,088	100,328	8,948	781,864	83,636
1821	10,905	1,588,423	97,485	3,261	286,107	36,043
1822	11,887	1,665,627	90,860	8,389	489,151	56,421
1823	11,271	1,740,658	113,050	6,729	583,988	58,288
1824	11,731	1,797,038	108,856	5,588	570,672	42,128
1825	13,503	2,143,317	123,028	6,881	669,918	52,728
1826	12,473	1,980,630	113,050	9,788	694,116	56,858
1827	13,153	2,180,943	127,102	8,388	718,284	63,636
1828	13,498	2,094,537	119,141	4,958	634,930	56,733
1829	13,639	2,184,538	128,158	5,218	710,363	58,842
1830	13,588	2,180,943	127,102	8,388	689,628	41,470
1831	14,488	2,387,384	131,877	6,988	674,646	47,453
1832	19,872	3,085,980	182,504	4,546	639,379	55,830
1833	18,119	2,188,914	130,488	5,505	768,088	41,896
1834	18,808	2,288,265	136,777	6,684	838,948	45,937
1835	16,285	2,442,734	135,688	8,005	866,680	47,132

III. Account of the Shipping employed in the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, in the Year 1835, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered Inwards and cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews; separating British from Foreign Ships, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.—(Board of Trade Papers, vol. v. p. 45.)

Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.						
	British.		Foreign.		Mens.	Ships.	British.		Foreign.		Mens.	Ships.	
Tons.	Mens.	Tons.	Mens.	Tons.			Mens.	Tons.	Mens.				
Spain	1,379	262,990	11,343	227	81,006	2,916	692	198,564	6,018	146	63,696	2,969	
Portugal	77	18,036	571	196	83,081	1,794	68	10,658	623	156	32,484	1,234	
France	38	2,969	184	627	86,019	6,088	37	8,179	861	678	110,660	5,584	
Denmark	49	6,007	996	577	40,078	2,788	327	67,568	2,615	839	86,441	4,638	
Prussia	162	35,514	1,178	608	124,144	5,375	119	18,680	929	655	111,173	4,837	
Holland	656	118,523	5,107	497	366,593	2,261	740	133,580	6,151	677	84,088	3,343	
Germany	1,021	150,387	7,505	1,029	58,622	8,056	966	165,818	4,786	646	65,970	3,477	
Sweden	556	67,033	4,898	674	41,052	2,149	622	48,837	4,214	362	31,774	1,855	
Poland	1,752	146,807	13,848	1,843	100,800	10,658	1,852	168,357	12,214	1,383	88,678	6,072	
Denmark	438	68,561	3,207	61	7,057	570	114	49,436	8,138	79	12,433	712	
Prussia	292	19,512	1,207	—	—	—	—	15,633	1,680	9	1,364	68	
Sweden	18	4,360	239	2	229	15	38	7,181	484	1	334	13	
Spain and the Balearic Islands	408	63,551	3,583	96	4,408	301	358	43,528	2,825	40	7,704	423	
Canaries	35	2,980	136	—	—	—	—	2,911	122	1	240	10	
Malta	45	5,501	360	—	—	—	—	15,310	848	9	1,661	80	
Italy and the Italian Islands	455	67,990	3,649	24	5,361	507	569	67,749	3,626	81	6,297	894	
Algeria	7	1,008	64	—	—	—	—	10,478	545	3	732	28	
Sicily	60	8,989	444	—	—	—	—	39	6,002	305	3	643	30
Tarvis and Continental Greece	140	80,600	1,134	—	—	—	—	148	23,486	1,308	1	367	20
Mexico and Greek Islands	17	2,381	130	—	—	—	—	9	950	56	—	—	—
Egypt	31	4,316	208	—	—	—	—	58	11,603	56	2	680	2
Thule, Barbary, and Morocco	94	2,538	142	—	—	—	—	30	2,745	144	2	2,130	7
the Cape of Good Hope	131	32,286	1,717	—	—	—	—	130	80,888	1,800	1	284	11
the Cape of Good Hope	44	7,820	444	—	—	—	—	40	8,234	461	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	1	195	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	8	818	45	1	178	8	3	364	84	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,399	86	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	6	21,158	1,094	—	—	—	—	10,719	580	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	153	30	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	218	80,449	5,480	—	—	—	—	919	96,187	6,093	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	1	280	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	67	25,427	2,308	—	—	—	—	33	21,218	1,487	9	3,808	168
the Cape of Good Hope	16	6,256	108	1	399	16	17	5,088	284	8	179	56	—
the Cape of Good Hope	11	3,513	187	2	1,358	86	4	—	—	9	884	76	—
the Cape of Good Hope	—	16,019	847	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	108	3,916	2,188	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	1,169	631,845	37,880	—	—	—	—	1,863	870,782	36,929	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	878	286,778	12,948	—	—	—	—	862	932,884	12,920	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	—	887	48	—	—	—	—	67	10,412	620	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	87	6,454	333	8	1,972	74	57	11,986	618	14	3,319	179	
the Cape of Good Hope	227	62,438	2,328	543	236,393	9,337	834	118,902	6,506	601	251,021	9,850	
the Cape of Good Hope	39	7,088	388	1	346	12	36	6,036	346	1	677	12	
the Cape of Good Hope	49	8,850	102	—	—	—	—	1	146	8	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	26	6,724	858	—	—	—	—	18	1,880	104	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	173	40,860	3,064	4	1,260	60	304	50,584	2,540	1	238	15	
the Cape of Good Hope	48	8,320	608	8	17	18	48	9,380	515	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	—	79	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	31	7,822	456	9	1,188	65	24	5,910	329	—	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	15	5,051	179	—	—	—	—	18	9,999	127	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	84	81,008	6,986	—	—	—	—	101	33,698	4,322	—	—	—
the Cape of Good Hope	2,372	161,978	10,878	36	5,005	269	5,168	130,479	6,979	—	—	—	—
Total	14,898	2,442,734	138,684	8,005	866,680	47,132	13,948	2,418,911	138,557	8,047	905,370	47,027	

IV. Account of the Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade of Great Britain and Ireland in 1830, 1831, and 1832.

Years.	Coasting Trade, exclusive of the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland.						Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.					
	Inwards.			Outwards.			Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1830	109,039	8,187,793	489,099	111,485	8,519,099	472,344	10,359	1,052,407	74,387	15,144	1,545,677	75,924
1831	108,689	8,251,128	494,992	111,249	8,542,226	478,233	10,361	1,059,195	74,921	15,159	1,548,742	75,049
1832	113,353	8,475,778	494,038	116,132	8,604,764	489,800	10,748	1,119,226	75,976	14,984	1,417,603	76,537
1830	119,458	9,340,140	542,438	124,629	9,741,831	511,308						
1831	118,949	9,278,908	542,613	124,508	9,498,981	517,798						
1832	123,091	9,568,004	550,114	130,838	10,046,127	530,187						
Total coasting trade of the United Kingdom.												

V. Account of the Number of Vessels and of their Tonnage, built and registered in, and of those belonging to, the different Ports of the British Empire, from 1830 to 1835, both inclusive; specifying the Number of their Crews, and distinguishing between those of the British Islands and Possessions in Europe and those of the Colonies.

Years.	Vessels built and registered.						Vessels and their Crews belonging to the British Empire.						
	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.			Colonies.			United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.			Colonies.			Crews.
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	
1830	815	68,142	248	16,410	893	84,529	21,599	2,439,029	3,465	209,564	25,371	2,616,679	174,511
1831	807	80,182	276	15,365	872	74,547	21,852	2,855,853	3,384	204,350	25,036	2,560,203	166,119
1832	871	81,633	299	15,911	780	81,144	21,786	3,318,608	3,463	203,541	24,643	2,512,044	166,270
1833	904	83,789	243	22,240	647	96,026	31,043	3,204,867	3,500	203,995	24,541	2,546,766	167,010
1834	837	85,219	244	50,322	1,179	145,741	21,280	3,348,914	3,496	211,273	24,778	2,559,697	167,877
1835	1,008	131,028	533	80,985	1,328	204,244	23,679	3,238,677	3,679	214,675	26,230	2,539,669	167,877
1836	1,151	119,098	698	98,484	1,719	208,640	24,998	2,411,461	3,657	234,193	24,825	2,438,644	167,877
1837	911	95,036	549	68,808	1,440	163,548	19,324	2,181,138	3,673	224,892	23,199	2,464,590	151,411
1838	857	80,080	494	50,544	1,311	140,813	19,846	2,193,300	4,449	224,892	24,036	2,518,191	152,579
1839	734	77,838	416	59,227	1,459	118,872	19,110	2,189,268	4,343	217,041	23,453	2,487,000	148,848
1840	750	77,411	367	22,718	1,147	101,180	19,174	2,301,582	4,547	230,227	23,211	2,330,264	148,848
1831	760	85,707	376	84,290	1,198	119,597	18,450	2,224,356	4,792	237,608	24,214	2,381,964	148,848
1832	759	82,470	292	55,470	869	112,365	19,664	2,261,860	4,771	235,208	24,433	2,416,069	161,724
1833	738	82,171	431	52,476	1,159	144,617	19,689	2,271,301	4,898	233,276	24,385	2,434,577	162,040
1834	806	102,710	425	55,917	1,231	138,327	19,575	2,311,355	5,080	248,745	25,056	2,476,111	162,040
1835	918	121,722	334	62,711	1,330	174,438	23,300	2,360,303	5,211	243,458	25,511	2,733,766	171,929

N. B.—The falling off in the number of ships in 1827 is apparent only. The numbers returned in the previous years were those that appeared on the registers. But a ship, when once placed on them, remained till evidence was produced of her having been sold to a foreigner, lost, or otherwise destroyed; so that a good many ships were at all times on the register, which, in fact, did not exist. The Registry Office passed in 1836 collected all owners of ships to register them as new; when, of course, the names of those that had ceased to exist disappeared from the books.

VI. An Account of the Number of Ships or Vessels belonging to the different Ports of the British Empire on the 31st of December, 1835, stated in succession, agreeably to the Amount of Tonnage belonging to each; and specifying also the Number of the Crews. (Obtained from the Customs House.)

Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
London	3,829	666,118	82,392	Poole	94	6,002	474	Kirkwall	77	4,216	323
Newcastle	1,054	208,100	8,665	Rye	80	4,899	361	Banff	75	4,218	323
Liverpool	996	207,835	11,511	Chepstow	80	4,890	312	Lerwick	101	3,987	294
Whitehaven	413	65,578	3,490	Fidnow	118	6,771	4,333	Thurso	40	2,573	148
Hull	503	63,521	3,793	Wabesch	48	3,374	181	Dublin	324	25,308	2,226
Bristol	811	42,318	3,999	Sturhead	55	3,572	325	Cork	302	31,514	1,746
Yarmouth	577	45,583	2,324	Wells	63	3,237	344	Waterford	128	19,579	308
Whitby	292	36,914	2,065	Blackney and	64	3,734	358	Total Scotland	3,297	335,320	25,361
Plymouth	373	30,701	1,805	Clay	80	3,857	236	Strangford	161	9,950	685
Scarborough	172	27,052	1,349	Lidwellly	71	3,857	236	Londonderry	45	2,297	277
Dartmouth	373	27,140	1,700	Chelish	64	3,419	309	Belfast	393	32,515	1,911
Restormeris	391	21,995	1,453	Wabesch	48	3,374	181	Dublin	324	25,308	2,226
Exeter	193	15,879	873	Sturhead	55	3,572	325	Cork	302	31,514	1,746
Lynn	130	15,253	796	Wells	63	3,237	344	Waterford	128	19,579	308
Poole	153	15,113	809	Arundel	95	5,034	171	Newry and	171	9,950	685
Cardigan	271	14,436	1,030	Woodbridge	38	2,892	146	Strangford	161	9,950	685
Stockton	104	13,308	613	Chichester	69	3,620	164	Londonderry	45	2,297	277
Gloucester	246	18,237	1,119	Clay	80	3,857	236	Wesford	109	6,170	420
Goole	127	13,546	668	Lidwellly	71	3,857	236	Limerick	69	4,498	311
Rochester	187	12,264	744	Chelish	64	3,419	309	Drogheda	81	3,123	217
Whitby	154	11,306	595	Wabesch	48	3,374	181	Wesford	109	6,170	420
Portsmouth	301	11,968	730	Sturhead	55	3,572	325	Cork	302	31,514	1,746
Milford	132	10,376	634	Wells	63	3,237	344	Waterford	128	19,579	308
Bowloc	175	8,982	528	Lynn	130	15,253	796	Newry and	171	9,950	685
Lancaster	181	8,618	527	Grimsby	39	1,167	82	Westport	6	120	0
Bidford	115	6,509	445	Minshull	11	649	45	Total Ireland	1,627	131,731	8,291
St. Ives	117	6,019	608	Deal	53	641	132	British Islands			
Swansea	137	6,918	665	Total England	14,628	1,853,112	105,945	Guernsey	243	22,921	243
Colchester	246	6,816	940	Glasgow	819	48,478	4,231	Man	212	7,228	197
Cowes	170	6,550	737	Dundee & Perth	217	14,689	2,002	Total British Islands	683	35,638	3,740
Southampton	177	6,363	668	Aberdeen	359	41,743	3,695	Total United Kingdom	25,511	2,733,766	171,929
Faversham	278	6,270	894	Greenock	367	42,722	3,723	British Islands			
Milford	132	6,265	413	Kirkcaldy	179	13,483	1,201	British Islands			
Fowey	95	5,827	411	Grangemouth	184	22,487	1,939	British Islands			
Aberystwith	129	6,737	443	Montrose	161	14,012	1,133	British Islands			
Falmouth	88	6,732	441	Kirkcaldy	179	13,483	1,201	British Islands			
Newport	81	6,042	323	Grangemouth	184	22,487	1,939	British Islands			
Bridgewater	77	6,798	815	Montrose	161	14,012	1,133	British Islands			
Bevef	111	6,702	355	Kirkcaldy	179	13,483	1,201	British Islands			
Weymouth	73	6,698	306	Inver & Ayr	128	13,383	1,189	British Islands			
Chester	85	6,327	429	Dumfries	199	11,798	779	British Islands			
Harwich	89	6,572	403	Berrystown	81	6,452	488	British Islands			
Ramsgate	81	6,546	381	Port Glasgow	180	7,597	630	British Islands			
Berwick	55	5,160	319	Port Glasgow	180	7,500	400	Grand Total	25,511	2,733,766	171,929

of Great Britain and Ireland in 1832.

Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.

Ports.	1832.		1833.		1834.		1835.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
London	3,421	678,289	3,561	715,493	3,793	735,933	3,740	740,355
Liverpool	1,003	198,512	908	180,369	1,073	218,712	1,063	217,172
Bristol	778	151,192	84	1,589	996	200,018	92	1,192
Edinburgh	125	24,301	110	21,423	114	22,940	98	19,904
Glasgow	425	85,358	445	89,438	465	93,132	349	70,150
Southampton	365	73,099	32	6,313	370	74,398	35	7,001
Cardiff	198	39,268	160	32,675	204	41,265	189	37,857
Swansea	117	23,331	112	22,466	145	29,103	8	1,628
Other	370	74,049	11	2,217	354	71,699	80	16,430
Total	6,449	1,293,415	6,613	1,352,151	7,112	1,443,712	6,415	1,307,462

and registered in, and of those belonging to 1835, both inclusive; specifying the British Islands and Possessions in

air Crews belonging to the British Empire.

Ports.	1832.		1833.		1834.		1835.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
London	3,405	699,564	3,574	741,579	3,740	771,942	3,740	771,942
Liverpool	1,001	200,333	908	180,369	1,073	218,712	1,063	217,172
Bristol	778	151,192	84	1,589	996	200,018	92	1,192
Edinburgh	125	24,301	110	21,423	114	22,940	98	19,904
Glasgow	425	85,358	445	89,438	465	93,132	349	70,150
Southampton	365	73,099	32	6,313	370	74,398	35	7,001
Cardiff	198	39,268	160	32,675	204	41,265	189	37,857
Swansea	117	23,331	112	22,466	145	29,103	8	1,628
Other	370	74,049	11	2,217	354	71,699	80	16,430
Total	6,449	1,293,415	6,613	1,352,151	7,112	1,443,712	6,415	1,307,462

Account of the Number of Ships, with the Amount of their Tonnage, distinguishing between British and Foreign, which entered the under-mentioned Ports, from Foreign Parts, in each of the Three Years ending with 1835.—(Papers published by Board of Trade, vol. v. p. 46.)

Ports.	1833.				1834.				1835.			
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.										
London	3,421	678,289	3,561	715,493	3,793	735,933	3,740	740,355	3,740	740,355	3,740	740,355
Liverpool	1,003	198,512	908	180,369	1,073	218,712	1,063	217,172	1,063	217,172	1,063	217,172
Bristol	778	151,192	84	1,589	996	200,018	92	1,192	92	1,192	92	1,192
Edinburgh	125	24,301	110	21,423	114	22,940	98	19,904	98	19,904	98	19,904
Glasgow	425	85,358	445	89,438	465	93,132	349	70,150	349	70,150	349	70,150
Southampton	365	73,099	32	6,313	370	74,398	35	7,001	35	7,001	35	7,001
Cardiff	198	39,268	160	32,675	204	41,265	189	37,857	189	37,857	189	37,857
Swansea	117	23,331	112	22,466	145	29,103	8	1,628	8	1,628	8	1,628
Other	370	74,049	11	2,217	354	71,699	80	16,430	80	16,430	80	16,430
Total	6,449	1,293,415	6,613	1,352,151	7,112	1,443,712	6,415	1,307,462	6,415	1,307,462	6,415	1,307,462

Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels entering into and sailing from the Ports of Great Britain in 1801, and the subsequent Years mentioned below, distinguishing between the Trade with Great Britain and that with Foreign Parts.—(Papers published by the Board of Trade, vol. i. p. 174.)

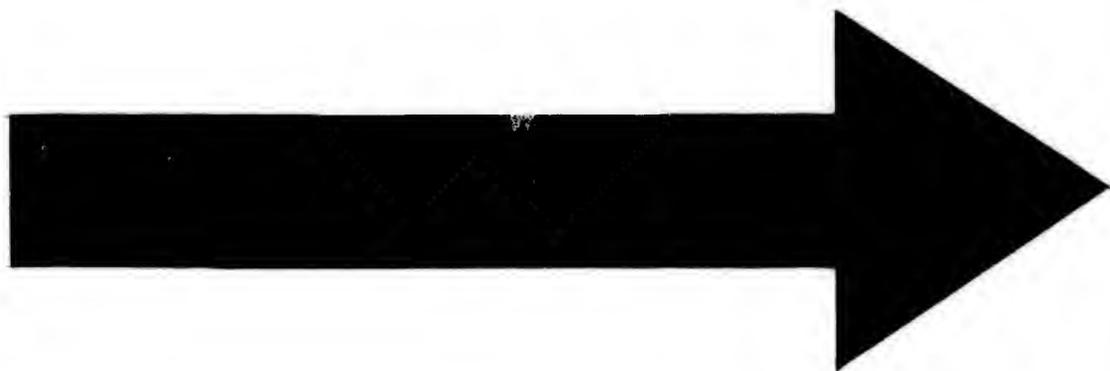
Year.	Trade with Great Britain.				Trade with Foreign Parts.				Total.			
	Inwards.		Outwards.		Inwards.		Outwards.		Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1801	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	574	122,218	927	189,436	7,592	1,599,982	7,135	1,421,416
1802	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1803	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1804	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1805	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1806	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1807	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1808	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1809	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1810	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1811	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1812	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1813	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1814	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1815	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1816	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1817	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1818	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1819	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1820	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1821	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1822	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1823	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1824	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1825	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1826	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1827	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1828	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1829	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1830	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1831	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1832	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1833	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1834	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416
1835	1,011	200,333	7,041	1,408,288	553	115,358	927	189,436	7,564	1,589,982	7,135	1,421,416

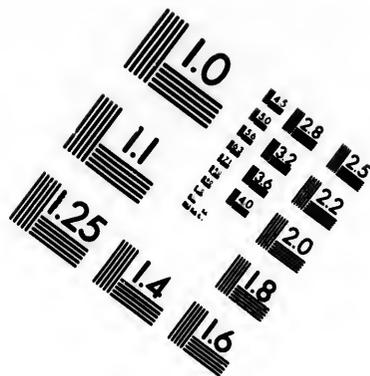
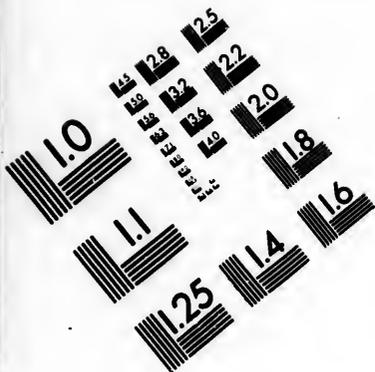
Account specifying the Number and Tonnage of the Ships built and registered in each Division of the British Empire in 1832; with their Classification according to the Amount of their Tonnage.—(Papers published by Board of Trade, vol. ii. p. 49.)

Tonnage.	Great Britain.		Ireland.		Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, & Man.		British Plantations.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Under 50 tons	189	5,544	15	414	12	299				
From 50 to 100 tons	209	13,968	3	808	4	808				
100 - 150	74	9,075	2	244	3	338				
150 - 200	66	11,679	2	377	6	1,354	221	25,470	980	118,385
200 - 300	137	33,603	3	668						
300 - 400	21	5,340			1	440				
400 - 500	7	3,048								
500 - 600	1	501								
Over 600 tons	1	512								
Total	708	68,271	25	1,909	28	2,736	221	25,470	980	118,385

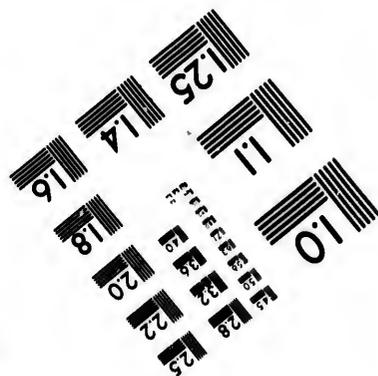
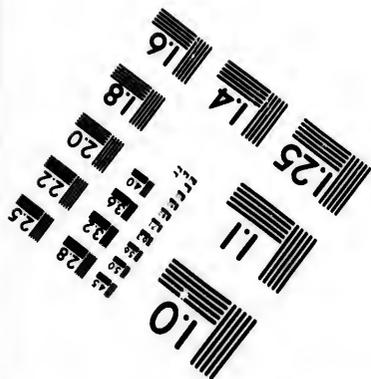
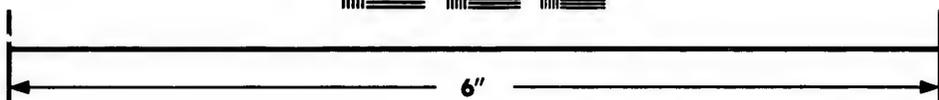
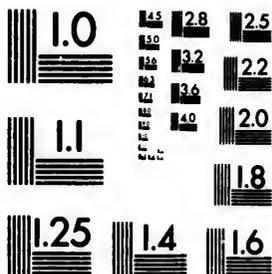
to the different Ports of the British Empire, agreeably to the Amount of Tonnage Crews. (Obtained from the Customs

Men.	Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
471	Kirkwall	77	4,216	83
361	Banff	75	4,218	32
813	Lerwick	101	5,907	74
301	Thurso	40	2,773	14
192	Stornoway	56	3,242	34
222	Campbelltown	64	2,911	38
213	Braemar	34	1,719	35
258	Total Scotland	3,297	336,320</	





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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would give to the shipping of England the same superiority, in point of cheapness, that is now enjoyed by our cottons; and would do more than any thing else to consolidate and strengthen the foundations of our maritime ascendancy. It is entirely owing to the operation of the duties that so many ships are now built in the colonies. They are very inferior to those built in England; and were the latter built in bond, or were the duties on the articles used in their construction drawn back, they would also be the cheapest of the two.

It may be worth mentioning, as illustrative of the singular anomalies that have been allowed to insinuate themselves into our commercial system, that timber may be imported into the Isle of Man, and into any other British possession, without regard to its origin, on payment of an ad valorem duty of 10 per cent. It is remarkable that advantage was not earlier taken of this anomaly, to build ships for the Isle of Man. Latterly, however, several vessels have been built in it; and it is clear that, unless they are placed on the same footing as the other parts of the empire, it will become the grand seat of the shipbuilding business. We hope, however, that the equalisation will be made, not by extending our timber laws to the Isle of Man, but by giving to Britain and Ireland the same advantages as it enjoys. There cannot be a doubt that the equalisation of the timber duties would be one of the greatest improvements which it is possible to make in our commercial system.

Mercantile Navy of France.—We have elsewhere given (see vol. i. pp. 752, 753.) very full details with respect to the navigation and shipping of France; but the subjoined classified account of the shipping belonging to that kingdom on the 1st of January, 1830, 1831, and 1832, may not be unacceptable to our readers.

Account of the Mercantile Marine of France on the 1st of January of each of the Three Years ending with 1832.

Tonnage.				Tonnage.			
1830.				1831.			
1832.				1830.			
1831.				1832.			
Ships of 800 tons and upwards	3	3	3	Ships of 160 to 300 tons	1,541	1,509	1,554
— 700 to 800 tons	8	8	8	— 80 — 100 —	1,558	1,644	1,600
— 600 — 700 —	14	15	15	— 20 — 80 —	1,101	1,080	1,071
— 500 — 600 —	63	61	67	— 20 and under	2,995	16,558	10,661
— 400 — 500 —	301	188	182	Total	14,868	34,881	14,881
— 300 — 400 —	878	870	880				

(Archives du Commerce, tome iv. p. 124.)

(SHIPS (CLASSIFICATION, QUALIFICATIONS OF MASTERS OF, &c.).—There is in the Art. WRECK, an account of the annual average number of shipwrecks from 1793 to 1830, with a classified account of those in the last year. Since then, the number of these calamities has in no degree diminished. The following account, compiled from Lloyd's books, shows the amount of shipwreck, in so far as it can be ascertained, from the 1st of January, 1833, to the 30th of June, 1836.

Statement of the Number of the Vessels lost, abandoned, broken up, &c.

	British.		Foreign.		Total.	
	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.
In 1832, actual losses, &c. from Lloyd's books	315	unknown	139	unknown	454	unknown
In 1833, actual losses, &c. from Lloyd's books	626	ditto	183	ditto	811	ditto
In 1834, losses, &c. 1st of January to 31st of December, from office book, Lloyd's list, and other sources, surveyors, &c.	423	113,184	158	41,390	581	154,574
In 1835, losses, &c. 1st of January to 31st of December, from office book, Lloyd's list, and other sources, surveyors, &c.	504	131,770	158	32,300	662	164,070
In 1836, losses, &c. 1st January to 31st of June, from Lloyd's list, and other sources	264	50,206	115	20,355	379	70,561

This account must not, however, be taken as fairly representing the total loss from shipwreck. The return as to foreign losses is too defective to be of the least value; and even respects British shipping, such losses only are taken into account as are entered upon Lloyd's books, whereas it is well known that very many vessels are annually lost that are not entered in these books, and of which, consequently, no account is kept.

But, such as it is, the above account shows, estimating the value of the wrecked ships and cargoes at the moderate rate of 18*l.* a ton, that the pecuniary loss arising from the shipwreck of British vessels, in 1835, amounted to the immense sum of 2,191,850*l.* (121,770 × 18). But the loss of property is less afflicting than the loss of life. In 1833, the crews of 39 ships were entirely drowned, while those of very many more partially shared the same fate. But, owing to the extent to which emigration has of late years been carried, and especially to the numbers of poor emigrants ready to embark in any ship, provided they get a cheap passage, the loss of crews is no criterion of the loss of life occasioned by shipwreck. Thus, in 1834, no fewer than 731 emigrants, bound for Canada, lost their lives by shipwreck, principally in the gulph and river of St. Lawrence (see vol. i. art. EMIGRANTS); and within the last few years there has been a still more lamentable waste of life, in consequence of the loss of convict ships bound for Australia. The frequency and amount of shipwreck is, indeed, quite appalling; and has at length begun forcibly to attract the public attention.

It may be thought, perhaps, that these disasters are wholly ascribable to the perils incident to navigation, and that they are not really greater than might be expected to occur to a mercantile navy so extensive as that of England, whose flag is displayed on every sea, however remote or dangerous, but such is not really the case. If we suppose that a third part of the

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which have taken place of late years have been occasioned by the dangers of the sea, we believe we shall not be within, but beyond the mark. The other *two thirds*, or more, have originated in artificial causes, of which the principal have been the erroneous system adopted by the underwriters in the classification of ships, and the incompetency of the masters.

1. *Old System for classifying Ships.*—To insure a ship on right principles, or in such a way that the premium shall be the fair equivalent of the risk, is no easy matter. The risk depends partly on the condition of the ship and the capacity of the master and crew; partly on the nature of the cargo she is to take on board; and partly on the voyage she has to perform. The last two circumstances disclose themselves, and their influence may be appreciated at least with sufficient accuracy for practical purposes, without any difficulty; but it is far otherwise with the condition of the ship, and the capacity of the master and crew. It is essential to the adjusting of an insurance on fair terms, that these should be known; and it is, at the same time, exceedingly difficult to acquire any accurate information with respect to them.

It is plain that there is but one mode in which any thing satisfactory can be learnt with respect to the condition of ships, and that is, by the inspection and examination of persons of competent information as to such matters. To acquire a just character at first, a ship should be repeatedly surveyed while she is being built; and to learn her condition at any subsequent period, some of the planks should be taken off, and her hull and rigging subjected to a thorough examination. This is the only method to be followed if we wish to arrive at results that may be safely depended on. The age of a ship should not be altogether overlooked in estimating her condition; but it is not a criterion that, taken by itself, is worth almost any thing. There is the greatest possible difference in the materials of which different ships are built, in the way in which they are built, and in the wear and tear to which they are exposed. Some have been so very bad, that they have actually gone to pieces on their first voyage; others, with difficulty, last for 3, 4, or 7 years; and others, again, run for 10, 15, and even 20 years, and upwards, with but little repair. It may be presumed that the condition of ships built of similar materials, on the same plan, and employed in the same departments of trade, will depend materially on their ages; but a thousand circumstances conspire to defeat this presumption; and it would be ludicrous to suppose that it should apply at all in the case of ships constructed of different materials, and engaged in different lines.

But notwithstanding the criterion of age is thus really worth less than nothing as a rule by which to judge of a ship's condition, it is almost the only one that has been referred to in this country. From about the year 1760, or perhaps earlier, down to 1834, ships were arranged, by the underwriters at Lloyd's, in classes marked by the letters A, E, I, and O, and the figures 1, 2, and 3; the former referring to the hull of the ship, and the latter to the rigging. A ship marked A 1. was in the highest class; that is, her hull and rigging were both declared to be in the best condition; ships marked E 1. were in the next class; those marked I 1. were in the lowest available class, or that formed of such as were fit only for carrying coals, or other goods not liable to sea damage along the coast; ships marked O were unworthy. But to get into the highest class, no examination of the ship, or none worthy of the name, was required. Unless some very flagrant defect were obvious in their construction, all ships were entitled, when new, to be marked in the highest class; and they were entitled, whatever might be their real condition, to stand in it for a certain number of years, varying from 6 to 12, according to the *port* in which they happened to be built! It is not easy to imagine that any thing can be more absurd than such a classification; but the whole extent of the injury arising from it is not immediately obvious. The great majority of merchants and underwriters have not, and could not be expected to have, any personal knowledge of different ships, and have nothing to trust to but the classified accounts. Suppose, now, that two ships were built at the same time in London or any other port; that one was constructed of the best materials, and in the best way, while the other was constructed of the worst materials, and in the most defective manner: these two ships were placed side by side in the class A 1.; the underwriters, seeing them there, were ready, without further inquiry, to insure them at the *same premium*, and the merchants were, for the same reason, quite as willing to employ the one as the other! A bounty was thus given on the construction of what have been called *slop-built* ships, or ships of an inferior class. For a half, or at most, two thirds, of what would be required to construct a good and really sufficient ship, the shipowner got an inferior vessel of an equal burthen sent to sea; and, owing to the matchless absurdity of the system of classification, the inferior was placed in the same rank with the superior ship; enjoyed all the advantages such distinction could give; and was, in the public estimation, deemed quite as good and as deserving of employment as the other. This has been a more copious source of shipwreck than all the currents, rocks, and fogs that infest our seas; but it was not the only one. At the end of a certain number of years, depending (as already stated) on the port where the ship was built, both the vessels referred to above were degraded to the class E; and yet it might happen, that the superior ship was, when so degraded, better entitled to continue in the class A than the inferior ship was ever to be in it. But even this does not exhaust the whole absurdity of this preposterous scheme, for

Vol. II.—2 R

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... grand seat of the ship
... by extending our timber
... gees as it enjoys. There
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... 3.) very full details with
... account of the shipping
... be unacceptable to our

... the Three Years ending

1830.	1831.	1832.
Ships.	Ships.	Ships.
1,545	1,500	1,551
1,550	1,544	1,551
1,511	1,530	1,571
8,585	14,250	14,000
74,000	14,000	14,000

... Commerce, tome iv. p. 121.

... (cc.)—There is in the
... ke from 1793 to 1833,
... umber of these calam-
... Lloyd's books, show-
... at of January, 1834, to

... ven up, &c.

	Total.
Average tonnage	Average Tonnage.
Known to	464 811
Unknown to	unknow- n ditto
11,200	500 154,200
2,200	750 154,100
10,350	300 74,000

... the total loss from ship-
... cast value; and even
... are entered upon Lloyd's
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... of the wrecked ships and
... from the shipwreck
... 1867. (121,770 x 18)
... 83, the crews of 38 ships
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... ed, and especially to the
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... wreck. Thus, in 1834,
... shipwreck, principally in
... and within the last few
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supposing that the superior ship had been so thoroughly repaired as to be as good as the day she came off the stocks, and that the inferior ship had got no repair at all, still they were both placed, side by side, in the class E1. All the annals of all the maritime nations of the world, from the Phœnicians downwards, furnish no example of a more perverse, contradictory, and absurd regulation. That it should have existed amongst us for the greater part of a century, strikingly exemplifies the power of habit to procure toleration for the most destructive practices and errors.

It may be said, perhaps, that, whatever system of classification is adopted, there must be great numbers of inferior vessels; for, though we did not, foreigners would build them; and being consequently able to sail them cheaper, would drive us totally out of all trades in which they could come fairly into competition with us. This is true; but no one ever thought of proscribing inferior ships, or of dictating to the shipowner what sort of ships he should build, or to the merchant what sort he should employ. We do not object to inferior ships, but we do object to the *same character* being given to them that is given to superior ships. This is practising a gross fraud upon the public; and gives an unfair and unjust advantage to the owners of inferior vessels. The interests of navigation and of humanity imperatively require that ships should be correctly classified; that those that are not seaworthy should not be classed with those that are, but that the *real state* of each should be distinctly set forth in the register, and be made known to every one. If this be done, the merchant and the underwriter may be safely left to deal with them as they think fit.

In consequence mainly of the laudable exertions of Mr. Marshall, the attention of the principal merchants, shipowners, underwriters, &c. of the metropolis was some years ago directed to this subject; and in 1824 a committee, consisting of representatives from these different bodies, was appointed to inquire into and report on it. The committee collected a great deal of valuable evidence; and laid an able report before a general meeting of merchants, shipowners, &c., on the 1st of June, 1826. We subjoin an extract from this report, which more than bears out all that we have stated:—

"From the absence of all control on the original construction of ships while building, and the impossibility of ascertaining by any inspection, after completion, their real quality, it appears to be indisputably proved, by an almost uniform concurrence of testimony, that the first character, or A, indiscriminately extended to ships differing widely in strength, durability of materials, and all the qualities on which character ought to be dependent; that many ships to which the first class is assigned are decidedly inferior to others which are placed, from lapse of time alone, in a lower class; and that many become totally unfit for the conveyance of dry cargoes, long before the expiration of the period during which they are entitled, according to the present system, to remain on the first letter, in which they are notwithstanding continued; that instances are on record of first class ships which have derived benefit from their origin for the conveyance of dry cargoes; and some are declared to have been hardly fit, when new, to proceed to sea with safety. One case is even adduced, in which, from ill construction and insufficiency of fastening a new ship, her insecurity was predicted, and she actually foundered on her first voyage; and yet this identical vessel was ranked, according to the indiscriminate system pursued, in the first class.

"Such, as respects new ships, appears by the evidence to be the practical result of a system which, assuming to designate by marks their intrinsic quality, provides no means of actually ascertaining that quality; but offers, in effect, a premium for the building of inferior and insufficient ships, by the inducement it holds forth to fraudulent construction, and by the equality of character it indiscriminately extends to the best and the worst ships built at the same port.

"Nor, your committee regret to have to report, is the evidence of the errors, inconsistencies, and evils arising from the existing system, as applied to old ships, by any means less conclusive. By the refusal to restore character, in consequence of repairs, however extensive, the inducement to maintain ships in an efficient state is removed; whilst, from the absence of all regular provision for stated or periodical examination, their efficiency or inefficiency is rendered dependent upon the varying views, the caprices, or the interests of the proprietors. Hence, though the second character, or B, is declared by the rules of the system to be the designation of ships which, having lost the first character from age, are kept in perfect repair, and appear, on survey, to have no defects, and to be completely calculated to carry dry cargoes with safety, the whole body of evidence distinctly proves that character to be, in very numerous instances, assigned to ships which, from original defect or want of requisite repairs, are utterly unfit and unsafe for dry cargoes; while others, which, from sound constitution or efficient repairs, are found to be pronouncedly superior to many new ships, are indiscriminately classed with the actually worthless and unworthy. Hence, too, the employment of ships, whose salacious standard of classification, becomes uncertain, injured; the shipper and underwriter misled; the building of superior ships, capable of long service, is discouraged; and direct inducement is held out to the construction of those of an inferior description; the general character of our mercantile marine is degraded; and it is to be feared that, could the system be traced to its ultimate results, it would be productive of a lamentable loss of property and life."

It may have seemed surprising that, despite the continued complaints of the lowness of freights, and the want of employment for shipping, so many new ships should be annually built. But this was, to a considerable extent at least, occasioned by the system of classification now described. Hitherto, instead of building a really good and durable ship, the principal object has been to construct one that should, at farthest, be, as the phrase is, *not off her legs* in about ten years or thereby. The reason is, that, whatever might be a ship's condition, she was then degraded from the class A 1., and that it was hardly possible, in most departments of trade, to find a merchant to employ, on any thing like reasonable terms, a ship to which these symbols of imaginary excellence were not attached. Hence, the shipowner, instead of repairing his 10-years-old ship, sold her for what she would fetch, and built a new one. But the person who purchased the ship degraded to E 1. forced her,

though at an expense in the field; which only one good ship requires to be purchased, and that once. "If the real efficiency of the system, in numerous instances, is not at present effectually repaired, improvement in and a corresponding consequence. The conclusion that might have been drawn from the evidence for some years past, and we are glad to see that the writers have at last classified accounts, and participation provided, who have done more than to lessen the dissemination and superintended in 1834. and dismiss the subject annually published in the register, voluntary source of commerce and navigation for their objects, the for carrying their

After announcing that the following: That a society of British mercantile marine officers would follow in the footsteps of the Register of British Shipping, and be established for their mutual benefit. That the price of insurance was raised in consequence of the regulations. That the regulations, for the correction of the additional and irregularities, but for which the superintendence of a committee of merchants, shipowners, and underwriters, managing the office, shall, ex officio, be the duty of six of the members by rotation. The regulations of the committee for managing the office. The secretary, shall be appointed by the committee. The committee may appoint, at special meetings, or any 3 members. All elections of the committee they may deem the society is established, without

though at an enormous reduction, into business; so that there were two bad or inferior ships in the field; whereas, under a reasonable system of classification, there would have been only one good ship. The injury that this has done to the shipping interest is too obvious to require to be pointed out. It has been infinitely more hostile to it than all those reciprocity treaties, and that foreign competition, about which there has been so much unfounded clamour. "If the system of classification were founded on the principle of *intrinsic merit*, if the real efficiency of the ship formed the basis on which character was given, the consequence, in numerous instances, would be, that, instead of supplying the place of those ships that at present lapse from age only into the second class with new ones, the owners would effectually repair the existing ships; so that there would speedily be not only a material improvement in the construction of ships, but a material increase in the amount of tonnage, and a corresponding increase in the rate of freight.—(*Marshall's Statements*, p. 19.)

The conclusive report and exposition referred to above, did not produce the consequences that might have been anticipated. Government seems, for reasons known only to itself, to have concluded that this was not a subject with which it should interfere; and it was laid aside for some years more. But the still-increasing amount of shipwreck, and the frightful loss of life and property consequent thereon, again roused the public attention to the subject: and we are glad to have to announce, that the principal merchants, shipowners, and underwriters have at last succeeded in setting on foot machinery by which it is believed that a classified account of shipping will be obtained, founded on correct principles. Should this anticipation prove well founded, the public will owe much to the able and intelligent individuals who have imposed on themselves this difficult and important task. They will have done more than any other set of men to improve the character of our mercantile marine, and to lessen the disasters incident to a seafaring life.

2. New system of Classification.—This new classification is conducted under the direction and superintendence of a committee of merchants, shipowners, and underwriters established in 1834. The committee establish rules for classifying ships, and appoint, control, and dismiss the surveyors by whom they are inspected and examined. A classified register is annually published, which will be gradually made more and more complete; and the expenses attending the institution are defrayed, partly by the fees charged on making an entry in the register, partly by the profits on the sale of the register or book, and partly from voluntary sources. But, as the subject is of the utmost importance to every one interested in commerce and navigation, we think we shall do an acceptable service to our readers, by laying before them the statement prefixed by the society to their register. It fully explains their objects, the principles on which they are proceeding, and the means they have adopted for carrying their views into effect.

CLASSIFICATION OF SHIPS.

After announcing the formation of the committee, the official statement goes on to say, that the following resolutions, rules, and regulations, have been adopted; viz:—

That a society has been established for obtaining a faithful and accurate classification of the mercantile marine of the United Kingdom, and of the foreign vessels trading thereto, for whose government the following rules and by-laws have been adopted:—

That a book containing a register of such classification be annually printed, to be called *Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping*; and that all persons subscribing the sum of three guineas annually (or such other sum as may be fixed by the committee), shall be members of the Society, and entitled (for their own use) to a copy of the register book.

That the price at which the register book be issued to public establishments, not being marine insurance companies, be 10*l.* 10*s.*

That the register book shall be periodically posted throughout the year.

That, for the convenience of members not resident in London, a monthly supplement, containing the additions and corrections to the register book, be printed in such convenient form as will admit of its transmission by post, that those parties may be furnished with the latest and most correct information; but for which an additional charge of 1*l.* is, per annum will be made.

Superintendence of the Society.—That the superintendence of the affairs of this society be under the direction of a committee in London, composed of 24 members, consisting of an equal proportion of merchants, shipowners, and underwriters; and that, in addition, the chairman of the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's, and the chairman of the General Ship Owners' Society for the time being, shall, *ex officio*, be members of the committee.

Six of the members, namely, 3 of each of the constituent parts of the committee, shall go out annually by rotation, but be eligible to be re-elected.

The vacancies arising shall be filled up by the election of 2 shipowners and 1 merchant, by the committee of the General Shipowners' Society; and 3 underwriters and 1 merchant by the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's.

The committee shall appoint from their own body, annually, a chairman and deputy chairman. The secretary, clerks, and servants of the society, and the surveyors for London and the outports, shall be appointed by and be under the direction of the committee.

The committee shall meet for the despatch of business every Thursday or on such other day as they may appoint, at 11 o'clock precisely, and 5 members of the committee shall be a quorum.

Special meetings of the committee may be convened by order of the chairman, the deputy chairman, or any 3 members.

All elections and appointments whatever shall be made by ballot.

The committee are empowered to make such by-laws for their own government and proceedings as they may deem requisite, not being inconsistent with the original rules and regulations under which the society is established; but no new rule or by-law shall be introduced, nor any rule or by-law altered, without special notice being given for that purpose at the meeting of the committee next pre-

of the ceiling, between the lower deck and the bilge, unwrought, to admit of an examination of the lower surface of the plank of the bottom.

Third—when completed, and, if possible, before the plank be painted or payed.

A full statement, agreeably to a schedule prepared for the purpose, of the dimensions, scantlings, and of all new ships, verified by the builder, shall be transmitted by the surveyor, and will be kept as a record in the office of the society.

In building ships, to entitle them to be ranked in the longest period of this class, the following rules are to be observed:—

Timbering.—The whole of the timbering to be of English, African, or live oak, or teak, of good quality; the stem, stern-post, beams, transoms, aprons, knight heads, hawse timbers, and keelson, to be entirely free from all defects; the frame to be well squared from first foothook heads upwards, and the beams to be also well squared unless the timber is proportionably larger than the scantling hereafter described; every alternate set of timbers to be framed and bolted together to the gunwale. The butts of the timbers to be close, and not to be less in thickness than one third of the entire moulding at that point, and to be well chocked, with a butt at each end of the chock.

The scantlings to be as follows:—

Scantling for ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
	Inches.	Inches.
Beam and space to be	30	30
From side, if square, and free from caps, to be	8	11
at the bottom then	7	11
But timbers, solid, if square, at four heads	8	11
But timbers, solid, if square, at the heads	8 1/2	10
But timbers, solid, and top timbers, if square	6	9
But timbers, solid, and top timbers, if square	8	13
the beams to be moulded at keelson	7	11
the beams to be moulded at four heads	4	5
the beams to be moulded at their heads at the		
heads		

The intermediate dimensions for the scantling of timbers between the four heads and the gunwale to be regulated in proportion to the distance from the two points. Should the room and space be increased, the sizing of the timbers to be increased in proportion.

Mid beam —	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
For ships	Inches.	Inches.
It is moulded in the middle (not less than)	7	9
It is moulded at the ends (not less than)	5	8 1/2
It is solid	7	10

Mid beam —	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
For ships	Inches.	Inches.
It is moulded in the middle (not less than)	8	13
It is moulded at the ends (not less than)	7	10
It is solid	9	13

Mid and extreme —	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
For ships	Inches.	Inches.
Mid beam	8	13
It is moulded below the ribs (not less than)	7	10
It is moulded at the ends	10	14
It is solid	10	14

The middle of the ribs, where only 1 beam, to be 6 ft. 7 in. For ships over 200 tons, are added, then they may be 4 1/2 ft. 6 in. The ribs of timber in ships of 200 tons, and upwards, to be not less than 1 1/2 in. of the main breadth; and in ships under 200 tons, to be not less than 1 1/4 in. of the main breadth.

Timbers.—The outside planks, above the light-water mark, to be of English or African oak, East Indian teak, or red cedar.

The planks below the light-water mark to be good white oak, or oak well, but the stem or keel not to be wrought higher than 1 1/2 in. but oak bands; or if wrought higher, then 1 year will be deducted from the period that would otherwise be assigned.

The clamps, spiritings, shelf-pieces, and ceiling, to be of English or African oak, or teak.

The whole plank to be clear of all defects; the inside to be free of all dry, or decayed planks, and the whole to be properly siled and battened. No bolts to be nearer than 5 feet to each other, nor have a strike wrought between them, and then a distance

of 4 feet may be allowed; and no bolt to be on the same timber, unless there be three strikes between.

Thickness of plank to be as under:—	For ships	Outside.	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
			Inches.	Inches.
Bilge to walrus not less than			2 1/2	3
Short hoods			2 1/2	3
Bilge planks			2	3
Bilge to keel			2 1/2	3
White (average)			2	3
Top sides			2	3
Shear strake			2 1/2	3
Plank sheer			2 1/2	3
Keel			2	3
Ceiling below the bold beams			2 1/2	3
Clamps and bilge planks			2 1/2	3
Upper deck clamps and spiritings			2 1/2	3
Twist deck ceiling			2 1/2	3
For ships			150	500
Upper deck			2 1/2	3
Water ways			2	3

Fastenings.—The treenails to be all of good English or African oak, locust, or other hard wood; but in no case Baltic or American oak to be used; and all planks above 3 inches in width are to be treenailed double and single, except bolts intersecting and if below that width, then to be treenailed single, and at least one half of the treenails used are required to go through the ceiling. All slips of this description of the first class are required to be copper fastened below their wales.

Size of Bolts —	Tons. 150	Tons. 500
For ships	Inches.	Inches.
Keel, knee, and dead wood shaft	1 1/2	1 1/2
Scarp of the keel	1 1/2	1 1/2
Keelson bolts, one through each floor	0 7/8ths	1 1/8ths
Bolts through the bilge and foot walling	0 5/8ths	0 7/8ths
Butt-bolts	0 5/8ths	0 3/4ths
Hold beam bolts	0 7/8ths	1 1/8ths
Deck beam bolts	0 3/4ths	0 7/8ths
Hooks forward at throat	0 7/8ths	1 1/8ths
Hooks forward at arms	0 3/4ths	1 1/8ths
Transoms	0 7/8ths	1 1/8ths
The lower plate of the rudder	2 1/2	3 1/2

The beams to be sufficient in number, and securely fastened at the sides, with either iron or wood knees, or both, or with stiff pieces and knees; the same to be well and sufficiently bolted; and if required that 1 bolt in each butt below the wales, and the bolts in the bilges, shall be through and clenched.

In all cases where the butt and bilge bolts are not through and clenched, 1 year will be deducted from the period that would otherwise be assigned in the classification or the vessel; but this rule shall not be applied to ships built previously to the promulgation of the regulations of this society, although the rule will be rigidly enforced in the case of all vessels built since that period.

General Remarks.—The scantlings and dimensions of all intermediate-sized vessels to be proportionately regulated agreeably to a scale adopted by the society, a copy of which is in the hands of each of the surveyors; and it is to be clearly understood, that smaller dimensions will not entitle the ship to be placed in the longest period of this class.

All ships so constructed, and having the whole of the workmanship generally performed in the best manner, will be marked in the book thus, "12 A"; thereby denoting that they are ships of the first quality, and will remain in the first description of the first class 12 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, in which while some of the requisites for a 15 years' ship may have been fulfilled, others have been omitted; but in which all the requisites for a 10 years' ship shall have been complied with, will be marked in the book thus, "11 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 11 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, the scantling of timber, thickness of plank, and size of fastenings of which shall be in no respect less than those in the foregoing specifications, but which may not be framed, nor chocked, nor the timbers so well squared, as in the manner before described, or in which live oak and red cedar alternately may have been used in the framing, or in which good foreign white oak may have been used for ceiling, shelf-pieces, and clamps, will be marked in the book thus, "10 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 10 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

Ships surveyed while building as before mentioned, but in the frame of which foreign oak timber shall be used for keelsons or for floors and first foothooks only, or in which good white Dunzic oak plank shall be used below the wales outside, whilst in other respects they are constructed in the manner set forth in the preceding descriptions, will be marked in the book thus, "9 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 9 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned and framed, fastened, and constructed in the

RESTORATION OF SHIPS TO THE FIRST DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST CLASS.

At any time, before the expiration of one half of the number of years beyond the period for which ships are to remain in the first description of the first class, an owner be desirous to have his ship continued in, or restored to that description, such restoration (on his consenting to the special survey hereafter described, and performing the repairs therein found requisite) will be granted for a further period, not exceeding two thirds of the time originally assigned for her remaining in the first description of the first class; the same to be calculated from the date of such repairs.

Requisites for Restoration.—All the bolts in the range of each deck to be driven out, and the planks taken out; the upper deck water-ways, and plank shears, and spirketting, and the strake next the water-ways on the lower deck in the midships, to be also taken out; the sheathing to be entirely stripped off the bottom; a strake in the upper course of the bottom between the wales and the lightest mark, fore and aft, and a plank in the ceiling at the floor heads, to be taken out; the timbers to be cleared, and the books forward to be exposed; and in that state the ship to be submitted to special survey and examination, at which the attention of the surveyors to this society is to be particularly directed to the state of the decks, the remaining plank of the topsides, the wales, upper courses, and trenails, and other fastenings; also to the state of the frame, hawse timbers, and knight heads, keelson, floor, footboards, ceiling, and breast hooks, the rudder in all its parts and hangings; and if, after such examination, the owner should consent to take out all planks, timbers, beams, knees, water-ways, fastenings, and other parts that may be found defective, and objected to, and replace them with materials of the same species, or of equal quality, as those of which the ship was originally constructed, such ship to be entitled to restoration to the first description of the first class for a further period proportionate to their real condition and the extent of the repairs performed, and provided that they be at all times thereafter kept in a state of efficient repair.

Additional Rules.—But if, at any age, the whole of the outside plank of a vessel should be taken off so low as the second foothook heads, the remainder of the planking, either outside or inside, together with all the decks, be removed, so as to expose the timbers of the frame entirely to view, and in that state the ship be submitted to a special survey and examination by the surveyors to this society; and if, after such examination, all timbers, beams, knees, keelsons, transoms, breast-hooks, remaining plank, inside or outside, or other parts to be found defective, be replaced with materials of the same species, or of equal quality, with those of which the ship was originally constructed, and all the iron-work driven out and renewed; such a ship may be returned to the first description of the first class, for so long a period as may be deemed expedient by the committee, not exceeding in any case the term of six years, as provided by the seventh general rule for ships, in the construction of which second-hand timber has been used.

For Ships which comprise the existing Tonnage.—All ships comprising the existing tonnage are to undergo a very careful survey by the surveyors to this society, prior to registration, and will be classed in the register book agreeably to the descriptions herein-before laid down for the building of new ships, unless on such survey there be found sufficient cause to assign them a less period.

On the proposed survey, especial attention is required to the following points; namely, to an examination of the state of the upper deck fastenings, water-ways, spirketting, plank shears, topsides, and upper decks, with its appendages; also, the lower deck fastenings, wales, and counter, and the plank and trenails outside the water's edge; the state of the rudder, windlass, and capstan (if the latter be used for purchasing the anchors).

And if on an examination of any ship she shall be found to be so defective as to render her unfit to continue on the first description of the first class for the remainder of the term of years assigned to her in accordance with these rules and regulations, a notice of the intention to make such a reduction at the expiration of thirty days, shall be given in writing by the surveyors to this society in the master, owner, or agent, intimating that, if the alteration be objected to, the committee will direct a special survey, on the said master, owner, or agent agreeing to pay the expenses attending the same, should it be found that the proposed reduction was justifiable.

SHIPS' ANCHORS, CABLES, AND STORES.

All vessels are required to have their masts, spars, and standing rigging in good order, and the principal sails in sufficient number and good condition; and every ship is to be supplied with a good heaper stream cable, or hawser, of sufficient size and length, and with at least one good warp; and all vessels are required to be provided with anchors of proper weight, and cables of approved quality, in number and length according to the undermentioned scales.

Anchors.—All vessels under 200 tons to have at least two bower anchors; and all vessels above that tonnage to be provided with at least three bower anchors.

Tons.	Fathoms.	Tons.	Fathoms.
All vessels under 100 to have at least 150 lb chain.	—	All vessels from 200 to 400 to have at least 300 lb chain.	—
— 100 to 150 —	150 —	400 — 600 —	320 —
— 150 — 200 —	170 —	600 — 800 —	340 —
— 200 — 300 —	180 —	800 — 1000 —	360 —

But in all cases where heaper cables are used, their one sixth part in length will be required.

Boats.—All vessels under 150 tons to be provided with one good boat; and every vessel above that tonnage to be provided with at least two good boats.

For Ships navigated by Steam.

All sea-going vessels navigated by steam shall be required to be surveyed twice in each year, when a character will be assigned to them according to the report of survey as regards the classification of the hull and materials of the vessel.

That with respect to the boilers and machinery, the owners are required to produce to the surveyors to this society, at the above-directed surveys, a certificate from some competent master engineer, describing their state and condition at those periods; and to which certificate it is desirable there should be added a description of the particulars of the same as far as may be practicable, in the manner and form annexed; to be appended to the report of survey, and delivered to the committee, who will thereupon insert in the register book the letters "M. C.," denoting that the boilers and machinery have been inspected, and certified to be in good order and safe working condition; but if no certificate of their condition be furnished by the owner or master, then no character can be assigned for the machinery.

Hull.—The surveyors to this society are directed to examine and report the scantling of timbers, plank, and fastenings, where built, and by whom, in the same manner as directed for sailing vessels.

Scantlings.—The scantlings are to be deemed sufficient for a steam vessel under 300 tons register, if equal to those required by the scales prescribed in the rules for this society for a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel; but for a steam vessel above 300 tons register, then the scantlings are to be equal to those required by the scale for a sailing vessel of three fourths of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel.

Floors.—Where the vessel is not fitted in solid to the floor heads in the engine room, an exception will be specially made against any reduction of the scantling of the floors, which, in such cases, will not be permitted to be upon the reduced scale of two thirds or three fourths of the dimensions for the scantlings of sailing vessels as before stated; but the floors will then be required to be equal to the dimensions set forth in the rules for ships of the actual registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

The surveyors are required to report the number, size, length, fastenings, and mode of arrangement of the engine and boiler sleepers, and the description of timber of which they are composed, and whether diagonally trussed with wood or iron, and to what extent; the length, size, and fastenings of shelf-pieces and paddle beams; and whether the vessel be constructed with spoolings, and how they are formed; and to give the general length and shifting of the plank outside and inside.

Masts and Stays.—The surveyors are to examine and report the number and description of the masts, stays, anchors, cables, hawsers, warps, and boats, as directed to be done for sailing vessels; but the anchors and cables will not be required to exceed in number, weight, and length those of a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

The surveyors are to be particular in examining and reporting the condition of the boats of all vessels employed in carrying passengers.

FORM OF CERTIFICATE FOR VESSELS NAVIGATED BY STEAM.

Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping.—Certificates for Vessels navigated by Steam.

(Place and date) 185
do certify that the whole of the boiler and machinery of the steam vessel, belonging to, is masterly and that the same to be at this time in good order and safe working condition.

Witness head, Master Engineer.

The following is a true account of the particulars of the machinery of the steam vessel, herein named—

Number	Engines	Whether iron or copper	Boiler
Estimated power	Do. at the end	Working pressure	Do. round the chimney
Length of paddles	Do. round the chimney	If it can be increased at pleasure	Number of feed pumps
Breadth of paddles	Do. round the chimney	If any and what means of changing the water without extinguishing the fire and blowing off	How attached
If upon the first or second motion	Do. round the chimney	Number of head pumps	State of the boilers
Number of revolutions per minute	Do. round the chimney	If any attached to engine, their purpose and power	What clear space upon the top side of the boiler
Size and condition of the holding-down bolts	Do. round the chimney	Number of foot pumps, with a branch and form of sufficient length to reach to every part of the vessel	Do. at the end
Where stowed	Do. round the chimney	Master Engineer	Do. round the chimney
If in contact with boiler	Do. round the chimney	The rules herein set forth may at all times be altered by the consulting committee, and especially to meet any acknowledged improvement which may be made in naval architecture, or in the materials used in ship-building.	Do. round the chimney
For what quantity room is provided	Do. round the chimney		Do. round the chimney
If liable to get wet	Do. round the chimney		Do. round the chimney

No one can question the advantages that will result from carrying a plan of this sort completely into execution. We confess, however, that we doubt much whether this can be done without the co-operation of government. It is invidious to impose on one set of merchants and ship-owners the task of deciding upon the condition of the ships or other property belonging to others; and, though we have every confidence in the integrity of the gentlemen composing the committee, the most honourable men are liable to be influenced by an *esprit du corps*, and by insensible biases. We, therefore, cannot help thinking that the scheme would have a much better chance of success, and that the classification would be more likely to be correct, were it managed by individuals more wisely connected with business. The surveyors, on whose capacity and honesty the whole scheme principally depends, ought to be quite independent of the good or ill will of those on whose property they have to report. But can that be said to be the case at present? and can it be fairly presumed that merchants or shipowners will deal by the property of their friends and neighbours as it might be dealt with by officers appointed by, and responsible only to, government? We apprehend that both those questions must be answered in the negative; and hence our conviction that this is a matter in which government should interfere. No one can doubt that it is bound to do every thing in its power to promote the safety of navigation, and to preserve the lives of our seamen. In this view it erects lighthouses, and prescribes regulations as to pilotage, &c. But, how indispensable soever, these are not more essential to the interests of navigation than a proper classification of ships; and, if other means should fail to effect this desirable purpose, government will certainly neglect a most important duty if it do not interpose.—(For a further discussion of this important question, see the article on the Frequency of Shipwrecks in the 122d number of the *Edinburgh Review*; see also the *Report of the Commercial Committee of 1836*, on Shipwreck.)

3. Incapacity of Masters.—Means by which it might be obviated.—But government will not do its duty if it do not go further than this. An erroneous classification of shipping has been a great, but not the only, cause of shipwreck. The ignorance and incapacity of the masters and officers is another, and hardly a less copious, source of disaster. Officers of the navy have to go through a course of discipline, and are obliged to submit to certain examinations as to their proficiency in seamanship. This, also, was the case with the officers of the East India Company's ships, which were exceedingly well navigated. Indeed, the Company trusted entirely for protection to the goodness of their ships, and the skill of their officers and men; it not being their practice ever to insure. But the masters and officers of ordinary merchant ships are not subjected to any specific training, or any regular examination. Every thing is left to mere individual investigation and selection; and this, as every one knows, depends almost wholly on accident; or, which is nearly equivalent to it, on the skill, industry, liberality, &c. of the shipowner. Every one must be satisfied that masters so chosen cannot fail of being, in many instances, very ill qualified for their business. Few, however, have any notion of the extent of the mischief thence arising; but we have been assured by gentlemen of undoubted information, and extensively connected with the business of insurance, that

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nearly half the losses at sea may be ascribed to the ignorance, incapacity, and carelessness of the masters and crews. Perhaps, there may be some exaggeration in this; but, supposing that only a third part, or that about 200 out of the 826 vessels wrecked in 1833, were lost through the circumstances referred to, is not that enough, not merely to justify government interfering to avert so great an evil, but to make such interference a positive duty?

The interposition of government in a case of this sort, is not only absolutely just and necessary, but it is conformable to the highest authority. The famous French ordinance of 1801 has the following article:—"Aucun ne pourra ci-après être reçu capitaine, maître, ou patron de navire, qu'il n'ait navigué pendant cinq ans, et n'ait été examiné publiquement sur le fait de la navigation, et trouvé capable par deux anciens maîtres, en présence des officiers de l'Amirauté et du Professeur de l'Hydrographie, s'il y en a dans le lieu." (Liv. ii. tit. 1. § 1.) A similar article has been inserted in the Code de Commerce; and, in 1825, the French government issued an ordinance specifying, in detail, the qualifications that are necessary before any one can obtain a certificate of his fitness to command a ship, either on a foreign or coasting voyage; the persons who are to examine candidates; and the rules that are to be observed in the examination. Some similar ordeal should certainly be established in this country. The authority of the master is so very great, and the trust reposed in him, including not merely the ship and goods of his employers, but the lives of the crew and passengers, so very extensive, that it is the bounden duty of the public to provide that it be not committed to ignorant or incapable hands.

Perhaps it would, at first, be enough to enact, that no ship, which cleared out for an *oversea* voyage, should be deemed a British ship, unless the master and the second in command had received a certificate of fitness from the proper authorities. This would leave it to the owners to take whom they pleased as masters of coasting vessels; but we believe that the better way would be to enact that all masters of vessels, above a specified tonnage, should be selected from among certificated persons. We do hope that the next time we may have to notice this subject will be to announce that the measure now suggested, or one of a like import, has been carried into effect.—(Edinburgh Review, *loc. cit.*)

4. *Disorderly Conduct of the Crews.*—Means by which it might be obviated.—Nothing, we are well assured, would do so much to obviate the disorderly bad conduct so frequently complained of, on the part of seamen, as the enforcing of sobriety on board ships. However disagreeable, there can be no doubt of the fact, that some very bad cases of shipwreck have been mainly occasioned by the drunkenness of the crew. The Americans have seen the advantage that would arise from a reform in this particular; and large numbers of American ships, especially those engaged in long voyages, are now sent to sea, in which the use of spirits is strictly prohibited, unless when prescribed by the surgeon as a cordial or medicine. In these ships the conditions of agreement, signed by the men, have at their head the words "No GROG ALLOWED," printed in large capitals. Instead of it, the seamen are liberally supplied with coffee, cocoa, &c.; and it is said that the crews of the ships fitted out on this plan are not only more orderly, but that they are more vigorous, and able to endure greater fatigue. But, to establish the superiority of this practice, it is enough to mention that the American insurance offices have, for some time past, insured "temperance ships" at a decidedly *lower premium* than others! We are convinced that nothing would do half so much to improve the character of our common seamen, as the introduction of a similar system into our merchant-service. And, notwithstanding the prejudices against it, we are glad to have it to state, that some ships, fitted out on this plan, have sailed from London and Liverpool, and that (even in this incipient stage) it has been found to answer exceedingly well.

5. *Improper Built of Ships.*—We have elsewhere noticed (Supplement, article TOXIC) the act 5 and 6 Will. 4. c. 56., passed in 1835, for ascertaining the tonnage of ships. In the old system, the tonnage was determined by reference only to a ship's length and breadth; which led to vessels being built of a disproportionate depth, in order that their registered tonnage, and, consequently, the charges depending on it, might be diminished as much as possible. The faulty construction of ships thence arising has, no doubt, contributed, in some degree, to occasion losses; but the act referred to, by making the tonnage be fairly determined according to the capacity of the ship, whatever the form may be, will completely obviate this source of defective construction and loss.

I. An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Number of their Crews, belonging to the British Empire, on the 31st December, 1835, 1836, and 1837, respectively.

	On the 31st December, 1835.			On the 31st December, 1836.			On the 31st December, 1837.		
	Vessels.	Tonn.	Men.	Vessels.	Tonn.	Men.	Vessels.	Tonn.	Men.
United Kingdom	18,737	2,520,687	138,151	19,853	2,512,516	138,130	18,836	2,246,327	159,233
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	583	39,896	3,959	565	36,503	3,995	600	37,294	4,230
British Possessions	3,811	483,456	27,911	5,432	442,897	28,506	8,901	475,497	36,064
Total	23,131	2,783,767	171,020	25,840	2,792,916	170,637	28,337	2,769,118	179,527

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II. Statement of the Shipping employed in the Trade of the United Kingdom, in the Year 1857, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels that Entered Inwards and cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews, separating British from Foreign Vessels, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.

Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Banah	1,531	217,619	14,096	97,947	1,222	205,649	11,313	827	56,376	1,200	2,000	
Sweden	47	7,038	62	25,000	84	9,374	630	140	21,444	1,400	2,100	
Norway	11	1,935	78	26,004	30	2,159	107	143	10,668	1,400	2,100	
Denmark	43	8,587	993	35,990	999	38,981	8,548	543	10,000	1,400	2,100	
Prussia	451	67,695	8,339	145,745	9,219	8,200	2,546	802	114,000	1,400	2,100	
Germany	287	122,350	7,977	25,973	7,707	140,000	3,000	800	61,100	1,400	2,100	
Holland	1,144	149,297	5,820	8,400	5,018	150,570	8,104	649	60,800	1,400	2,100	
Belgium	144	17,185	5,337	23,053	5,051	58,121	3,566	1,914	107,700	1,400	2,100	
France	2,238	220,250	16,549	1,970	18,000	2,200	231,701	20,000	771	62,500	2,100	
Portugal, Proper	208	35,610	2,376	7,087	641	292	36,985	4,337	61	12,079	70	
Azores	266	20,000	1,000	0	0	0	0	0	1,914	107,700	70	
Madaira	15	2,043	100	0	0	0	0	0	15	1,181	100	
Spain, and the Balearic Islands	458	62,256	3,812	79	5,179	597	94,283	2,254	39	8,800	170	
Cannaries	81	8,578	179	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Gibraltar	65	10,395	804	1	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Italy and the Italian Islands	429	64,423	8,850	45	10,185	540	383	25,161	8,248	47	6,000	
Malta	11	1,660	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Ionian Islands	71	1,660	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Turkey and Constantinople	119	18,148	353	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Greece and the Greek Islands	30	3,816	149	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Egypt	23	4,300	210	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	15	1,738	88	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope	120	45,679	2,400	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Cape of Good Hope	24	4,754	270	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Eastern Coast, from the Cape of Good Hope to Bebel Mandiel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Cape de Verd Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
St. Helena and Ascension	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Madagascar	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Isles of Bourbon	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Mauritius	74	20,510	1,007	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Arabia	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
East India Company's Territory - Singapore and Ceylon	281	118,753	7,979	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Somatra	1	979	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Java	4	1,686	86	1	800	31	0	2,719	143	1	50	
Other Islands of the Indian Sea (exclusive of the Philippines)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Philippine Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Port of Siam	1	218	15	1	118	27	1	864	32	1	140	
China	82	22,218	1,008	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
New Holland	62	15,546	979	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
British West Indies	1,993	231,437	24,979	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Hayti	17	2,501	141	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Cuba, and other Foreign West Indies	49	8,220	505	19	4,218	199	70	10,000	654	30	3,000	
India	303	61,023	8,257	803	275,143	10,378	280	110,476	4,004	624	20,548	
United States	44	7,391	483	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Mexico	1	184	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Costa Rica	30	4,108	224	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Columbia	108	67,891	1,982	4	970	46	173	41,897	1,390	3	800	
States of Rio de Plata	82	6,257	263	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Chili	41	9,287	118	0	1,828	100	49	12,214	67	2	251	
Peru	19	4,174	231	1	258	18	13	6,880	164	1	243	
The Whale Fisheries	71	23,254	2,774	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Gales of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	8,419	631,280	11,266	28	2,660	152	3,203	113,268	10,646	0	0	
Total	18,155	2,217,168	146,219	7,243	1,005,941	56,778	14,587	2,547,227	143,823	7,481	1,006,731	

[The following tables, relating to the shipping of the United States, are from official reports made to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Number and Class of Vessels built, and the Tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the Year ending on the 30th September, 1830.

States.	Class of Vessels.					Total number of vessels built.	Total Tonnage.
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Stann-boats.		
Maine	26	43	68	0	3	145	21,700 00
New Hampshire	8	0	0	0	0	8	5,798 31
Massachusetts	21	14	100	1	0	146	24,468 20
Rhode Island	3	0	0	0	0	3	1,638 32
Connecticut	1	1	17	0	0	25	3,771 11
New York	10	0	39	46	17	112	17,281 44
New Jersey	0	0	97	0	0	97	6,280 73
Pennsylvania	4	7	14	13	11	49	6,280 73
Delaware	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,231 05
Maryland	0	0	116	0	0	116	12,000 00
District of Columbia	1	0	0	10	2	14	1,215 00
Virginia	0	0	0	0	0	0	10 00
North Carolina	0	0	0	0	0	0	25 00
South Carolina	0	0	0	0	0	0	440 70
Georgia	0	0	0	0	0	0	375 00
Ohio	0	0	0	0	0	0	6,280 73
Tennessee	0	0	0	0	0	0	47 00
Alabama	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Mississippi	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Louisiana	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Kentucky	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Missouri	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Michigan	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Florida	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 00
Total	80	80	420	122	122	859	120,890 81

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Maine
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Rhode Island
Connecticut
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New Jersey
Pennsylvania
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District of Columbia
Virginia
North Carolina
South Carolina
Georgia
Ohio
Tennessee
Alabama
Mississippi
Louisiana
Kentucky
Missouri
Michigan
Florida

Total

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Year.	Register
1815	854.2
1816	800.7
1817	809.7
1818	606.0
1819	612.0
1820	610.0
1821	619.0
1822	626.1
1823	639.0
1824	669.0
1825	700.7
1826	739.9
1827	747.1

Statistical view of the Tonnage of American and Foreign Vessels arriving from, and departing to each foreign country, during the Years ending on the 30th day of September, 1937, 1938, and 1939.

Countries.	1936-1937.				1937-1938.				1938-1939.			
	American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.
	Tonnage.				Tonnage.				Tonnage.			
Russia	15,153	6,644	5,091	4,147	19,801	7,259	819	199	16,423	8,540	5,011	3,848
Prussia	707	-	-	-	-	940	643	1,423	233	216	216	216
Sweden and Norway	7,981	1,331	11,457	4,084	7,221	1,412	6,615	1,639	9,681	797	13,711	1,210
Swedish West Indies	1,281	2,228	-	-	598	1,945	-	-	569	703	21	87
Denmark	234	1,062	2,324	4,797	860	1,024	1,072	921	1,184	1,646	3,327	1,210
Danish West Indies	30,013	81,857	1,732	5,199	24,223	23,168	921	719	22,798	33,283	1,646	3,327
Netherlands	14,933	15,745	15,436	22,736	10,708	18,501	6,900	19,029	14,167	11,912	5,639	12,210
Dutch East Indies	4,026	6,441	-	3,940	7,155	11,430	-	-	4,379	7,234	-	6,610
Dutch West Indies	11,802	6,309	651	563	14,239	2,943	856	109	9,325	4,020	620	440
Dutch Guiana	6,099	6,378	-	2,677	7,222	4,715	-	-	79	6,500	-	-
Belgium	6,363	4,898	3,145	2,477	6,077	13,544	1,324	6,644	5,969	5,211	1,892	1,700
England	373,377	263,089	100,900	67,125	314,164	244,815	13,969	76,666	277,152	110,652	32,610	1,700
Scotland	2,257	18,841	10,747	7,824	8,153	4,457	7,361	6,387	4,984	2,261	10,214	4,000
Ireland	480	531	11,261	184	1,201	473	7,429	1,666	1,519	1,362	6,036	3,000
Gibraltar	5,410	10,337	749	1,873	640	11,496	-	-	1,911	1,899	253	1,400
Malta	1,037	1,999	-	710	890	957	-	-	614	1,899	-	-
British East Indies	11,574	5,457	-	2,697	8,597	2,334	-	-	5,998	10,577	-	-
British West Indies	62,131	63,877	26,215	16,088	50,422	56,768	23,399	11,246	43,145	73,740	23,614	12,210
British Guiana	599	4,113	1,981	438	1,256	6,992	3,249	1,763	1,083	4,329	4,500	1,210
British Honduras	4,394	5,025	1,965	8,159	2,797	2,406	2,237	1,805	3,331	6,474	1,711	2,500
British African Ports	984	455	-	-	1,173	309	-	-	1,118	1,044	5,250	1,210
Cape of Good Hope	378	91	-	-	710	1,064	-	-	819	1,044	6,474	1,210
Mauritius	91	-	-	-	91	-	-	-	419	921	833	800
British North American Colonies	266,680	232,234	298,996	440,029	266,230	261,238	270,367	283,156	264,121	265,606	269,000	273,000
Hase Towas and other Ports of Germany	14,767	6,257	74,570	48,655	7,402	2,250	34,584	34,648	10,731	4,950	37,311	14,700
French Atlantic Ports	78,747	91,687	14,434	30,632	81,993	106,056	10,439	18,108	77,652	88,518	14,363	14,700
French Mediterranean Ports	9,199	10,528	9,857	5,116	7,166	17,245	2,238	2,891	7,029	3,250	7,790	2,500
French West Indies	13,078	21,614	8,030	2,276	11,731	23,168	6,703	1,871	21,333	24,343	9,650	1,210
French Guiana	2,339	2,500	-	-	1,815	1,908	-	-	2,843	3,305	-	-
French African Ports	80,200	17,648	1,665	1,232	17,120	15,096	2,005	2,214	22,800	81,031	1,544	1,210
Wayl	12,455	3,744	606	6,949	14,331	6,301	-	-	1,538	6,749	16,129	1,210
Spanish Atlantic Ports	14,796	1,846	2,500	4,838	6,679	1,553	2,754	4,736	16,473	6,897	6,112	2,500
Spanish Mediterranean Ports	2,697	2,157	435	-	9,335	2,177	228	-	5,376	1,920	744	-
Teneriffe, and other Canaries	7,488	-	718	-	2,347	1,780	-	-	7,413	1,674	-	-
Manilla and Philippine Islands	151,193	175,799	7,598	13,184	184,398	180,743	11,491	10,618	195,014	191,578	13,098	13,000
Cuba	28,728	17,071	2,346	1,156	49,291	19,339	1,157	2,408	51,491	22,247	1,041	1,000
Porto Rico	9,054	2,226	1,032	10,407	9,649	2,922	1,434	1,041	16,405	2,081	2,000	1,000
Portugal	2,783	4,350	434	-	2,437	5,481	432	-	2,112	4,273	-	-
Madaira	1,233	436	-	-	1,114	509	-	-	63	814	319	100
Fayal and other Azores	699	3,723	-	2,148	855	3,224	-	-	669	3,391	3,856	1,000
Cape de Verde Islands	5,193	2,637	7,144	3,531	8,161	3,041	2,106	1,210	4,853	3,100	1,018	1,000
Italy	10,968	1,230	2,701	2,103	10,807	1,012	5,517	1,224	13,707	2,253	3,760	1,000
Sicily	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Trieste, and other Austria Adriatic ports	4,781	2,178	5,073	19,015	2,270	4,274	1,477	3,703	4,420	3,749	199	2,000
Turkey, Levant, &c.	4,756	484	1,231	1,709	2,274	1,239	-	-	3,381	9,232	-	-
Moclia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Morocco, and Barbary States	844	-	499	-	646	815	143	-	447	-	371	3,000
Mexico	14,475	17,502	1,871	4,018	16,538	11,538	1,550	2,725	17,419	17,818	1,210	1,000
Texas	2,239	12,039	958	1,002	25,091	29,139	863	397	28,444	48,509	969	1,000
Central America	1,157	1,063	-	-	9,794	6,923	2,560	1,017	741	471	-	-
Colombia	9,686	7,515	1,808	1,893	-	-	-	-	4,978	6,411	1,210	1,000
Venezuela	3,098	960	1,096	1,208	-	-	-	-	2,168	1,982	1,210	1,000
New Grenada	25,182	19,516	5,796	4,107	29,037	30,623	276	1,801	24,477	36,481	2,267	1,000
Argentina Republic	4,475	4,372	1,319	-	951	7,118	3,001	169	105	831	899	1,000
Chilipatzena Republic	2,075	5,562	-	435	1,473	5,112	-	-	170	8,450	570	1,000
Chili	5,018	6,544	-	-	4,298	-	-	-	4,671	-	-	-
Persia	1,921	-	-	-	198	1,874	-	-	-	1,019	-	-
South America, generally	418	800	-	-	197	117	-	-	1,612	-	-	-
China	16,180	3,793	-	-	11,841	7,314	-	-	7,992	6,419	-	-
Europe, generally	2,084	2,204	621	250	1,345	219	-	-	141	2,267	4,230	300
Asia, generally	5,307	6,636	1,121	641	4,938	6,921	405	611	6,578	5,570	-	-
Africa, generally	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
West Indies, generally	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Sea and Sandwich Islands	68,802	61,279	-	-	60,550	28,396	-	-	65,951	53,339	332	-
Australia	374	537	-	-	894	620	-	-	772	1,053	-	-
Northwest Coast of America	-	246	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,601	107	-	-
African Ocean	9,045	-	815	-	7,029	1,193	-	-	-	978	-	-
Uncertain places	-	-	-	-	1,101	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	1,299,720	1,066,692	765,708	756,292	1,304,974	1,408,791	592,110	804,166	1,491,479	1,477,236	624,911	614,000

Moment exhibit to each entered into, under, 1830.

Fig.	Ship	Tonnage
	British	
	French	
	Spanish	
	Portuguese	
	Italian	
	Swedish	
	Danish	
	Netherlands	
	Belgium	
	England	
	Scotland	
	Ireland	
	Gibraltar	
	Malta	
	British East Indies	
	British West Indies	
	British Guiana	
	British Honduras	
	British African Ports	
	Cape of Good Hope	
	Mauritius	
	British North American Colonies	
	Hase Towas and other Ports of Germany	
	French Atlantic Ports	
	French Mediterranean Ports	
	French West Indies	
	French Guiana	
	French African Ports	
	Wayl	
	Spanish Atlantic Ports	
	Spanish Mediterranean Ports	
	Teneriffe, and other Canaries	
	Manilla and Philippine Islands	
	Cuba	
	Porto Rico	
	Portugal	
	Madaira	
	Fayal and other Azores	
	Cape de Verde Islands	
	Italy	
	Sicily	
	Trieste, and other Austria Adriatic ports	
	Turkey, Levant, &c.	
	Moclia	
	Morocco, and Barbary States	
	Mexico	
	Texas	
	Central America	
	Colombia	
	Venezuela	
	New Grenada	
	Argentina Republic	
	Chilipatzena Republic	
	Chili	
	Persia	
	South America, generally	
	China	
	Europe, generally	
	Asia, generally	
	Africa, generally	
	West Indies, generally	
	South Sea and Sandwich Islands	
	Australia	
	Northwest Coast of America	
	African Ocean	
	Uncertain places	
	Total	

SHIPS' PAPER
of the ship and cargo
country—as
(see those titles)
which, those required
to that character
Newbes, tom.
Documents:
1. The Passport,
the captain or master
name and residence
of the nature and
of each other man
necessary for the safe
return insisted on by
the consular officers
of the vessel.
2. The Proofs of
a neutral
country, proofs is generally
legally condemn
the bill of sale,
the proofs are so es
without them hav
usually disputed.
3. The Muster Ro
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the company. The
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and to whom
easily fabricated

Statement exhibiting the Number, Tonnage, Crews, and National Character of the Foreign Vessels that entered into, and cleared from, the United States, during the Year ending on the 30th September, 1850.

Flag.	Entered.				Cleared.			
	No.	Tonn.	Crews.		No.	Tonn.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
British	2,534	496,533	27,743	751	3,500	491,495	23,169	427
French	94	22,898	1,184	21	82	21,840	1,145	30
Spanish	102	10,501	1,050	7	80	13,153	864	6
Portuguese	64	17,735	743	14	66	18,787	790	10
Dutch	28	4,058	583	6	28	4,759	577	4
Belgian	19	3,364	177	4	17	3,231	167	3
Swedish	129	41,139	1,854	17	132	38,087	1,759	16
Prussian	7	1,059	64	3	6	898	82	3
American	8	2,758	119	3	8	1,394	81	1
Other	8	2,204	88	4	6	1,919	50	3
Total	17	2,438	197	8	16	4,000	295	3
British	8	840	34	1	1	219	12	1
French	3	264	33	1	1	108	32	1
Spanish	2	461	20	1	2	455	22	1
Portuguese	2	745	38	1	7	748	38	1
Dutch	4	1,652	63	7	7	2,275	99	1
Belgian	6	1,145	58	3	6	1,145	81	3
Swedish	3	739	38	1	3	383	19	1
Prussian	3	436	20	1	1	140	12	1
American	17	1,489	143	16	16	1,300	140	16
Other	19	995	94	18	18	844	78	18
Swedish	8	1,143	54	6	8	822	45	8
Prussian	6	456	29	6	6	1,074	69	6
American	6	1,054	48	6	7	961	53	7
Other	1	1,245	68	4	6	920	41	4
Total	4,105	624,814	34,277	884	4,096	611,839	34,388	450

(Am. Ed.)

SHIPS' PAPERS, the papers or documents required for the manifestation of the property of the ship and cargo, &c. They are of 2 sorts; viz. 1st, those required by the law of a particular country—as the certificate of registry, licence, charterparty, bills of lading, bill of health, &c.—(see those titles)—required by the law of England to be on board British ships; and, 2dly, those required by the law of nations to be on board neutral ships, to vindicate their title to that character. Mr. Serjeant Marshall, following M. Hubner (*De la Saisie des Bâtimens Neutres*, tom. i. pp. 241—252.), has given the following description of the latter class of documents:

1. *The Passport, Sea Brief, or Sea Letter.*—This is a permission from the neutral state to the captain or master of the ship, to proceed on the voyage proposed, and usually contains the name and residence; the name, property, description, tonnage, and destination of the ship; the nature and quantity of the cargo, the place whence it comes, and its destination; and such other matters as the practice of the place requires. This document is indispensably necessary for the safety of every neutral ship. Hubner says, that it is the only paper rigorously insisted on by the Barbary corsairs; by the production of which alone their friends are protected from insult.

2. *The Proofs of Property.*—These ought to show that the ship really belongs to the subjects of a neutral state. If she appear to either belligerent to have been built in the enemy's country, proof is generally required that she was purchased by the neutral before, or captured and legally condemned and sold to the neutral after, the declaration of war; and in the latter case the *bill of sale*, properly authenticated, ought to be produced. M. Hubner admits that such proofs are so essential to every neutral vessel, for the prevention of frauds, that such as without them have no reason to complain if they be interrupted in their voyages, and their neutrality disputed.

3. *The Muster Roll.*—This, which the French call *rôle d'équipage*, contains the names, ages, quality, place of residence, and, above all, the *place of birth*, of every person of the ship's company. The document is of great use in ascertaining a ship's neutrality. It must naturally excite a strong suspicion, if the majority of the crew be found to consist of foreigners; still more, if they be natives of the enemy's country.—(See SEAMEN.)

4. *The Charterparty.*—Where the ship is chartered, this instrument serves to authenticate the facts on which the truth of her neutrality must rest, and should therefore be produced on board chartered ships.

5. *The Bills of Lading.*—By these the captain acknowledges the receipt of the goods shipped therein, and promises to deliver them to the consignee or his order. Of these there are usually several duplicates; one of which is kept by the captain, one by the shipper of the goods, and one transmitted to the consignee. This instrument, being only the evidence of a private transaction between the owner of the goods and the captain, does not carry with it the degree of authenticity as the charterparty.

6. *The Invoices.*—These contain the particulars and prices of each parcel of goods, with the amount of the freight, duties, and other charges thereon, which are usually transmitted from the shippers to their factors or consignees. These invoices prove by whom the goods were shipped, and to whom consigned. They carry with them, however, but little authenticity, being easily fabricated where fraud is intended.

...account of the ship... this be faithfully kept...
 ...that the ship comes... of the crew, at the time... rally found on board... plague so frequently...
 ...Marshall on Insurance...
 ...Rus. Baychmaki... require no description... sort of shoes is made in... (Northamptonshire and... from Nantwich, Con... tor for shoes generally... value of the shoes and...
 ...Rouze, Rouz; It. Sm... (Spartaria) is a shrub that... is cultivated in Italy... is cultivated with great... being dried, they are... purposes of dyeing and... is called *redout*... is strong, colour of... used in dyeing a full... colour is fugitive. Com... and is also capable of...

Climate of Sierra Leone.—The soil in the vicinity of Sierra Leone seems to be but of indifferent fertility, and the climate is about the most destructive that can be imagined. The mortality among the Africans sent to it seems unusually great; and amongst the whites it is quite excessive. Much as we desire the improvement of the blacks, we protest against its being attempted by sending our countrymen to certain destruction in this most pestiferous of all pestiferous places. It would seem, too, that it is quite unnecessary, and that instructed blacks may be advantageously employed to fill the official situations in the colony. But if otherwise, it ought to be unconditionally abandoned.

Commerce of Sierra Leone, and the West Coast of Africa.—Commercially considered, Sierra Leone appears to quite as little advantage as in other points of view. We import from it teak wood, camwood, ivory, palm oil, hides, gums, and a few other articles; but their value is inconsiderable, amounting to not more than from 40,000*l.* to 60,000*l.* a year. The great article of import from the coast of Africa is palm oil, and of this more than fifty times as much is imported from the coast to the south of the Rio Volta, several hundred miles from Sierra Leone, as from the latter. We doubt, indeed, whether the commerce with the western coast of Africa will ever be of much importance. The condition of the natives would require to be very much changed before they can become considerable consumers of European manufactures. It is singular, that speculative persons in this country should be so much bent on prosecuting, without regard to expense, a trade with barbarous uncivilised peoples, while they contribute to the neglect or oppression of the incomparably more extensive and beneficial intercourse we might carry on with the opulent and civilised nations in our immediate vicinity. The equalisation of the duties on Canadian and Baltic timber, and the abolition of the existing restraints on the trade with France, would do 10 times more to extend our commerce, than the discovery of 50 navigable rivers, and the possession of as many ports on the African coast. If, however, an establishment be really required for the advantageous prosecution of the trade to Western Africa, it is abundantly obvious that it should be placed much further to the south than Sierra Leone. The island of Fernando Po has been suggested for this purpose; but after the dear-bought experience we have already had, it is to be hoped that nothing will be done with respect to it without mature consideration.

Imports into the United Kingdom in 1829 from the Western Coast of Africa, distinguishing their Quantities and Values.

Articles imported.	Quantities imported.				Official Value of Imports.				Total.	
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurado.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurado to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, within the Jurisdiction of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurado.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurado to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, within the Jurisdiction of Fernando Po.		
Gold - lbs	1,827	-	-	6,768	22 18	-	-	-	22 18	6,790
Silver - lbs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Iron, cast, gr. lb.	-	-	-	246 15 2 13	-	-	-	-	9,571 4	9,571 4
Cannon	-	-	-	15 18 0 18	825 14	-	-	-	127 8	952 10
Lead, cast, gr. lb.	103 4 1 9	-	-	12 4 8 30	-	-	-	-	201 17	301 17
Lead, refined, gr. lb.	-	-	-	8 1 9 15	-	-	-	-	125 16	125 16
Beeswax, gr. lb.	318 8 24	-	686 9 6	1,238 2 22	1,912 8	-	5,820 18	7,439 8	15,485 8	15,485 8
Wax, gr. lb.	6,007	-	5,302	-	191 7	-	77 8	-	268 16	6,275 16
Resin, gr. lb.	15,576	-	380	423	824 0	-	23 11	-	17 18	8,695 0
Oil, castor, gr. lb.	8,687 1 8	-	-	-	5,498 0	-	-	-	-	5,498 0
Oil, palm, gr. lb.	3,836 9 95	400 0 0	7,001 8 18	169,556 3 7	11,101 12	-	400 0	7,001 13	169,556 16	173,357 17
Oil, olive, gr. lb.	8,963 1 15	-	-	-	2,963 7	-	-	-	-	2,963 7
Wool, gr. lb.	617 1 21	0 9 8	-	-	8,608 8	8 10	-	-	-	8,608 18
Wool, gr. lb.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wool, gr. lb.	10,015 28	-	-	-	10,207 16	-	-	-	-	10,207 15
Wool, gr. lb.	4,510 1 19	-	-	64 8 0	21,496 11	-	-	-	306 7	21,792 19
Wool, gr. lb.	-	-	-	-	767 12	1 8	464 4	614 8	1,447 8	1,447 8
Wool, gr. lb.	-	-	-	-	58,107 15	403 15	11,387 12	178,874 8	238,673 6	238,673 6

II. Exports of British Produce and Manufactures from the United Kingdom, in 1829, to the Western Coast of Africa, distinguishing their Quantities and Values.

Articles exported.	Quantities exported.				Official Value of Exports.				Total.
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurado.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurado to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Island of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurado.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurado to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta.	
	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	L. s.	
Apparel and slope of Brass and copper	328 9 0	10 0 0	77 9 0	242 0 7	7,178 14	10 0	870 8	1,203 11	9,362
Cottons, entered by the yard, yards	556,187	219,494	651,908	631,961	41,501 18	6,961 0	40,049 6	1,169 10	50,062
Hosiery, laces, and small wares	-	-	-	-	218 15	-	-	-	218
Glass and earthenware	-	-	-	-	878 11	19 16	199 7	601 16	1,066
Cans and pistols	21,151	2,960	14,555	37,975	15,783 5	2,323 0	10,035 15	28,448 6	57,400
Gunpowder	357,004	25,000	220,400	1,548,360	10,802 18	756 4	6,960 0	49,508 0	65,241
Hardware and cutlery	420 0 0	2 0 0	43 9 0	1,194 2 20	1,187 1	6 10	119 18	3,865 7	4,987
Iron, wrought and unwrought	527 18 0 17	20 0 0	151 8 8 6	1,157 12 0 6	6,647 10	310 8	2,900 11	11,064 16	22,762
Lead and shot	8 2 8 0	4 7 0 0	35 3 0 0	4 5 0 0	85 76	47 13	200 1	46 10	182
Leather, wrought and wrought	-	-	-	-	773 19	-	174 8	-	947
Linens	36,502	-	5,518	1,868	1,796 17	-	178 0	70 10	2,074
Salt	34,440	-	-	141,700	1,373 16	-	-	4,723 6	6,096
Soap and candles	600 3 8 1	-	30 9 26	270 0 18	1,785 10	-	60 4	810 8	2,655
Stationery of all sorts	-	-	-	-	538 9	-	44 10	-	582
Sugar, refined	190 1 2	-	14 9 22	261 3 3	490 11	-	41 9	478 14	1,110
Swords and cutlasses	16,128	-	400	12,162	4,046 5	-	300 0	5,040 10	7,188
Wood, viz.—	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Slaves and casks	170	200	1,255	10,747	118 0	50 0	766 13	7,164 18	8,084
Woollens, entered by the piece	196	3	228	40	284 3	13 10	435 0	180 0	1,142
Woollens, entered by the yard, yards	800	-	80	650	53 10	-	6 0	48 11	107
Hosiery and small wares	-	-	-	-	151 19	0 0	60 6	1,203 10	1,514
All other articles	-	-	-	-	7,568 19	133 4	2,096 3	1,546 7	11,347
					107,688 13	13,488 3	95,791 19	184,211 11	301,382

Exclusive of the above, we exported, in 1829, to the western coast of Africa, 161,431 worth of foreign and colonial merchandise; of this amount, 43,550*l.* worth went to the coast south of the Rio Volta.

Expenses incurred on account of Sierra Leone.—The pecuniary expense occasioned by this colony, and our unsuccessful efforts to suppress the foreign slave trade, have been altogether enormous. Mr. Keith Douglas is reported to have stated, in his place in the House of Commons, in July, 1831, that “down to the year 1824, the *civil* expenses of Sierra Leone amounted to 2,268,000*l.*; and that the same expenses had amounted, from 1824 to 1830, to 1,082,000*l.* The naval expenses, from 1807 to 1824, had been 1,630,000*l.* The payments to Spain and Portugal, to induce them to relinquish the slave trade, amounted to 2,330,000*l.* The expenses on account of captured slaves were 533,092*l.* The expenses incurred on account of the mixed commission courts were 198,000*l.* Altogether, this establishment has cost the country nearly 8,000,000*l.*

The prodigality of this expenditure is unmatched, except by its uselessness. It is doubtful whether it has prevented a single African from being dragged into slavery, or conferred the smallest real advantage on Africa. The kings of Spain and Portugal have certainly turned their spurious humanity to pretty good account. We hope there is now, at least, an end of all attempts to bribe such monarchs to respect the rights of humanity, or the trade into which they have entered.

For further deaths with respect to Sierra Leone, and the trade of Western Africa, see the *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons*, No. 661. Sess. 1830.

SILK (Lat. *Sericum*, from *Seres*, the supposed ancient name of the Chinese), a fine glassy thread or filament spun by various species of caterpillars or larvae of the *phalæna* genus. Of these, the *Phalæna atlas* produces the greatest quantity: but the *Phalæna bombyx* is the commonly employed for this purpose in Europe. The silkworm, in its caterpillar state, which may be considered as the first stage of its existence, after acquiring its full growth (about inches in length), proceeds to enclose itself in an oval-shaped hull, or cocoon, which is formed by an exceedingly slender and long filament of fine yellow silk, omitted from the stomach of the insect preparatory to its assuming the shape of the chrysalis or moth. In this last stage, after emancipating itself from its silken prison, it seeks its mate, which has undergone a similar transformation; and in 2 or 3 days afterwards, the female having deposited her eggs (from 300 to 500 in number), both insects terminate their existence. According to Reaumur, the *phalæna* is not the only insect that affords this material,—several species of *Aranea*, or spider, enclose their eggs in very fine silk.

Raw Silk is produced by the operation of winding off, at the same time, several of the

balls or cocoons (usually) on a common axis from the ends of the threads, in order to enable it to be converted into single (a collection of these threads) to give it strength.

It is formed in weaving, as the *Thrown Silk* is twisted together in the same way. This is an operation of throwing which gives it its strength gained from the several threads united into a cord to be very

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670	8	1,500	11	2,170
840	7	1,102	10	1,942
40,040	0	61,000	0	101,040
150	7	421	0	571
10,351	15	28,556	0	38,907
6,960	0	40,420	0	47,380
110	12	8,866	7	8,976
2,200	0	11,864	10	14,064
360	1	46	0	406
174	0	0	0	174
178	0	70	10	248
4	0	4,723	0	4,727
80	4	810	0	890
44	10	0	0	44
41	0	478	11	519
100	0	5,010	10	5,110
750	13	7,164	10	7,914
435	0	100	0	535
2	0	40	11	42
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of cocoons (which are immersed in hot water, to soften the natural gum on the fila-
ment) on a common reel, thereby forming one smooth even thread. When the skein is dry,
it is taken from the reel and made up into hanks; but before it is fit for weaving, and in
order to enable it to undergo the process of dyeing, without furring up or separating the fibres,
it is converted into one of three forms; viz. *singles*, *tram*, or *organzine*.

Singles (a collective noun) is formed of one of the reeled threads, being twisted, in order
to give it strength and firmness.

Tram is formed of 2 or more threads twisted together. In this state it is commonly used
in weaving, as the *shoot* or *welt*.

Thrown Silk is formed of 2, 3, or more singles, according to the substance required, being
twisted together in a *contrary* direction to that in which the singles of which it is composed
are twisted. This process is termed *organzining*; and the silk so twisted, *organzine*. The
art of throwing was originally confined to Italy, where it was kept a secret for a long period.

It was first known in this country since the 5th of Queen Elizabeth, "when it was
brought from the strangers;" and in that year (1562), the silk throwsters of the metropolis
were united into a fellowship. They were incorporated in the year 1629; but the art con-
sidered to be very imperfect in England until 1719.—(See *post*.)

1. *Historical Sketch of the Manufacture*.—The art of rearing silkworms, of unravelling
the threads spun by them, and manufacturing the latter into articles of dress and ornament,
seems to have been first practised by the Chinese. Virgil is the earliest of the Roman
writers who has been supposed to allude to the production of silk in China, and the terms he
employs show how little was then known at Rome as to the real nature of the article:—

Veteraque ut follie depectant tenuia Seres.—(Georg. book ii. lin. 121.)

But it may be doubted whether Virgil does not, in this line, refer to cotton rather than silk,
Pliny, however, has distinctly described the formation of silk by the *bombyx*.—(Hist. Nat.
lib. ii. c. 17.) It is uncertain when it first began to be introduced at Rome: but it was most
probably in the age of Pompey and Julius Cæsar; the latter of whom displayed a profusion
of silks in some of the magnificent theatrical spectacles with which he sought at once to con-
ciliate and amuse the people. Owing principally, no doubt, to the great distance of China
from Rome, and to the difficulties in the way of the intercourse with that country, which was
carried on by land in caravans whose route lay through the Persian empire, and partly, per-
haps, to the high price of silk in China, its cost, when it arrived at Rome, was very great;

so much so, that a given weight of silk was sometimes sold for an equal weight of gold! At
first it was only used by a few ladies eminent for their rank and opulence. In the beginning
of the reign of Tiberius, a law was passed, *ne vestis serica viros fœdaret*—that no man
should disgrace himself by wearing a silken garment.—(Tacit. Annal. lib. ii. c. 33.) But
the profligate Helio-gabalus despised this law, and was the first of the Roman emperors who
wore a dress composed wholly of silk (*holosericum*). The example once set, the custom of
wearing silk soon became general among the wealthy citizens of Rome, and throughout the
provinces. According as the demand for the article increased, efforts were made to import
larger quantities; and the price seems to have progressively declined from the reign of Aure-
lian. That this must have been the case, is obvious from the statement of Ammianus Marcel-
linus, that silk was, in his time (anno 370), very generally worn, even by the lowest classes.

Sericum ad usum antehac nobilium, nunc etiam infirmorum sine ulla discretione proficiens.

—(Lib. xviii. c. 6.)

China continued to draw considerable sums from the Roman empire in return for silk, now
become indispensable to the Western World, till the 6th century. About the year 550, two
Persian monks, who had long resided in China, and made themselves acquainted with the
mode of rearing the silkworm, encouraged by the gifts and promises of Justinian, succeeded
in carrying the eggs of the insect to Constantinople. Under their direction they were hatched
and fed; they lived and laboured in a foreign climate; a sufficient number of butterflies was
bred to propagate the race, and mulberry trees were planted to afford nourishment to the
rising generations. A new and important branch of industry was thus established in Europe.

Experience and reflection gradually corrected the errors of a new attempt; and the Sogdiano
ambassadors acknowledged, in the succeeding reign, that the Romans were not inferior to
the natives of China in the education of the insects, and the manufacture of silk.—(Gibbon, De-
cline and Fall, vol. vii. p. 99.)

Greece, particularly the Peloponnesus, was early distinguished by the rearing of silkworms,
and by the skill and success with which the inhabitants of Thebes, Corinth, and Argos carried
on the manufacture. Until the 12th century, Greece continued to be the only European
country in which these arts were practised: but the forces of Roger, king of Sicily, having,
in 1147, sacked Corinth, Athens, and Thebes, carried off large numbers of the inhabitants to
Palermo; who introduced the culture of the worm, and the manufacture of silk, into Sicily.

From this island the arts spread into Italy; and Venice, Milan, Florence, Lucca, &c. were
soon after distinguished for their success in raising silkworms, and for the extent and beauty
of their manufactures of silk.—(Gibbon, vol. x. p. 110.; Biographie Universelle, art
Roger II.)

The silk manufacture was introduced into France in 1480; Louis XI. having invited workmen from Italy, who established themselves at Tours. The manufacture was not begun at Lyons till about 1520; when Francis I., having got possession of Milan, prevailed on some artisans of the latter city to establish themselves, under his protection, in the former. Nearly at the same period the rearing of silkworms began to be successfully prosecuted in Provence, and other provinces of the south of France. Henry IV. rewarded such of the early manufacturers as had supported and pursued the trade for 12 years, with patents of nobility.

Silk Manufacture of England.—The manufacture seems to have been introduced into England in the 15th century. Silk had, however, been used by persons of distinction two centuries previously. The manufacture does not appear to have made much progress till the age of Elizabeth; the tranquillity of whose long reign, and the influx of Flemings occasioned by the disturbances in the Low Countries, gave a powerful stimulus to the manufactures of England. The silk throwsters of the metropolis were united, as already observed, in a fellowship, in 1562; and were incorporated in 1629. Though retarded by the civil wars, the manufacture continued gradually to advance; and so flourishing had it become, that it is stated in a preamble to a statute passed in 1666 (13 & 14 Cha. 2. c. 15.), that there were at that time no fewer than 40,000 individuals engaged in the trade! And it is of importance to observe, that though the importation of French and other foreign silks was occasionally prohibited during the reigns of James I. and Charles I., the Protectorate, and the reign of Charles II., the prohibition was not strictly enforced; and, generally speaking, their importation was quite free.

A considerable stimulus, though not nearly so great as has been commonly supposed, was given to the English silk manufacture by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685. Louis XIV. drove, by that disgraceful measure, several hundreds of thousands of his most industrious subjects to seek an asylum in foreign countries; of whom it is supposed about 50,000 came to England. Such of these refugees as had been engaged in the silk manufacture established themselves in Spitalfields, where they introduced several new branches of the art. When the refugees fled to England, foreign silks were freely admitted; and it appears from the Custom-house returns, that from 600,000*l.* to 700,000*l.* worth were annually imported in the period from 1685 to 1692, being the very period during which the British silk manufacture made the most rapid advances. But the manufacture was not long permitted to continue on this footing. In 1692, the refugees, who seem to have been quite as conversant with the arts of monopoly as with those either of spinning or weaving, obtained a patent, giving them an exclusive right to manufacture lustrings and *a-la-modes*,—the silks then in greatest demand. This, however, was not enough to satisfy them; for, in 1697, Parliament passed an act, in compliance with their solicitations, prohibiting the importation of all French and other European silk goods; and, in 1701, the prohibition was extended to the silk goods of India and China.

These facts show the utter fallacy of the opinion so generally entertained, that we owe the introduction and establishment of the silk manufacture to the prohibitive system. So far from this being the case, it is proved, by statements in numerous acts of parliament, and other authentic documents, that the silk manufacture had overcome all the difficulties incident to its first establishment, had been firmly rooted, and had become of great value and importance, long before it was subjected to the trammels of monopoly; that is, before the manufacturers were taught to trust more to fiscal regulations, and the exertions of Custom-house officers, than to their skill and ingenuity, for the sale of their goods.

The year 1719 is an important epoch in the history of the British silk manufacture; a patent being then granted to Mr. (afterwards Sir Thomas) Lombe and his brother, for the exclusive property of the famous silk mill erected by them at Derby, for throwing silk, from models they had clandestinely obtained in Italy. At the expiration of the patent, Parliament refused the prayer of a petition of Sir Thomas Lombe for its renewal; but granted him 14,000*l.* in consideration of the services he had rendered the country, in erecting a machine which, it was supposed, would very soon enable us to dispense wholly with the supplies of thrown silk we had previously been in the habit of importing from Italy: but instead of being of any advantage, it is most certainly true that the establishment of throwing mills in England has proved one of the most formidable obstacles to the extension of the manufacture amongst us. These mills could not have been constructed unless oppressive duties had been laid on thrown or organzine silk; and the circumstance of their having been erected, and a large amount of capital vested in them, was successfully urged for more than a century, as a conclusive reason for continuing the high duties!

From this period down to 1824 the history of the silk manufacture presents little more than complaints, on the part of the manufacturers, of the importation of foreign silks; impotent efforts on the part of parliament to exclude them; and combinations and outrages on the part of the workmen. Of the multitude of acts that have been passed in reference to this manufacture, from 1697 to the era of Mr. Huskisson, we believe it would be exceedingly difficult to point out one that is bottomed on any thing like a sound principle, or that was productive of any but mischievous consequences. The French writers estimate the average

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exportation of silks from France to England, during the period from 1688 to 1741, at about 14,500,000 francs, or 500,000*l.* a year! In 1763, attempts were made to check the prevalence of smuggling; and the silk mercers of the metropolis, to show their anxiety to forward the scheme, are said to have recalled their orders for foreign goods! It would seem, however, either that their patriotic ardour had very soon cooled, or that they had been supplanted by others not quite so scrupulous; for it appears from a report of a committee of the privy council, appointed, in 1766, to inquire into the subject, that smuggling was then carried on to greater extent than ever, and that 7,072 looms were out of employment. The same committee reported, that though the French were decidedly superior to us in some branches of the trade, we were quite equal, and even superior to them in others; but instead of proposing, consistently with their report, to admit French silks on a reasonable duty,—a measure which would have proved very advantageous to those branches of the manufacture in which we were superior, or nearly equal, to the French, without doing any material injury to the others, which were already in the most depressed condition,—they recommended the continuance of the old system; substituting absolute prohibitions in the place of the prohibitory duties that formerly existed! Whatever immediate advantages the manufacturers might have reaped from this measure, the ultimate tendency of which could not fall of being most injurious, were effectually counteracted by the turbulent proceedings of the workmen, who succeeded, in 1773, in obtaining from the legislature an act which, by itself, was quite sufficient to have destroyed even a prosperous trade. This, which has been commonly called the Spitalfields Act, entitled the weavers of Middlesex to demand a fixed price for their labour, which should be settled by the magistrates; and while both masters and men were restricted from giving or receiving more or less than the fixed price, the manufacturers were liable in heavy penalties if they employed weavers out of the district! The monopoly which the manufacturers had hitherto enjoyed, though incomplete, had had sufficient influence to render inventions and discoveries of comparatively rare occurrence in the silk trade; but the Spitalfields Act extinguished every germ of improvement. Parliament, in its wisdom, having seen fit to enact that a manufacturer should be obliged to pay as much for work done by the best machinery as if it were done by hand, it would have been folly to have thought of attempting any thing new! It is not, however, to be denied that Macclesfield, Manchester, Norwich, Paisley, &c. are under obligations to this act. Had it extended to the whole kingdom, it would have totally extirpated the manufacture; but being confined to Middlesex, it gradually drove the most valuable branches from Spitalfields to places where the rate of wages was determined by the competition of the parties, on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. After having done incalculable mischief, the act was repealed in 1824. Had it continued down to the present day, it would not have left employment in the metropolis for a single silk weaver.

But, as the effects of this act did not immediately manifest themselves, it was at first exceedingly popular. About 1785, however, the substitution of cottons in the place of silk gave a severe check to the manufacture, and the weavers then began to discover the real nature of the Spitalfields Act. Being interdicted from working at reduced wages, they were totally thrown out of employment; so that, in 1793, upwards of 4,000 Spitalfield looms were quite idle. In 1798, the trade began to revive; and continued to extend slowly till 1815 and 1816, when the Spitalfields weavers were again involved in sufferings far more extensive and severe than at any former period.

It appears from this brief sketch of the progress of the English silk trade, that from the year 1695, down to our own times, it has been exposed to the most appalling vicissitudes. The reason is obvious. The monopoly enjoyed by the manufacturers, and the Spitalfields Act, effectually put a stop to all improvement; so that the manufacture continued stationary in England, while on the Continent it was rapidly advancing. Whenever, therefore, the markets were, either from the miscalculation of the manufacturers, or a change of fashion, over-loaded with silks, there were no means of disposing of the surplus profitably abroad, and the distress became extreme. Notwithstanding the unparalleled advances we had made in other departments of manufacturing industry, it was affirmed, in 1826, by the member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice), in his place in the House of Commons, "that there were in that city 9,700 looms; 7,500 of which were in the hands of operative weavers, who applied their manual labour, as well as their machinery, to the manufacture of ribands. These looms were, for the most part, of the *worst possible construction*; and it would scarcely be believed that the improved loom in France would, in a given time, produce 5 times as much riband as the common loom in England with the same manual labour! He could also state that there existed an improved manufacture in Germany, by which one man could make *forty-eight times as much velvet as could be made in an equal time by an English machine*. What chance was there that the English manufacturer could maintain such a competition?"

Perhaps these statements may be somewhat exaggerated; but there can be no doubt that they are substantially well founded. Surely, however, no one believes that the inferiority of the machinery used by the English manufacturers is to be ascribed to any thing except that the protection they enjoyed had made them indifferent to improvements. No one believes

that the French or Germans are superior to the English in the construction of machines; on the contrary, their inferiority is admitted by themselves, and by everybody else. That their spirit of invention, which has effected such astonishing results in the cotton manufacture, should have been wholly unknown in that of silk, is entirely to be ascribed to the fact of the former never having been the object of legislative protection. The cotton manufacturers were not bribed into the adoption of a routine system; they could not rest satisfied with mediocrity; but being compelled to put forth all their powers—to avail themselves of every resource of science and of art—they have, in a few years, raised the British cotton manufacture from a subordinate and trifling, to the very first place amongst the manufactures, not of this country only, but of the world!

Change, in 1826, of the Monopoly System.—At length, however, the impolicy of the system by which the silk manufacture had been so long depressed, became obvious to every intelligent individual. The principal manufacturers in and about London subscribed, in 1824, a petition to the House of Commons, in which they stated that “this important manufacture, through recently considerably extended, is still depressed below its natural level, by laws which prevent it from attaining that degree of prosperity which, under more favourable circumstances, it would acquire.” Fortified by this authority, by the experience of 130 years, during which the prohibitive system had been allowed to paralysed the energies of the manufacturers, and by the sanction of parliamentary committees, Mr. Huskisson moved, on the 8th of March, 1824, that the prohibition of foreign silks should cease on the 5th of July, 1826, and that they should then be admitted for importation on payment of a duty of 30 per cent. *ad valorem*. On this occasion Mr. H. observed—“The monopoly had produced, what monopoly was always sure to produce, an indifference with regard to improvement. That useful zeal which gives life to industry, which fosters ingenuity, and which in manufactures occasions unceasing efforts to produce the article in the most economical form, had been comparatively extinguished. To the prohibitive system it was to be ascribed, that in silk only, in the whole range of manufactures, we were left behind our neighbours! We have here a proof of that chilling and benumbing effect which is sure to be produced when no genius is called into action, and when we are rendered indifferent to exertion by the indolent security derived from restrictive regulations. I have not the slightest doubt, that if the same system had been continued with respect to the cotton manufacture, it would have been at this moment as subordinate in amount to the woollen as it is junior in its introduction into the country.”—(*Speeches*, vol. ii. p. 249.)

We have already alluded to the enormous duties imposed, in 1719, when Sir Thomas Lombe erected his throwing mill at Derby, on foreign organzine silk. These, though subsequently reduced, amounted, in 1824, to no less than 14s. 7½d. per lb. There was also, at the same time, a duty of 4s. per lb. on raw silk imported from Bengal, and of 5s. 7½d. per lb. on that imported from other places. Even had the manufacture been otherwise in a flourishing condition, such exorbitant duties on the raw material were enough to have destroyed it. Mr. Huskisson, therefore, proposed, by way of preparing the manufacturers for the approaching change of system, that the duty on foreign thrown silk should be immediately reduced to 7s. 6d. (it was further reduced to 5s. in 1826), and the duty on raw silk to 3d. per lb. These proposals were all agreed to; and considerable reductions were at the same time effected in the duties charged on most of the dye stuffs used in the manufacture.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Huskisson did not propose that the reduction of the duties on raw and thrown silk, and the legalised importation of foreign silks, should be simultaneous and immediate. During the interval that was allowed our manufacturers to make preparations for the change, the French had been accumulating a large stock of goods to pour into our markets. To quiet the alarm occasioned by this circumstance, a singular device was fallen upon.—The French had long been accustomed to manufacture their goods of a certain length: and, in the view of rendering their accumulated stock unfit for our markets, a law was passed in 1826, prohibiting the importation of any silks except such as were of entirely different lengths from those commonly manufactured by the French! No one can regret that this wretched trick, for it deserves no better name, entirely failed of its object. The French manufacturers immediately commenced, with redoubled zeal, the preparation of goods of the legitimate length: and the others having become unsaleable at any thing like fair prices, were purchased up by the smugglers, and imported, almost entirely, into this country.

But no permanent injury arose from this circumstance; and, on the whole, the effect of the opening of the trade has been such as to justify all the anticipations which the advocates of the measure had formed of its success.

Effects of the Change of 1826.—We do not exaggerate, we only state the plain matter of fact, when we affirm that the silk manufacture has made a more rapid progress during the last 8 years, or since the abolition of the prohibitive system in 1826, than it did during the preceding century. So unprecedented has been its advance, that “the once existing disparity in quality between goods of French and English make has, with some very unimportant exceptions, not merely disappeared, but actually ranged itself on the side of the British artisan.” Some of our readers will, probably, be not a little surprised to learn, that

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the real or declared value of the silk goods of British manufacture exported to France, in 1832, amounted to 75,187*l*.

Most of the machines and processes known on the Continent have been introduced amongst us, and many of them have been materially improved. Nor, after what has taken place, can the least doubt remain in the mind of any one, that had the same freedom been given to the silk manufacture 50 years ago, that was given to it in 1828, it would now have ranked among the most important and valuable businesses in the kingdom, and would have had nothing whatever to fear from the admission of foreign silks, free of duty. It is the opinion of the most intelligent persons in the trade, that the existing duty of 30 per cent. on foreign silks ought to be reduced to 20 per cent.; and that it should be further reduced 1 per cent. per annum till brought to 12 or 15 per cent., at which it might be allowed to continue stationary, not as a protecting duty, but as a duty imposed for the sake of revenue. A measure of this sort, by increasing *fair* competition, would continue the impulse already given to the manufacture, and excite to new efforts of invention. Under such a system, we are well assured that, in a very few years, perhaps not more than 5 or 6, our superiority over France in some important departments of the silk manufacture would be little less decided than in that of cotton.

"I maintain," said Mr. Poulett Thomson, in his excellent speech on the state of the silk trade (14th of April, 1829),—a speech equally distinguished for soundness of principle and beauty of illustration,—“I maintain, without fear of contradiction, that the very essence of commercial and manufacturing industry is freedom from legislative interference and legislative protection. Attempt to assist its course by legislative enactments, by fostering care, you arrest its progress, you destroy its vigour. Unbind the shackles in which your unwise tenderness has confined it—permit it to take unrestrained its own course—expose it to the wholesome breezes of competition,—you give it new life, you restore its former vigour. Industry has been well likened to the hardy Alpine plant; self-sown on the mountain side, exposed to the inclemency of the season, it gathers strength in its struggles for existence—it shoots forth in vigour and in beauty. Transplanted to the rich soil of the parterre, tended by the fostering hand of the gardener, nursed in the artificial atmosphere of the forcing-glass, it grows sickly and enervated, its shoots are vigourless, its flowers inodorous. In one single word lies the soul of industry—competition. The answer of the statesman and the economist to his sovereign inquiring what he could do to assist the industry of his kingdom was, ‘Let it take its own way.’ Such is my prayer. Relieve us from the chains in which your indolent tenderness has shackled us; remove your oppressive protection; give us the fair field we ask; and we demand no more. The talent, the genius, the enterprise, the capital, the industry of this great people will do the rest; and England will not only retain her present position, but she will take a yet more forward place in the race of competition for wealth and improvement which, by the nature of things, she is destined to run amongst the nations of the world. Place us in that condition, not by any violent change, but by slow and easy transition. Here we shall find security for our enterprise, and reward for our labours.

“*Hic patet ingens campus; certusque merenti
Sint favor; ornatur propriis industria donis.*”

It was not, however, to be supposed, that all departments of the silk manufacture would be equally benefited by the change of system that has taken place.—*Non omnium possumus.* The probability is, that the trade will in future be divided between the English and French. In point of substantial excellence, the plain silk goods manufactured in England are superior to those of France; and the difference in favour of the latter in point of *finish* is every day becoming less perceptible; while in all mixed manufactures, of silk and wool, silk and cotton, silk and linen, &c., our ascendancy is admitted by the French themselves. On the other hand, the ribands, figured gauzes, and light fancy goods, manufactured in France, are superior to those of this country. Even in this department we have made a very great progress; and fancy goods are now produced at Spitalfields, Coventry, and other places, contrasting most advantageously, in point of taste and beauty, with those produced previously to the introduction of the new system. Still, however, we are not sanguine in our expectations of our countrymen being able to maintain a successful competition with our neighbours in the manufacture of this class of articles. The greater attention paid to the art of designing in Lyons, the consequent better taste of the artists, and the superior brightness and lustre of their colours, give them advantages with which it will be very difficult to contend.

But, supposing that the trade is partitioned between the two countries in the way now stated, it is easy to see that the best share will belong to us, and that that share will be incomparably more valuable than the whole manufacture formerly was. The proofs of the accuracy of this statement are at hand. Notwithstanding the decline of the trade at Coventry and a few other places, the manufacture, taken as a whole, is rapidly increasing. During 1822 and 1823, when the restrictive system was in its vigour, the entries for consumption of all sorts of raw and thrown silk amounted at an average to 2,454,842 lbs. a year. But, in despite of all the sinister predictions indulged in with respect to the ruin of the manufacture, the entries amounted, at an average of 1832 and 1833, to 4,565,850 lbs.; being an increase of nearly 100 per cent. upon the quantity entered during the monopoly!

The increase in the exports of wrought silks affords, if possible, a still more decisive proof of the extraordinary improvement and extension of the manufacture. Instead of having any thing to fear from the competition of the French at home, we are actually underselling them in the heavier and more important species of goods, in every foreign market equally accessible to both parties. The exports of silks from France have been declining, while those from England have been increasing beyond all precedent. The declared value of our exports of silk goods, in 1823, amounted to 351,409*l.*, whereas in 1833 it amounted to 740,294*l.*, being an advance of more than cent. per cent.! Not only, therefore, are the statements as to the ruin of the silk manufacture proved to be wholly without even the shadow of a foundation, but the expectations of those who contended that the repeal of the restrictive system would be the commencement of a new era of invention and improvement, have been realised to the fullest extent.

What has now been stated renders it obvious, that though the manufacturers of fancy goods may be obliged to change their employment, a new, and at the same time a more extensive and fruitful, field is opened for their exertions. We lament the hardships incident to the transition even from one department of the same business to another, but the suffering thence arising will speedily disappear; and when the change has been effected, the manufacturers will enter with fresh vigour on a new career of prosperity.

It is to be regretted, that it is not possible either to abandon a routine system, or to introduce new and improved methods of production, without injury to individuals. But because such is the fact—because the bridge cannot be built without displacing watermen, nor the plough introduced without superseding the spade, nor wine brought from abroad without diminishing the demand for ale and beer—is that any reason for proscribing inventions, and denying ourselves gratifications within our reach? To maintain the affirmative, would be evidently absurd,—it would be equivalent to maintaining that the interests of society are best promoted by perpetuating poverty, ignorance, and barbarism! The injury occasioned by the adoption of an improved method of production, or the opening of new markets whence cheaper supplies of any article may be obtained, is temporary only, and affects but a very small portion of the community; while the advantage is permanent, and benefits every individual, even those whom it may, in the first instance, have forced to resort to other businesses.

Those unacquainted with the history of the silk trade, who may have looked into the pamphlets and speeches of those opposed to the late alterations, will probably be disposed to think that, though more limited in point of numbers, the condition of the workmen engaged in the trade was better previously to 1825 than it has been since. But those who have looked, however cursorily, into the history of the trade, must know that such is not the fact; and that, speaking generally, the situation of those engaged in it has been materially improved since 1825. We have already adverted to the state of the trade in 1793 and 1816. At the last mentioned period, 7 years before any relaxation of the monopoly had been so much as thought of, the distress in the silk trade was infinitely more severe than it has ever been since the introduction of the new system. In proof of this, we may mention that, at a public meeting held for the relief of the Spitalfields weavers, at the Mansion-house, on the 26th of November, 1816, the secretary stated, that *two-thirds* of them were without employment, and without the means of support; "that some had deserted their houses in despair, unable to endure the sight of their starving families; and many pined under languishing diseases brought on by the want of food and clothing." And Mr. Fowell Buxton, M. P., stated, at the same meeting, that the distress among the silk manufacturers was so intense, that "*if partook of the nature of a pestilence, which spreads its contagion around, and devastates an entire district.*" Such was the state of the workmen under that monopoly system that has been the worthless theme of so much recent eulogy. But such, we are glad to say, is not their state at present. The trade, being now mostly diverted into those branches in which we have a superiority, is comparatively secure against revulsions; and it would be an absurdity to imagine, that measures that have about doubled the manufacture, should have reduced the rate of wages, or been otherwise than advantageous to the workmen.

We have already noticed the smuggling of foreign silks carried on in the early part and towards the middle of last century. The evil was not afterwards abated. The vigilance of the Custom-house officer was no match for the ingenuity of the smuggler; and at the very moment when the most strenuous efforts were made to exclude them, the silks of France and Hindostan were openly displayed in the drawing-rooms of St. James's, and in the House of Commons, in mockery of the impotent legislation which sought to exclude them. We doubt, indeed, whether the substitution of the *ad valorem* duty of 30 per cent., in place of the old system of prohibition, has been productive of any materially increased importation of foreign silks. "I have lately," said Mr. Huskisson, in his famous speech in vindication of his policy as to the silk trade, "taken some pains to ascertain the quantity of smuggled silks that has been seized inland throughout the kingdom during the last 10 years: and I find that the whole does not exceed 5,000*l.* a year. I have endeavoured, on the other hand, to get an account of the quantity of silk goods actually smuggled into this country. Any estimate

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1781 to 1782
1783 to 1784

II. Account of
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Parl. Papers

Year	Value
1814	1,504
1815	1,069
1816	873
1817	1,183
1818	1,444
1819	1,468
1820	1,421
1821	1,861
1822	1,984
1823	2,051
1824	2,474
1825	2,448
1826	2,410
1827	2,410
1828	2,410
1829	2,410
1830	2,410
1831	2,410
1832	2,410
1833	2,410

of this quantity must be very vague; but I have been given to understand that the value of such goods as are regularly entered at the Custom-houses of France, for exportation to this country, is from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.* a year; and this, of course, is exclusive of the *far greater supply* which is poured in throughout all the channels of smuggling, without being subjected to any entry. In fact, to such an extent is this illicit trade carried, that there is scarcely a haberdasher's shop in the smallest village of the United Kingdom, in which prohibited silks are not sold; and that in the face of duty, and to a very considerable extent.

The honourable member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice) has mentioned the silk goods from India as those against which any thing but prohibition would prove an unavailing protection. Now, in my opinion, it is scarcely possible to conceive a stronger case than those very silks furnish against the honourable member's own argument. I believe it is universally known that a large quantity of Bandana handkerchiefs are sold every year, for exportation, by the East India Company. But does any gentleman suppose that these Bandanas are sent to the continent for the purpose of remaining there? No such thing! They are sold at the Company's sales, to the number of about 800,000 or 1,000,000 a year, at about 4*s.* each; they are immediately shipped off for Hamburg, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Ostend, or Guernsey, and from thence they nearly all illicitly find their way back to this country.

Mark, then, the effect of this beautiful system.—These Bandanas, which had previously been sold for exportation at 4*s.*, are finally distributed in retail to the people of England at about 8*s.* each; and the result of this prohibition is to levy upon the consumer a tax, and to give those who live by evading your law a bounty of 4*s.*, upon each handkerchief sold in this country!—(Speeches, vol. ii. p. 510.)

Indeed, one of the principal objections to the present duty of 30 per cent. on foreign silks is, that it is high enough to enable a considerable smuggling trade to be still carried on; the facility for smuggling being increased by means of the legalised importation. A duty of 12 or 15 per cent. would not, however, be so high as to balance the risks run in smuggling; and would, therefore, really afford the manufacturer a more efficient protection than he derives from the existing duty, at the same time that it would place all classes of dealers on the same footing; whereas the advantage is at present on the side of those who engage in fraudulent schemes.

Regulations as to the Importation of Silks.—Silk manufacturera are not to be imported in any vessel under 70 tons burden, except by licence from the commissioners of the customs to vessels belonging to Dover, to import such manufactures direct from Calais, though such vessels may not exceed 60 tons burden. Silk goods, the manufacture of Europe, not to be imported except into the port of London or the port of Dublin direct from Bordeaux, or the port of Dover direct from Calais.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 2, § 5; and, p. 11.)

When the shoot or the warp only is of silk, the article is to be considered as composed of *not more* than one half part of silk, and subject to the *ad valorem* duty of 30 per cent.; but if the shoot or the warp be entirely of silk, and a portion of the other be of silk also, the article is to be considered to be composed of more than one half part of silk, and subject to the rated duties at per lb., or to the *ad valorem* duties, at the option of the officers.—(Mfn. Com. Cas. 14th of August, 1829.) But in all cases where the duties charged by weight upon mixed articles would manifestly exceed 30 per cent., by reason of the weight of the wool, or other ingredient thereof besides silk, the article is to be admitted to entry at value.—(Mfn. Com. Cas. 19th of December, 1831.)

For the regulations as to the smuggling of silks, see **SMUGGLING**.

I. Account, illustrative of the Progress of the Silk Manufacture, showing the Quantities of Raw, Waste, and Thrown Silk imported at different Periods.—(Report of 1832 on Silk Trade, p. 10, and Parl. Paper, No. 9. Sess. 1834.)

	Average Imports.				Raw.	Waste.	Thrown.	Total.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.				
1785, 1786, 1787, being the commencement of the absolute prohibition	532,000	-	3,000	715,000				
1788, 1789, 1797	584,000	-	337,000	921,000				
1800 to 1812	780,000	-	320,000	1,100,000				
1815, 1816, 1817, being 50 years after prohibition, and the first 3 years of peace	1,695,000	27,000	253,000	1,975,000				
1818, 1821, 1823, being the years immediately previous to the abolition of the prohibition	1,970,000	74,000	385,000	2,329,000				
1821, 1822, 1823, being the last 3 years	5,137,271	68,309	347,370	5,552,950				

II. Account of the Quantities of Raw, Waste, and Thrown Silk entered for Consumption in each Year from 1814, with the total Amount of Duty received on the same in each Year from 1820.—(From the Parl. Papers, No. 678. p. 10. Sess. 1832, No. 9. Sess. 1834; and Papers published by the Board of Trade.)

Years.	Average Imports.				Total of all Sorts.	Duty received.	Rate of Duty.
	Raw.	Waste.	Thrown.	Total.			
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£		
1814	1,504,235	39,204	586,503	2,119,942	1,116,974	Rate of Duty, Raw.—From India 4 <i>s.</i> per lb., from other places 6 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb., to the 25th of March, 1821; 5 <i>s.</i> per lb. from all places, to the 5th of July, 1826; 1 <i>d.</i> per lb. from all places, from the 5th of July, 1826.	
1815	1,063,556	37,321	377,922	1,478,800	785,599	Rate of Duty, Waste.—From India 3 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb., from other places 4 <i>s.</i> per lb., to the 25th of March, 1821; 3 <i>d.</i> per lb. from all places, to the 5th of July, 1826; 1 <i>d.</i> per lb. to the 5th of July, 1829; 1 <i>s.</i> per cwt. from all places, after the 5th of July, 1828.	
1816	873,114	41,056	206,014	1,120,184	606,590	Rate of Duty, Thrown.—On all kinds, dyed, 2 <i>s.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> , and undyed, 1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb., to the 5th of March, 1824; 1824; dyed and undyed, 7 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb., to the 5th of November, 1825; then 5 <i>s.</i> per lb. on undyed, to the 5th of July, 1826; thereafter, 6 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> on organzine and crepe, and 4 <i>s.</i> on tram and singles dyed, and 3 <i>s.</i> on tram and singles not dyed, to the 5th of July, 1829; and then 5 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> on organzine and crepe, and 3 <i>s.</i> on tram and singles dyed; 3 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> on organzine and crepe, 2 <i>s.</i> on tram, and 1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> on singles not dyed.	
1817	1,313,511	49,556	294,423	1,657,490	884,457		
1818	1,444,281	66,840	301,169	1,812,290	922,987		
1819	1,448,087	71,331	321,125	1,840,543	945,478		
1820	1,821,290	94,008	308,939	2,224,237	1,117,907		
1821	1,981,425	106,136	390,248	2,477,809	1,238,000		
1822	1,982,508	61,178	394,475	2,438,161	1,238,000		
1823	5,614,085	52,392	361,864	6,028,341	3,014,128		
1824	3,414,520	135,257	463,271	4,013,048	2,006,519		
1825	2,446,506	111,122	559,648	3,117,276	1,558,638		
1826	1,874,708	160,000	629,348	2,664,056	1,332,028		
1827	2,549,138	200,000	464,015	3,213,153	1,606,576		
1828	3,012,500	210,000	398,298	3,620,800	1,810,400		
1829	3,818,987	160,646	472,219	4,451,852	2,225,926		
1830	3,771,989	485,013	434,506	4,691,508	2,345,754		
1831	3,090,045	758,748	614,840	4,463,633	2,231,816		
1832	3,342,519	160,646	329,232	3,832,417	1,916,208		
1833	3,534,244	665,963	328,544	4,528,751	2,264,375		

III. An Account of all Silks and Ribands (separately) Imported from July, 1826, to the present Time.— (Report from Select Committee of Silk Trade, p. 13. For Rates of Duty, see TABLE.)

	Silk Manufactures Imported into the United Kingdom for Home Consumption.						
	1826. From the 5th of July.		1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
<i>Silks of Europe.</i>							
Silk or satin -	Lbs. 30,329 11 1/2	35,549 6 1/2	67,393 2 1/4	84,612 3 1/2	61,417 6 1/2	82,240 5	Lbs. 70,148
in ribands -	7,865 14 1/4	6,504 5 1/2	35,118 1 1/2	4,650 1 1/4			
in ribands -	3,617 15	16,110 14 3/4	91,917 13	30,082 3 3/4	30,941 3	33,438 7 3/4	46,596
Crape -	5,496 13 3/4	16,581 1	91,361 13	22,796 11 1/2	28,860 4	16,667 0	16,092
Velvet -	6,519 6 1/2	16,408 16 3/4	18,470 7	13,743 0	14,947 0	12,210 0	11,997
in ribands -	52 10	242 2	2,101 10 3/4				
Ribands embossed or figured with retzet -	Not entered under this denomination until the 5th of July, 1829.						
Fancy silk net or tricot -	27 14	223 5	11 4	3 12	42 11	95 12	651
Silk mixed with metal -	339 6	8-9 10 1-4	612 7 8-4	498 12 1-2	412 7	464 8	107
in ribands -	54 1	230 13	125 1				121
Total entered by weight -	48,301 1 1/2	115,278 5 1-4	168,600 9	121,953 13 1-4	126,310 6 1-3	145,518 10 3-4	144,866
Plain silk lace or net, called tulle -	40,876 1-4	122,288 1-8	171,005 1-8	109,729 1-8	114,391 1-4	64,117	38,727
Millinery viz. turbans or caps - No.	113	328	295	383	362	201	346
hats or bonnets -	119	428	414	528	536	412	346
dresses -	44	913	875	350	200	307	307
at value declared value		50 12 0	13 10 0	30 12 0	164 4 0	27 16 0	22
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other materials, not particu- larly enumerated -	31,459 6 0	54,128 6 10	77,189 0 6	65,256 18 6	44,923 10 10	35,636 0 0	43,178
<i>Silks of India.</i>							
Baudanias, romalis, and silk handker- chiefs - in pieces -	308,066	55,183	69,623	67,465	77,953	101,023	82,298
Silks and crapes, in pieces -	32,754	18,150	15,577	10,164	2,978	3,779	2,668
Crape shawls, scarfs, green pieces, and handkerchiefs - No.	77,778	24,800	4,759	1,859	17,620	15,167	12,218

Note.—The distinction in the rates of duty between silks and ribands having ceased to exist in 1829, on the passing of the act 10 Geo. 4. c. 23, both articles have since been entered at the Custom house under the general denominations of silk or satin, gauze and velvet, and are necessarily stated in the same manner in the above return.

IV. Account of the Official and of the Declared or Real Value of British Manufactured Silks exported from the United Kingdom since 1820, with the Bounty or Drawback paid thereon.

Year.	Total British Silks exported.		Goods all Silk. Declared Value.	Silk mixed with other Materials. Official Value.	Total British Silks exported.		Bounty or Drawback paid.
	Official Value.	Declared Value.			Official Value.	Declared Value.	
1820	L. 136,641	19 1 6	203,698	168,109	L. 371,775	23,601	
1821	141,174	17 6	324,297	160,186	374,473	31,563	
1822	140,459	18 5	314,605	165,805	381,763	34,668	
1823	159,870	17 6	313,769	147,610	351,409	34,432	
1824	150,886	18 9	303,635	256,961	442,896	660	
1825	106,931	10 1	93,968	202,150	299,736	97	
1826	178,563	4 6	73,247	95,554	168,801	62	
1827	179,083	19 11	99,055	137,299	236,344	62	
1828	321,568	1 5	97,346	158,624	255,870	4,544	
1829	427,610	5 7	143,638	124,286	267,391	36,890	
1830	471,119	0 0	354,790	162,220	621,018	46,668	
1831	475,165	0 0	368,866	150,048	678,048		
1832					629,960		
1833					740,294		

The United States is our best customer for silk goods. Of the total quantity exported in 1831, they took nearly 1-3, or to the amount of \$37,385, of real value. During the same year, the exports to the British North American colonies, were \$3,012, 1/2; to the British West Indies, \$7,508, 1/2; to France, \$4,462, 1/2; to Spain, \$4,833, 1/2, &c.

Sources of the Supply of Silk.—The following Table shows the sources whence we directly derive our supplies of raw and of foreign thrown silk, and the quantities brought from each in 1831 and 1832.

Countries.	1831.		1832.		Countries.	1831.		1832.	
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Raw silk from India -	1,752,950	1,914,707	1,814,707	1,914,707	Waste and knots from Italy -	410,793	317,654		
Cape of Good Hope -	36,830	8,194	8,194	8,194	France -	320,325	237,018		
China -	8,374	38,085	38,085	38,085	Other countries -	16,743	60,727		
Turkey -	451,421	458,219	458,219	458,219	Total of waste and knots -	766,728	656,803		
France -	891,349	749,418	749,418	749,418	Thrown silk from Italy -	698	8,544		
Other countries -	86,375	116,316	116,316	116,316	France -	612,590	143,251		
Total of raw silk -	3,335,865	3,391,721	3,391,721	3,391,721	Other countries -	15,993	20,336		
Waste and knots from India -					Total of thrown silk -	629,281	171,681		
Turkey -			701	701					

It is necessary, however, to observe that this account does not exhibit the countries which really furnish us with silk, and the quantities we import from them. It merely exhibits the sources whence we immediately derive our supplies, without tracing them to their source. Hence it makes the imports of silk from China and Italy appear very much less than they really are, and those from India and France much larger. With respect to China, it would appear from this account that only 5,374 lbs. were imported from it in 1831; whereas it appears from another parliamentary paper, that the imports of Chinese silk in that year really amounted to 468,692 lbs., and even this last is, we believe, underrated—(see vol. i. p. 304.). The reason is, that by far the largest portion of the Chinese silk imported into England is carried, in the first instance, to Singapore, or to some port in India, and is thence imported under the name of Indian silk. During the year 1831-32, there were exported from Canton, in British ships, 8,451 piculs, or 1,126,800 lbs., of silk, costing at the port of shipment (Canton) 2,654,063 dollars; and of this, by far the largest portion came to England.—(See vol. i. p. 301.) The silk exported from Canton consists of two leading varieties, known in commerce by the names of Canton and Ningking. The first which is raised principally in the province of Canton, is divided into 5 sorts. At an average, the picul of Canton silk brought at Canton, in 1831-32, 138 dollars. The Ningking silk produced in the province of Kiangnan, is divided into 2 sorts, known in commerce by the names of Taitsee and Teyenmin. It is very superior to the other, and usually fetches more than double its price. It cost at Canton, in 1831-32, 369 dollars a picul. We have no doubt, now that the trade to China is thrown

over, that the export of great commerce has introduced the quality of the art according to the taste and in 1832, the quality of the art is specified in the by way of Taitsee and Teyenmin. By far the great of that country, in Bureaux, where official accounts and Foreign raw and the portion which is the trade will be in 1832, and authentic state of the stocks on 1

Year.	Raw	Thrown
1820	Lbs. 1,850,000	176,000
1821	1,850,000	176,000
1822	1,850,000	176,000
1823	1,850,000	176,000
1824	1,850,000	176,000
1825	1,850,000	176,000
1826	1,850,000	176,000
1827	1,850,000	176,000
1828	1,850,000	176,000
1829	1,850,000	176,000
1830	1,850,000	176,000
1831	1,850,000	176,000
1832	1,850,000	176,000
Total	1,850,000	176,000

The following Agricultural Society

The production of various forms of Georgia was undertaken by the various persons who were interested in the establishment of a millinery trade in 1830, the agricultural premium was given to give 1/2% of an hundred, every pound well was upon in their worms are interwoven in business to which there has been a people in divers in 1750, his daughter in an Almanac public diseases of the silk raised the greatest number of the peace of It is further a manufactory in it was only 1,850; He that the raw than that from of other remarks He commends staple commodity as we want, and we refund. The of the great at; He goes on to ordinary business most silk of any of silk as cheap in this by the could earn informer's vera

...to the present time.— see Table F.)

...the exports of Chinese silk will be materially increased; and that it will become an article of great commercial importance.

East India native silk comes wholly from Bengal. About the year 1760, the East India Company introduced the Italian mode of reeling silk, which was productive of a very great improvement in the quality of the article; but we are not aware that any subsequent improvement has been effected.

According to the *Parliamentary Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833, the imports of raw silk from all places to the westward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, were, in 1830, 1,736,531 lbs.; in 1831, 1,725,550 lbs.; and in 1832, 1,814,819 lbs. But, notwithstanding this exception, we believe that a very considerable quantity of the silk so imported was the produce of China; being brought to us partly from Simsbury, and partly from the Indian prairies. Some of it was also the produce of Persia, shipped, in the first instance, from Bushire for Bombay. The silk goods brought from India are not only inferior, in point of quality, to those of Europe, but also to those of China. The quantity imported of late years is specified in the Table, No. III.

A good deal of the silk brought from Turkey is supplied by Persia. Some considerable part of the Persian silk that used to be exported from Bushire and other ports on the Persian Gulf, is now exported by way of Trebizond; which promises to become an important emporium for Persian and Turkish silk.

(See *Transactions*.)

By far the greatest part of the raw and thrown silk that comes to us from France, is not the growth of that country, but of Italy; being principally conveyed by the canal of Languedoc and the Garonne to Bordeaux, whence it is shipped for England. So much is this the case, that it appears from the official accounts published by the French government, that while the aggregate value of the French and foreign raw and thrown silk exported from France in 1831 amounted to 43,103,054 fr., the value of the portion which was of French origin was only 2,092,776 fr. (*Administration des Douanes*, for 1831, p. 263.)

The reader will find, under the article VENICE, an account of the exports of silk from the Venetian provinces in 1829, 1830, and 1831. Since the article NAPLES was printed, we have obtained the following authentic statement of the exports of silk from that city during the 6 years ending with 1833, and of the stocks on hand:—

Years.	Exports.					Stocks on the 31st of December.		
	Raw.	Spun.	Sewing.	Total.	Waste.	Raw.	Spun.	Total.
	Lbs. *.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1829	188,091	46,604	95,196	330,817	59,719	107,100	3,600	110,700
1830	178,133	21,858	208,601	301,612	5,778	137,500	7,300	144,700
1831	217,312	31,948	132,617	389,241	12,036	118,200	1,800	120,000
1832	138,777	22,568	230,150	391,512	27,188	173,800	600	174,400
1833	310,633	32,768	137,474	471,295	19,243	130,100	3,000	133,100
1834	319,229	62,668	106,575	471,472	26,884	88,500	2,400	90,900
Total.	1,341,189	225,787	788,043	2,390,013	130,655			

[The following account of the silk culture in the United States, from the third report of the Agricultural Society of Massachusetts, will be interesting to the American reader.

The production of silk in this country has been repeatedly brought before the public; and presented in various forms as a subject of general interest to the agricultural community. When the state of Georgia was settled, silk and wine were recommended as particular objects of culture. In Virginia, measures were taken as early as 1663 to encourage the general production of silk; and the failure to plant mulberry trees at the rate of ten for every hundred acres, was made by the laws a penal offence. In 1760, the society in London for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, offered liberal premiums for the production of silk in Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut. The society propose to give for every pound weight of cocoons produced in the Province of Connecticut in the year 1786, of an hard, weighty, and good substance, wherein one worm only has spun, three pence; for every pound weight of cocoons of a weaker, lighter, spotted, or bruised quality, though only one worm has spun in them, two pence; for every pound of cocoons, produced in the same year, wherein two worms are interwoven, one penny. These premiums will be paid on condition that a public flature be established in Connecticut, and that each person bring his or her balls to such public flature." This invitation, says Jared Eliot, in his remarkable essays on Field Husbandry in New England, is not to a business to which we are wholly strangers; it is not to an empty, airy, and untiled project; for there has been something of this manufactory carried on for sundry years, and by a number of our people in divers of our towns, by which we are assured that it is practicable. As early as 1757, the governor of Connecticut, Mr. Law, wore the first coat and stockings made of New England silk; and in 1750, his daughter wore the first silk gown of domestic production.

In an Almanac of Nathaniel Ames, for the year 1769, it seems the subject had been matter of much public discussion, and "a gentleman, whom posterity will bless, deposited one hundred dollars in the hands of the selectmen of Boston; forty dollars to be given to the person who, in the year 1771, shall have raised the greatest quantity of mulberry trees; thirty dollars to him that shall have the next greatest number; twenty to the next; and ten to the next; certificates being produced from a justice of the peace of the number, and that they belong to Massachusetts Bay."

It is further stated by Eliot, in 1702, "that by a late account from Georgia, it appears that the silk manufactory is in a flourishing way. In the year 1757, the weight of silk balls received at the flature, was only 1,059; last year produced 7,010, and this year already about 10,000; and it is very remarkable that the raw silk exported from Georgia, sells at London from two to three shillings a pound more than that from any other part of the world." It is stated by president Stiles, that in 1762 Georgia exported to London 15,000 lbs. cocoons, deemed sufficient to make 1500 lbs. of silk.

Other remarks of Eliot, considering the time when he wrote, are particularly deserving of attention. He recommends especially the cultivation of silk to the northern colonies, "who are destitute of any article commodiously by which they could make an immediate and direct return to England, for such goods as we want, and must always want, more abundantly than we have means at present by which we can afford. This seems to be the state of Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut." The cultivation of the great staple of cotton was not pursued then to any extent in the southern states.

He goes on to say that, "those among us, who raise silk, say, that it is more profitable than other ordinary business. Some years past, I asked a man of good faith and credit, who had then made the most silk of any among us, what profit might be made of it. His reply was, that he could make a yard of silk as cheap as he could make a yard of linen cloth of eight run to the pound. A woman of experience in this business told me, that, in the short time of feeding the worm and winding the silk balls, she could earn enough to hire a good spinner the whole year. I have not the least scruple of the informant's veracity, but how far their capacity might serve for an exact calculation, I know not." *

* Two lbs. avoirdupois are equal to about 2 7/9 libri Napolitani.

to the present time.— see Table F.)

Year.	1831.	1832.
Lbs. wt.	82,948 0	70,140
53,498 7-8	46,030	
15,667 0	16,000	
12,210 0	11,957	
945 14	657	
56 12	107	
464 8	121	

Year.	1831.	1832.
Lbs. wt.	64,117	38,327
201	3-6	
412	1-6	
200	2-7	
27 18 0	32	

of the spinning of the set 10 Gm. & 12, gauze and velvet, and un-
coloured Silks exported
id thereon.

Year.	1831.	1832.
Lbs. wt.	101,023	82,282
5,779	5,669	
16,157	12,819	

early 1-8, or to the amount of
\$3,013; to the extent of
we directly deriv
each in 1831 and 1832.

Year.	1831.	1832.
Lbs. wt.	410,750	347,454
229,325	257,018	
16,743	60,727	
756,728	656,000	
669	2,249	
612,590	143,221	
15,983	20,338	
629,261	177,168	

countries which really
the source whence
it makes the imports
from India and
that only 5,774 lbs.
per, that the imports
we believe, under
Chinese silk imported
a, and is hence im-
ported from Canton, in
at (Canton) 2,651,698
) The silk exported
) Canton and New-
into 5 sorts. At an
being silk, the
names of Tri-
double its price. It
to China is known

In 1772, as appears from the manuscript journal of President Stiles of Yale College, his family engaged, to some extent, in the culture of silk, and their production was sent to England to be manufactured, a sample of which cloth, presenting a singularly beautiful fabric, together with the journal itself, is now in my possession.

About the year 1770, a filature was established in Philadelphia, and it is a remarkable fact, from the 25th of June to the 15th of August 1771, 2,300 pounds of cocoons were brought to the filature to be reeled, or were bought by the managers. These came from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware.

About the year 1760, the culture of silk was introduced into Mansfield, Conn., and some of the neighbouring towns. It has been pursued ever since that time, to a small extent, in several other places in New England; but it cannot be said to have maintained its foothold in any other situation than in Mansfield. In other places, where it planted itself with every favourable prospect of success, it presently expired. In Mansfield, Conn., it has continued to be pursued to the present time. The largest amount of raw reeled silk reported to have been produced in any one year in Mansfield, as was stated to me in that town, has been about seven thousand pounds. In general, however, it has not exceeded three thousand pounds per year. The inhabitants of Mansfield have been wholly dependent upon the white mulberry for feed for their worms; and a large proportion of these were destroyed by the severe winter of 1834-5.

The silk culture became again strongly the subject of public attention in 1826. Congress encouraged it, by the publication and distribution of large editions of manuals and treatises, prepared with great care and fulness, and giving all the directions and details necessary to the prosecution of the business, from the raising of the trees, to the preparation of the article for use. The vast amounts of money annually sent abroad for the purchase of this article of universal use and almost not necessary, the increasing use of the article among all classes of people, and to an extent probably not known in any other country; and, at the same time, the acknowledged capacity of the country to produce silk, and of the best quality, gave new prominence to the subject in the community, and drew the public attention to it with an intense interest; but with no greater interest than in an economical view, in the opinion of many intelligent men, its national importance may justly claim.

In 1830, the introduction of a new plant into the country, (the Perottet mulberry, or morus multicaulis), which promised, from its extraordinary capacity of rapid multiplication, and its productiveness of foliage, to furnish an earlier advantage for the prosecution of the silk culture, gave a new impulse to the cause, and aroused public enthusiasm to a high degree of fervour. The disappointment occasioned by the almost universal destruction of these plants by the frosts, produced a revolution in public feeling; and the progress of the silk culture was again arrested and set back in a strong abate.

It does not fall within my province to detail more particularly the history of events in relation to this subject. The introduction of this extraordinary variety of the mulberry, the morus multicaulis, or many stalked mulberry, or, as I think it should be called after the name of the spirited individual who brought it into Europe, the Perottet mulberry, led to the introduction of other valuable varieties. About this time the erection of a cocoonery at Northampton, in Massachusetts, of extraordinary dimensions and expense, and the reiterated and extravagant calculations of profit, which were to follow from the culture of silk, continually given to the public in the most imposing forms, and the establishment of societies in all parts of the country, with large capitals for this object, kept the curiosity and interest of the public constantly upon the stretch. The announced introduction of varieties of the mulberry, of such hardihood as to brave the severity of our climate, and especially the adoption of a plan for taking up the tender varieties and reesting them, or laying them down in the spring; and the practicableness in this way of obtaining in the same season from trees thus managed, an ample supply of food for the worms, seemed to give strong assurance that the bright hopes which had been indulged on this subject, were, at least in some degree, on the point of being realized.

In the year 1838, a new chapter in the history of the silk culture was to be unfolded. There is little reason to doubt, that, at this time, a conspiracy or combination of some principal individuals, deeply interested in the multicaulis in the United States, was formed, in order to force the sale of this tree at high prices. By every species of finesse, and by the grossest imposition, the public pulse was quickened to a rapidity and intensity of circulation almost unparalleled in the history of the excitements of the human mind. The selling of spurious seed, the disposal of trees under false names, the selling for multicaulis that which did not even belong to the species of the mulberry, and especially the villainy, for it deserves no milder name, and should shut out its perpetrators from all community with honest men, of getting up extensive auction sales of multicaulis trees, which were purely fictitious, and this with no other view than that of fraudulent wholesale imposition upon the public, present facts in the history of our community equally remarkable and disgraceful. They are instructive monuments to mark the extremes to which, under the influence of an unbridled avarice, the cunning of some men will proceed, and the credulity of others may be led. In these circumstances the public attention was directed exclusively to the growing of trees. The production of silk did not enter into the calculation. Thousands and thousands of acres were planted with the Perottet mulberry; and immense importations of these trees have been made from foreign countries.

By the caprices and fluctuations incident to all human affairs, and by no means unexpected in a case of such violent and extravagant speculation, as that of which I have been speaking, it has happened that the ebb has gone down in proportion to the elevation of the flood. This speculation is at an end; and though all the growers and speculators in morus multicaulis from Florida to Maine should pump their heads together, they are much more likely to blow out the last embers that remain in the hearth, than to fan them into a flame. It is feared that in too many cases the exposure of the speculation, as it was termed, would present only humiliating examples of fraud and credulity; and it would be an invidious and ungrateful task to rake open the ashes for the sake of seeing the burnt bones and carcases of those who have perished in the flames. The multicaulis is no longer in quick demand, and may be purchased at a price far below its actual and intrinsic value. The tree having ceased to be an object of speculation, it is now hoped that public attention will be directed to the production of silk. The best trees of the best descriptions being obtainable, even by persons of the most limited means, it becomes matter of important inquiry, whether, to what extent, and under what circumstances, the silk culture may be conducted and encouraged as a profitable branch of agriculture.—Am. Ed.]

SILVER (Ger. *Silber*; Du. *Zilver*; Da. *Sølv*; Sw. *Silfver*; Fr. *Argent*; It. *Argento*; Sp. *Plata*; Port. *Prata*; Rus. *Serebro*; Pol. *Srebro*; Lat. *Argentum*; Gr. *ἄργυρος*; Arab. *Fazzeh*), a metal of a fine white colour, without either taste or smell; being in point of brilliancy inferior to none of the metallic bodies, if we except polished steel. It is softer than copper, but harder than gold. When melted, its specific gravity is 10.474; when hammered, 10.51. In malleability, it is inferior to none of the metals, if we except gold. It may be beaten out into leaves only $\frac{1}{100000}$ of an inch thick. Its ductility is equally remarkable: it may be drawn out into wire much finer than a human hair; so fine, indeed,

that a single grain of a wire of an inch diameter will support a weight of 100 lbs. The proportion of oxygen to silver is as 100 to 1. The most pure silver is also silver in its nature.—(See *Platina*.) Besides being used in the arts, silver is also used in the manufacture of the British mint, and in SINGAPORE.

The island of Malacca is the greatest breadth of the desert islets, Singapore is situated throughout, and of European origin. The island is a chain of islands, nothing is known of the course of the current, and most convenient approach close to the river, or rather in the roads, leading to their draw always in readiness to be discharged at once.

The climate is 89° in a part of the season short, and not very hot. The settlement is the property, in the time with the whom it belongs about 8 years before the year 1838, it had no inhabitants, and was taken on the last of the inhabitants.

The principal occupations, &c. of the natives are as follows:—

European	•
Malay	•
Native Christians	•
Arabs	•
Jews	•
Hindus	•
Chinese	•
Native of the Coast	•
Moslems	•

The principal occupations, &c. of the natives are as follows:—

that a single grain of silver may be extended about 400 feet in length. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of silver 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 137.13 lbs. without breaking. Silver is easily alloyed with copper by fusion. The alloy is harder and more sonorous than silver, and retains its white colour even when the proportion of copper exceeds $\frac{1}{3}$. The hardness is at a maximum when the copper amounts to one fifth of the silver. The standard or sterling silver of Britain, of which coin is made, is a compound of 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ parts silver and 1 copper. Its specific gravity is 10.2. The specific gravity of Paris standard silver, composed of 137 parts silver and 7 copper, is 10.175. The French silver coin during the old government was not nearly so fine, being composed of 261 parts silver and 27 copper, or 9 $\frac{3}{4}$ parts silver to 1 part copper. The Austrian silver coin contains 11 of copper. The silver coin of the ancients was nearly pure, and appears not to have been mixed with alloy.—(Thomson's Chemistry.)

The most productive silver mines are in America, particularly in Mexico and Peru. There are also silver mines in Hungary, Saxony, and other parts of Europe, and in Asiatic Russia.—(See PRECIOUS METALS.)

Besides being used as coin, or money, silver is extensively employed in the arts. The value of the silver plate annually manufactured is very considerable. Large quantities are also used in plating.—(See PLATE.) For an account of the quantity of silver coined at the British mint, since 1790, see vol. i. p. 389.

SINGAPORE, an island and recent British settlement at the eastern extremity of the Straits of Malacca. The town is in lat. 1° 17' 22" N., lon. 103° 51' 45" E:

The island is of an elliptical form, about 27 miles in its greatest length, and 15 in its greatest breadth, containing an estimated area of 270 square miles. The whole British settlement, however, embraces a circumference of about 100 miles; in which is included about 40 desert islets, and the seas and straits within 10 miles of the coast of the principal island. Singapore is separated from the main land by a strait of the same name, of small breadth throughout, and scarcely, indeed, $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile wide in its narrowest part. In the early period of European navigation, this channel was the thoroughfare between India and China. Fronting the island, on its southern side, and at the distance of about 9 miles, is an extensive chain of islands, all desert, or at least inhabited only by a few wild races, of which nothing is known but their mere existence. The intervening channel is now the grand route of the commerce between the eastern and western portions of maritime Asia; the safest and most convenient track being so near to Singapore, that ships in passing and repassing approach close to the roads. The town is on the south side of the island, and is situated on a river, or rather salt creek, navigable by lighters for about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile from the sea. Ships lie in the roads, or open harbour, at the distance of from 1 mile to 2 miles from town, according to their draught of water. The assistance of a number of convenient lighters, which are always in readiness, enables ships to load or unload, with scarcely any interruption, throughout the year. The river or creek is accessible to the lighters, and the goods are taken in and discharged at convenient quays, at the doors of the principal warehouses.

The climate of Singapore is hot, but healthy. Fahrenheit's thermometer ranges from 71° to 89°. In a place only about 80 miles from the equator there is, of course, very little variety in the seasons. There is neither summer nor winter; and even the periodical rains are short, and not very well marked—moderate showers of rain falling for about 150 days each year. The settlement of Singapore was formed in February, 1819, and its sovereignty and property, in their present extent, confirmed to the British government in 1825, by a convention with the king of the Netherlands, and a treaty with the Malay princes of Johore, to whom it belonged. When taken possession of by the English, it had been inhabited for about 8 years by a colony of Malays, half fishermen and half pirates. When the first census of the population was taken, in January, 1824, it was found to amount to 10,683. In 1838, it had increased to 15,834: in both cases, exclusive of troops, camp followers, Indian coolies, and a floating population of about 3,000. The following statement of the census taken on the 1st of January, 1832, and on the 1st of January, 1833, shows the different classes of inhabitants, and their proportions to each other:—

	1832.		1833.			1832.		1833.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Europeans	83	22	91	28	Nat. of Hindoos	408	121	348	110
Mal. Britons	67	27	66	40	Javanese	361	253	361	234
Silver Christians	274	148	167	133	Bugia, Battaese, &c.	735	602	794	832
Arabs	20	6	27	8	Caffres	7	1	23	14
Others	3	2	2	2	Parsees	2	-	-	-
Arms	61	3	66	-	Total	14,324	5,361	15,191	5,767
Others	8,748	8,467	8,763	3,368	Total Females	5,361	-	8,797	-
Chinese	7,142	613	7,550	667	Total Inhabitants	19,715	-	20,973	-
Decrease of Coast of Commerce	1,574	40	1,702	87					

The principal merchants and agents are Englishmen, of whom also there are a few shopkeepers, auctioneers, &c. There are also some respectable Chinese merchants; and the bulk of the shopkeepers, with the most valuable part of the labouring population, consist of Chinese. About 5,000 adults arrive annually from China by the junk; about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, the rest

V. General Trade with India for the Years 1836-37 to 1831-32.

(Imports into Singapore from India.)

	1836-1837.	1837-1838.	1838-1839.	1839-1840.	1840-1841.	1841-1842.
	<i>Sicca Rupees.</i>					
From Calcutta	18,53,193	20,16,499	23,77,069	27,94,418	27,82,383	24,03,513
Madras	4,93,072	4,14,899	10,80,278	6,74,886	1,02,983	2,00,513
Bombay	5,56,700	8,76,889	8,76,889	8,75,993	5,27,211	1,92,783
Total	28,11,922	31,08,053	44,49,813	36,44,934	29,84,516	27,16,989
Exports to India.						
To Calcutta	20,36,762	14,31,949	23,58,894	20,35,747	22,34,748	18,11,471
Madras	2,78,928	1,28,099	3,30,599	2,08,877	8,81,876	8,11,471
Bombay	5,86,188	1,88,012	3,73,036	6,00,474	4,06,228	5,81,114
Total	28,44,878	16,48,060	31,25,529	28,48,098	35,26,852	31,87,057

VI. Corrected List of Cargoes to Europe, by Vessels which sailed from the Port during this Official Year 1831-32.

Vessel's Name.	Tons.	Straits' Produce.		Tranship.	Total.	Vessel's Name.	Tons.	Straits' Produce.		Tranship.	Total.
		Dollars.	Dollars.					Dollars.	Dollars.		
Atwick	341	2,900	-	-	2,900	Childs Harold	468	26,404	309,000	-	335,404
Helen Mar	255	86,117	-	-	86,117	Hebe	256	8,988	2,210	-	11,198
Madellina	256	6,066	-	-	6,066	Aurora	850	63,785	61,000	134,785	
Eliza	638	50,918	13,841	64,659	114,577	Batavia	360	22,008	-	22,008	
Victoria	375	65,191	37,681	102,872	160,543	Orythia	318	64,341	4,590	68,931	
Engla	208	37,997	40,590	78,587	116,574	Sparian	237	2,081	-	2,081	
Edmond Castle	285	85,006	61,544	146,550	188,229	Duke of Roxburgh	417	86,229	664,459	750,688	
Boncelin	408	658	10,710	11,368	12,418	Edward	354	1,325	3,195	4,520	
Lady Gordon	338	66,535	6,010	72,545	100,000	Irene	190	40,004	10,000	50,004	
Fanny	380	48,153	29,200	77,353	100,000	Totals	8,768	268,000	2,430,197	2,700,197	
Ruymyeda	460	65,067	127,564	192,631	-						

Currency, Weights, Languages, &c.—The currency and weights are simple and convenient. Merchants' accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, divided into 100 parts, represented either by Dutch guilders or by English copper coins of the same value. The weights in use (and almost every thing by weight, as in China) are the Chinese picul of 100 catties, or 133 lbs. avoirdupois. Rice (the produce of Siam and the Archipelago) and salt are sold by the coyan of 40 piculs. Gold dust is sold by a Malay weight called the bungkal, which weighs two Spanish dollars, or 833 grains Troy. Bengal rice, wheat and pulses of the same country, are sold by the bag, containing 3 Bengal maunds, or 161 lbs. avoirdupois. Piece goods, &c. are sold by the corg or score. English weights and measures are frequently used in reference to European commodities. The mode of transacting business among the European merchants is simple and efficient. Instead of trusting their affairs to native agents, as in other parts of India, they transact them in person, with the occasional assistance of a Chinese creole, as an interpreter and broker. The European merchants transact business on their own account; but a great deal of their employment consists in acting as agents for houses in London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Canton, and Batavia. They are also agents for various insurance offices at Calcutta and elsewhere, and policies of insurance to any extent may be effected without difficulty. The language of commercial intercourse, where any of the natives of the East are concerned, is universally Malay—a simple and easy dialect, of which all the resident merchants have a sufficient acquaintance for transacting of ordinary business. A newspaper, the *Singapore Chronicle*, is published once a week, and contains a price current, an account of arrivals and departures of shipping, and an official detail of all the exports and imports of the preceding week. The administration of justice is entirely English, there being a recorder's court for the settlement, in common with the two neighbouring ones of Penang and Malacca.

(Statement of the Value of the Import and Export Trade of Singapore, with the undermentioned Places, in the Years 1836-37 and 1837-38.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1836-37.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1837-38.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Great Britain	1,720,429	1,828,457	1,100,683	975,990
Foreign Europe	68,496	9,416	543,094	76,497
United States	107,289	60,890	208,549	101,158
Rio de Janeiro	2,725	-	41,408	32,700
Stauritius	12,447	88,720	738,703	1,111,080
Calcutta	1,469,907	1,610,794	1,110,865	1,112,814
Madras and Ports in Cape Coast	273,556	373,850	469,618	549,369
Bombay	29,311	301,607	16,611	6,601
Arabia	2,220	38,361	298,372	430,794
Manilla	94,048	213,293	110,018	115,004
Ceylon	8,120	17,458	1,012,114	1,103,704
China	790,736	679,272	604,171	382,700
Java	892,861	1,037,157	1,000,818	1,150,000
Rho	148,985	194,282	868,872	918,782
Siam	225,969	214,518	56,494	31,428
Cochin China	343,818	70,808	174,814	200,388
Sumatra	920,941	321,490	100,553	314,295
E. S. Peninsula	423,200	368,777	36,494	36,428
W. S. Peninsula	52,140	44,051	5,043	31,428
Borneo	266,389	298,048	25,879	266,111
Neighbouring Islands, &c.	158,245	117,573	129,016	110,154
Italy	31,082	83,997	136,410	100,343
Celbes and other Eastern Islands	278,448	610,104	-	-
Total Dollars	7,528,990	8,158,962	6,974,610	7,374,419
		7,548,190		6,974,419
		637,968		127,941

Eastern Ports trading with Singapore.—As every thing that relates to the trade of the East is now becoming of the first importance to commercial men, we make no apology for

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The names of the petty places on the west side of the Malay Peninsula, opposite the Sumatra shore, between this and Penang, are—Bata Pahat, Benook, Beladong, Dogyang, Brocos, Meer, Padang, Pootlan, and Penghe; while the principal ports, besides Malacca and her dependencies, are—Parak, Salengoro, Lingin, and Lookoot. From the former very few articles, and those only of trifling value, are brought here, consisting chiefly of fowls, cocoa nuts, paddy, fruit, &c.; but the other ports all furnish in large quantities, besides several other articles of less importance. The whole of this coast, however, bears a bad name for piracy. The number of prahus arriving here from all the places above named amounts to about 100 every year.

Of the neighbouring islands, RATO is the one with which we carry on the most extensive and constant trade; the number of boats or rather trips of a regular set of Chinese boats, called *seapoo boats*, employed in the trade, being about 300 every year. They bring chiefly pepper and gambier, the produce of Bintaang. From LIXON, or LIXOA, also, we have upwards of 70 or 80 boats arriving annually, bringing a great variety of useful produce, but principally pepper, tin, ratans, &c. BILLATON sends about 25 boats yearly, which bring biche de mer, seaweed, tortoise-shell, wax, &c.

BUXOANAN (or Great Natunas) and SAKRAW (or N. Anambas) are the next in importance, from which 30 or 40 vessels trade with this settlement. The other islands are—Pulo Awore, Bonaweng, Condore, Carlmons, Jamaja, (or S. Anambas), Pulo Laut, Laboo, Leboc, Meppar, Nongsa, Sarassan, Siakip, Sooble, Tajam, Timblan, Timiang, Tingbi, Trong, Carimata, Ungaran, and some others.

Piracy in the Eastern Seas.—We regret to have to state that piracy has been of late exceedingly frequent in the seas to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, and even in the Straits themselves. It has always, it is true, prevailed to a less or greater extent in the Eastern Seas; but latterly the number of pirates has rapidly increased, and they have prosecuted their depredations with a boldness and success that require immediate attention. In so far as we can judge from the statements in the Singapore and Canton papers, we seem, to say the least of it, to have manifested the most singular indifference to the spread of this great and growing evil. In 1824, we bound ourselves by treaty with the Dutch to co-operate with them for the suppression of piracy in the Eastern Seas. It is affirmed that, until very recently, we did little or nothing towards the fulfilment of this engagement, though we are far more interested in the suppression of piracy than any other people. Hitherto the trade of Singapore has chiefly suffered from piratical attacks; but, besides waylaying the smaller junks and ships of the Chinese, Siamese, &c., the pirates, emboldened by impunity, have recently attacked some British ships in the Straits of Malacca, and have actually captured some ships in the seas more to the eastward, inflicting the most horrid barbarities on the unhappy passengers and crews. The Andromache ship of war destroyed in June, 1836, a nest of pirates; but, until the naval force in the seas in question be considerably strengthened, and, especially, till some armed steamboats be sent to the assistance of the other vessels, the nuisance will not be materially diminished, much less suppressed. It would really seem, from the little attention that the subject has attracted in this country, as if it were imagined that the trade of the Eastern Seas is of little or no value. But we are within the mark when we affirm, that from ten to twelve millions' worth of British property (including the trade between India and Canton) is annually conveyed through the Straits of Malacca, and the other Eastern Seas infested by pirates. The trade from England to China, already of vast importance, and increasing more rapidly perhaps, than any other department of our commerce, is wholly carried on through the channels referred to; and, as we do not hesitate to send powerful squadrons to secure far less valuable interests in other quarters, it is not easy to see why we should not send some half-dozen steamers to protect this great and growing trade, as well as that which we carry on with the Philippine Islands, New South Wales, &c., from the depredations of a piratical banditti. Nothing but the employment of steamers will be able effectually to abate the evil of piracy. The infinite number of small islands in the Eastern Seas, the difficulty of their navigation, and our little acquaintance with any but the principal lines of intercourse, afford the greatest facilities for the escape of pirates from ordinary cruisers. But steam ships could follow them into their haunts; and the pirates would not be able to escape from them, as they frequently do from sailing vessels, by taking to their oars while their pursuers are becalmed. Except when defending our own shores, the navy is never so legitimately employed as in the defence and extension of commerce. Its protection is one of the most important duties which government has to discharge; and, considering the immense naval force at our disposal, it may well excite astonishment that piracy in the Eastern Seas—one of the great highways by which commerce is carried on—should have been allowed to attain to such a magnitude, and that the reiterated complaints of the merchants and others, who have suffered by its prevalence, should have been so little attended to. A very little outlay on the part of government might make, in so far at least as piracy is concerned, the navigation of the Eastern Seas quite as safe as that of the Channel; and the advantages thence resulting to our trade would, in a very short period, far more than counterbalance the little sacrifice required at the outset.

Besides putting down piracy in the Eastern Seas, government should take the necessary measures for obtaining accurate information with respect to them, and the ports and countries to which they afford access. We know very little indeed of many, or rather, we should say, of most, of the islands to the east of Malacca; and yet several of them are of great extent, and they all abound in valuable products; and might, it is probable, were we better acquainted with their ports and capabilities, furnish the means of carrying on an extensive and

advantageous commerce of New Guinea, whence of many.

The following table shows what has been the value of the goods employed in the principal British trade in 1833 was 11,440,000, and the total of goods and exports to this port was 4,200,000 dollars.

Hambourg, Danzig, &c. in 1833 was 517, and the value of the two from Java in 1833

While such is the case more than 10,000 of the British Navigation are the property of the nations for use from the Cape of Good Hope to the East Indies, and the nations have a right to the sea of the Eastern Seas in the destruction of piracy, and the nations contiguous were it not the ten destroy, so deduct put down lawless highway of nations

Trade of Java.—Celebes, containing Java in 1830, 1831, agreement to render power.

Articles.	
Coffee	— millions
Sugar	—
Tin	—
Pepper	—
Indigo	— lbs.
Rice	— piculs
Iron	— piculs
Other	— No.

(See Journal of the Population of the Select Committee of

SINOPE, a town, 35° 45' N. lat. on a low island. Its port, within 1/2 mi. from the N. and S. shore within 1/2 mi. from the N. and S. shore. There is one of its accommodations, salt, conlage,

In ancient times, the principal sea and Constantinople will see at once the natural channels to maintain an intercourse of trade with the commerce will be an advantageous proper vessels, and

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advantageous commerce. Had utility been at all attended to in such matters, the exploration of New Guinea, and of the seas and numberless islands in its vicinity, would have taken precedence of many late expeditions.

The following paragraph, taken from the *Canton Repository* for March, 1836, corroborates what has been now stated:—

"The value of the trade which annually passes through the Chinese Sea, and the number of persons employed in it, present a striking contrast to the paucity of the means of protection afforded us from our father-lands. The number of British vessels that arrived in China during 1834 was 136. The value of British trade for the year 1833-34, opium included, was about 46,833,500 dollars; and that for 1834-35 was still greater. The number of American vessels which arrived in China during 1833-34 was 204, and the total of the trade is estimated at 19,775,003 dollars; the number of vessels, and total of Imports and exports for 1834-35, were nearly the same amount. The number of Dutch vessels that come to this port we cannot state; but the total of the Netherlands trade with China, in 1830-30, was 1,002,713 dollars. Besides these, there is also a considerable amount of Portuguese, Spanish, French, Danburgh, Danish, and Swedish trade annually. The trade of Manila, already amounting in several millions, is on the increase. The number of square-rigged vessels that imported to Singapore during 1830-35 was 317, which exceeded any former year; that of native craft was 1481, which is less than in either of the two preceding years. The number of Dutch, foreign, and native vessels which cleared from Java in 1833 was 1720, with a tonnage of 199,193 tons.

"While such is the annual amount of trade carried on in these seas, employing in the foreign vessels more than 10,000 seamen, what care have our governments shown for its protection? Not one of the British Majesty's ships is stationed in the Chinese Sea; not one is yet stationed even at Singapore, except an occasional visitor makes a sweep among the pirates. The Americans have done nothing here since the bloody affair of Quailah Bato; it is said, however, that these seas are henceforth to be one of the stations for the American navy. A wide range, indeed, will two or three small men-of-war sweep from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan! The Portuguese here, we understand, have in naval equipment whatever. It is long since a French man-of-war has visited these seas. The Spaniards at Manila have a number of small craft called pontines, for the destruction of the piratical Malays who infest the sea to the southward of Luconia. These are characterised by a writer in a late number of the *Canton Free Press* as particularly successful in the capture of shells and turtles, but most inefficient in the destruction of the pirates. The Dutch alone have done anything effectual towards the suppression, and their activity in this respect is worthy of all praise. In Java, and generally in all places contiguous to their possessions, they have either suppressed or greatly checked piracy, and, were it not the tendency of their severe and restricted government to make as many outlaws, as they destroy, no deduction need be made from their praise. They alone have systematically attempted to put down lawless misrule in these seas, and make them, what the Creator designed them to be, the highway of nations."—*Sup.*)

Trade of Java.—Since the article BATAVIA was printed, we have received a number of the *Singapore Chronicle*, containing the following account of the quantities of the principal articles exported from Java in 1830, 1831, and 1832. It shows a very rapid progress. There wants nothing but good management to render Java by far the most valuable of all the Eastern possessions belonging to any European power.

Articles.	1830.	1831.	1832.	Articles.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Coke . . . piculs	288,742	299,098	314,173	Rattans . . . piculs	6,004	6,198	14,021
Opium . . . —	106,640	120,298	245,872	Tortoiseshell . . . —	4,389	5,567	14,113
Tin . . . —	21,428	30,245	47,801	Triang . . . —	4,908	4,169	5,078
Pepper . . . —	6,061	7,858	7,375	Bird's nests . . . —	9	249	602
Beeswax . . . lbs.	22,063	42,541	156,211	Mace . . . —	177	245	347
Wax . . . piculs	392,067	503,199	622,844	Nutmegs . . . —	1,304	8,559	3,419
Iron . . . coppers	1,927	1,497	2,000	Cloves . . . —	963	1,331	5,144
Wax . . . No.	30,548	63,571	82,998				

(See *Journal of an Embassy to Siam and Cochin China*, by John Crawford, Esq., chap. xix.; *Return of the Population of British India*, in Report of the Select Committee of the Commons, 1831; *Report of the Select Committee of the Commons*, for 1830; and *Singapore Chronicle*, passim.)

SINOPE, a town of Asia Minor, on the S. coast of the Black Sea, lat. 42° 2' 30" N., lon. 35° 9' 45" E. Population uncertain, probably from 8,000 to 10,000. Sinope is situated on a low narrow isthmus, connecting the high rocky promontory of Ada with the main land. Its port, which is the best on this coast, on the south side of the town, is protected from the N. and N. E. gales by the isthmus and promontory already mentioned. Ships anchor within 3 miles of the town, in from 13 to 17 fathoms; or nearer to it, in from 5 to 7 fathoms. There is a roadstead on the north side of the isthmus, but it is open and exposed. Sinope is one of the principal stations of the Turkish fleet; and there are docks and arsenals for its accommodation and outfit. Its exports are inconsiderable, the principal being timber, salt, cordage, fish oil, &c.

In ancient times, Sinope was a city of great wealth, magnitude, and importance. It was the birth-place of Diogenes, the Cynic; and Mithridates made it the capital of his dominions. After its conquest by the Romans under Lucullus, it became the seat of a colony; and continued for a lengthened period to enjoy a good deal of consideration.

Should civilization and the arts once more revive in the ancient Pontus, and the other countries to the south of the Black Sea, the excellence of its port could not fail to restore to Sinope some portion of its former grandeur. Even now a considerable intercourse is beginning to take place with the countries E. and S. of Sinope. Diarbeker, on the Tigris, in lat. 37° 54' N., lon. 39° 53' 45" E., is one of the principal seats of Eastern commerce; and caravans set out regularly from it for Aleppo, Smyrna, and Constantinople; but any one who consults a map of Asia Minor, and of the contiguous countries, will see at once that Trebisond and the neighbouring parts on the S. E. coast of the Black Sea are the natural channels through which Armenia, Khoristan, and the north-western parts of Persia may best maintain an intercourse with Europe. We shall afterwards show that the danger to vessels by the roads of Trebisond has been very much exaggerated.—(See TREBISOND.) In the event, however, of the commerce with the countries referred to becoming of any considerable importance, Sinope would be an advantageous entrepôt to which goods might be brought, and whence they might be conveyed in proper vessels, and at proper times, to the other ports. At all events, it is of material importance

that a direct intercourse with the southern coast of the Black Sea should be established, and that the trade with it should not be carried on, as hitherto, through Odessa.—(For further particulars as to Si-
 nona, see *Thurnesfort, Voyages du Levant*, tom. II. pp. 202-212; and *Norie's Sailing Directions for the
 Black Sea*. See also the article *Tavernosa*, in this work.)

SKINS. The term is applied in commercial language to the skins of those animals, as
 calves, deer, goats, lambs, &c., which, when prepared, are used in the lighter works of book-
 binding, the manufacture of gloves, parchments, &c.; while the term *hides* is applied to the
 skins of the ox, horse, &c., which, when tanned, are used in the manufacture of shoes, har-
 ness, and other heavy and strong articles. Lamb and kid skins are principally used in the
 glove manufacture; 120 skins being supposed to produce, at an average, 18 dozen pairs
 of gloves.

Account of the Skins Imported in 1831, specifying the Countries whence they came, and the Numbers
 brought from each.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550. Sess. 1832.)

Countries from which imported.	Skins.								
	Calf and Kid, unskinned.		Deer, unskinned.	Goat, unskinned.	Kid, unskinned.	Lamb, unskinned.	Seal, unskinned.		
	Cwt.	qrs.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	
Russia	27,591	3	7						
Sweden				3					
Norway		3	0	5	18,219	617			
Denmark		2,290	0	19				13,205	
Prussia		2,289	3	8	450			2,200	
Germany		8,014	0	9	1,073	1,638	16,914	114,288	
The Netherlands		2,981	1	9	10,303		378	20	
France					32,746	30,780	599,973	321,759	
Portugal, Proper					186	150			
Azores					26			33,469	
Spain and the Balearic Islands					855	43,312	200	206,740	
Gibraltar				1		1,035		18	
Italy and the Italian Islands					5,032	516,437	4,032	2,113,678	
Malta						798			
Ionian Islands							1		
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea		0	1	12				285	
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco					137,610				
Western Coast of Africa		675	1	22				2,700	
Cape of Good Hope		104	0	23	6	90,030	2	54	
St. Helena						1		8,471	
East India Company's territories and Ceylon		941	3	1	5	29,374	1,247		
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River		1	2	0				6,140	
British Northern colonies		20	0	10	1,943	5		312,459	
British West Indies					14				
United States of America		7	1	13	122,151			51	
Mexico					12			228	
Brazil		3	1	34				10	
States of the Rio de la Plata		678	0	18	89			653	
Chili								2,655	
Peru					68	10,735		4,866	
The Whale Fisheries								4,923	
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man (foreign goods)		4	3	15		3			
Total import	43,637	1	27	125,357	354,584	595,573	621,780	2,620,092	341,629
Quantities retained for home consumption, deducting the quantity exported subsequently to the payment of duty	40,193	3	10	21,079	212,423	486,527	621,780	2,619,709	328,206

SLATE (ROOF), Ger. *Schiefer*; Fr. *Ardoise*; It. *Lavagna, Lastra*; Sp. *Pizarra*, a fossil or compact stone (*argillaceous schistus*), that may be readily split into even, smooth, thin laminae. There are several varieties of this valuable mineral, the prevailing colours being grey, blue, and brown. But the tints are very various; and slates are often marked with streaks of a different colour from the ground. Slate is principally used in the covering of houses, for which purpose it is infinitely superior to thatch or tiles, and is far less expensive than lead. Good roofing slate should not absorb water; and it should be so compact as not to be decomposed by the action of the atmosphere. When properly selected, roof slates are of almost perpetual duration; but those which are spongy and imbibe moisture speedily get covered with moss, and require, at no very distant period, to be renewed.

The use of slates in the covering of houses is entirely European. From the Hellespont to China inclusive there is not a single slated house; and this does not arise from any want of slate, which is as abundant in Asia as in Europe.

Slates carried by land have never been subjected to any duty; but those carried coastwise were, until 1831, charged with duties varying according to their size and species. The injustice of this distinction, and the impolicy of laying any duty on an article of this sort, are obvious. The revenue it produced was quite inconsiderable, not exceeding 35,000*l.* a year. It was repealed at the same time as the duty on coal carried coastwise.

Since the repeal of the duty, the consumption of slate has been materially increased; and it is now

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 British, 15 —
 Laid, 15 —
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 Laid, 18 —
 British, 15 —

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 As Account of

Year	Quantity
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1830	3
1831	2

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Number.	Number.	Number.
-	19,205	-
-	2,200	-
16,914	114,298	20
376	11,550	20
599,973	231,739	-
-	33,469	-
200	206,740	-
-	18	-
4,032	2,113,678	-
1	-	203
-	-	2,700

54	-	8,471
-	-	6,143
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extensively employed for various purposes to which it was not formerly made applicable, such as the
flooring of warehouses and vaults, the paving of streets, the formation of cisterns, the covering of
ruins or decayed floors, and of the walls of houses in exposed situations, &c. The slate used for these
purpose is cut by the circular saw into pieces of from $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch to 2 inches thick. Many hundred tons
have been used in the course of the last 2 years in paving, flooring, &c. at the London Docks; and, we
know, with much advantage to the company. Large deposits of slates are now formed in London
and other great towns.

The principal slate quarries in Great Britain are in Caernarvonshire. Those belonging to Mr. Pen-
man (formerly Lord Penrhyn's), near Bangor, employ about 1,500 men and boys, and are the most
productive and valuable in the empire. The other quarries in the same county employ about 1,500 men
and boys; and there are some in other parts of Wales. There are also extensive quarries at Ulver-
ston, in Lancashire; and others, of inferior magnitude, in various parts of Westmoreland and Cum-
berland.

The principal slate quarries in Scotland are at Easdale and Dalachulish, in Argyleshire. Speaking
generally, the Scotch quarries do not afford slates of the size and smoothness of those obtained from
the Welsh quarries; and the wood-work of the roofs covered with them requires to be stronger.
Roofing slates are of different sizes, and are denominated Imperials, Queens, Princesses, &c. Their
prices, appraising their quality to be in other respects equal, depends partly on their size and partly on
their weight. The subjoined account explains the mode in which it is determined.

Account of the Prices of the different Sorts of Slate on Shipboard at Bangor, in January, 1838.

Sort of Slate	Price	Sort of Slate	Price
Imperial's, 20, 24, 27, and 30 inches long, and square breadth	80 0 per ton.	Slate, s.w.n. per ton of 147 ft. superficial, 1 in. thick,	60 per ton.
Queen's, 17, 20, 23, and 26 inches long, and pro- portional breadth, assorted	41 0 -	Do. if under 2 feet long, or 1 ft. 6 in. wide	70 -
Princess, 20 and 25 inches	43 0 -	Grave stones, not less than 6 ft. by 3 ft. 3 in. thick,	45 -
Queen's, 24 by 14 inches	41 0 -	Endel blocks or slabs, sawn at the ends only	55 -
Imperial's, 24 by 14 inches	43 0 -	Unassorted do.	45 -
Do. as in sup.	31 8 -	Shipping expenses, 6d. per ton; bill of lading, 3s. 6d.	
Queen's, 24 in. by 12, weighing per m. 60 cwt.	140 0 per m.	An allowance made for breakage of 1 cwt. over in every ton, and 60 slates over in every 1,300.	
Imperial's, 20 in. by 10, weighing 44 do.	90 0 -		
Queen's, 18 - 8 - 87 do.	40 0 -	No. 1. plain jamba, mantel and turned blocking, with plain edge shelf	10 each.
Imperial's, 12 - 6 1/2 - 16 do.	10 0 -	2. moulded jamba, mantel with turned blocking, with plain edge shelf	18 -
Queen's, 11 - 6 1/2 - 12 do.	7 6 -	3. moulded jamba, &c. with bead mould	21 -
Do. slabs, 11 in 12 by 6 to 16 to 22 do.	13 6 -	4. Grecian feet jamba and mantel	30 -
		5. moulded frame jamba and mantel	30 -
		6. paneled jamba and mantel	30 -
		Cisterns, with sides and ends, 1 inch thick, 14. 10d. per foot cubic content.	
		Do. do. 1 1/2 in. thick, 2s. 2d.	

The subjoined account shows a very material increase in the quantity of slates exported.
An Account of the Quantities of Slate exported from England to Foreign Parts in each of the Five
Years ending with 1832.

Year	Slate or Slates, rough.		Slates in Frames.		Year	Slate or Slates, rough.		Slates in Frames.	
	Tons.	Number.	Number.			Tons.	Number.	Number.	
1828	2,741	3,250,920	37,034	1831	4,799	4,257,494	18,373		
1829	3,925	4,768,953	32,106	1832	6,001	1,559,263	15,420		
1830	5,536	3,999,594	35,160						

(Slate and chalk laden on board any ship or vessel bound for foreign parts shall be deemed
ballast; and all such ships or vessels having on board only slate, or slate and chalk, shall
be deemed to be departing in ballast; and if, on the return of any such ship or vessel, any
slates or chalk be remaining on board, they shall be deemed to be her ballast.—(4 & 5 Will.
& c. 89, § 3.)

New Uses of Slate.—Slate is now generally used in framing the tops of billiard tables. The size of
each slate is 6 feet $\frac{1}{4}$ inch by 3 feet, and 1 inch thick; 4 of these make a table top, 12 feet by 6 feet
over the cushions. The first slate billiard table was made in 1834, and 500 have been made in Lon-
don down to December, 1836, many of which have been exported to the East Indies and America: it is the
price of each table top is about 13l.

Slate is likely to be largely consumed in the shape of blocks for railways; a piece of slate 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches
thick being found to be as strong as a piece of stone 1 foot thick. A piece of slate 2 feet 6 inches by 2
feet and 2 inches thick, bore the pressure of 20 tons, and broke with 25 tons; and a piece of the same
length and breadth, but 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, bore 35 tons, and broke with 40 tons. The experiments were
made by placing the slate blocks against a bearing of 3 inches at each end, leaving a clear hollow
space of 2 feet between the bearings, and applying the piston of a hydrostatic press, 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter,
to the centre.—*Sup.*)

SLAVES AND SLAVE TRADE. A slave, in the ordinary sense of the term, is an in-
dividual at the absolute disposal of another, who has a right to employ and treat him as he
pleases. But the state of slavery is susceptible of innumerable modifications; and it has
been usual, in most countries where it has been long established, to limit in various ways
the power of the master over the slave. The *slave trade* is, of course, the business of those
who deal in slaves.

Origin of Slavery.—A great deal of learning has been employed in tracing the history
of slavery, though the subject is still far from being exhausted. It seems most probable that
it originally grew out of a state of war. In rude uncivilised communities, where the pas-
sion of revenge acquires a strength unknown in more advanced states of society, captives
taken in war are adjudged to belong to the victors, who may either put them to the sword,
or reduce them to a state of servitude. In antiquity the ideas of war and slavery were in-
separable. Probably, in very remote ages, prisoners were most commonly put to death; but
the selfish gradually predominated over the more passionate feelings, and for many ages it
was usual to reduce them to the condition of slaves; being either sold by their captors to
others, or employed by them as they might think fit. "*Jure gentium*," says Justinian.
"*veri nostri sunt, qui ab hostibus capiuntur.*"—(Instil. lib. 1. 5.)
Vol. II.—2 U 64

The practice of reducing men to a state of slavery, having once begun, was extended in various ways. The progeny of slaves, or of women in a state of slavery, were slaves; men born free might sell themselves as slaves; and parents had authority, in Judea and Rome, to dispose of their children for the same purpose.—(*Michaelis on the Laws of Moses*, vol. ii. p. 163. Eng. ed.) It was the law of Rome, and of most other ancient states, that the persons of debtors who had contracted obligations which they could not discharge, should become the property of their creditors.

Treatment of Slaves.—The treatment of slaves in antiquity, as in more modern times, differed very widely in different countries and periods, and among different classes of slaves in the same country and at the same time. A great deal also depended on the character of particular masters. Slaves bred up in the house or family of the masters were uniformly treated with greater indulgence than others, and became entitled, by custom, to several important privileges. At Athens, slaves appear to have been better treated than in any other ancient state; and Demosthenes mentions, in his second Philippic, that "a slave was better off at Athens than a free citizen in many other countries." In republican Rome, the masters had the power of life and death over their slaves, who were often treated with the most detestable barbarity. It was not an uncommon practice to expose old, useless, or sick slaves to starve in an island in the Tiber! We may, as Mr. Hume has justly remarked, "imagine what others would practise, when it was the professed maxim of the elder Cato, to sell his superannuated slaves at any price, rather than maintain what he esteemed a useless burden."—(*Plutarch, in Vita Catonis.*) *Ergastula*, or dungeons, where slaves were confined and chained at night, and where they were sometimes made to work in the day, were common all over Italy. Columella advises that they be always built under ground—(lib. i. c. 6.); and remains of them are still seen in the lower stories of ancient buildings in Italy and Sicily. Hundreds of slaves were sometimes put to death for the crime of one only; and they were exposed, when they committed any petty fault, to all the violence of the most capricious and unrestrained despotism.

It was not uncommon in the barbarous ages to immolate captives on the tomb of such chiefs as had fallen in battle; and magnificent games were celebrated on these occasions. The gladiatorial exhibitions, so common at Rome after the Punic wars, seem to have grown out of this practice. These were contests between slaves, denominated gladiators, trained to fight in public for the amusement of a ferocious populace, who took the greatest delight in their sanguinary combats. Thousands of unfortunate wretches were annually sacrificed in this inhuman sport. After his triumph over the Dacians, Trajan exhibited spectacles, in which no fewer than 11,000 wild beasts of different kinds were killed, and 10,000 gladiators fought!—(*Adam's Roman Antiquities*, p. 317.)

The cruelties inflicted on the slaves occasioned frequent revolts, attended by the most dreadful excesses. Spartacus, a Thracian captive, destined for the profession of a gladiator, headed a rebellion of gladiators and slaves, which continued for 3 years, and required all the force of the republic to suppress. When finally defeated by Crassus, about 6,000 of his followers were nailed to the cross, in double rows, that extended almost from Capua to Rome.—(*Ferguson, Rom. Republic*, c. 16.) No one acquainted with the manners of the Romans can be surprised at the atrocities of so many of the emperors. The worst of them treated the citizens better than the latter treated the slaves. Humanity could not be looked for in the rulers of a state in which human life was held in contempt, and human suffering made the subject of popular sport.

In consequence partly of their ill usage, and partly of its being accounted cheaper to buy than to breed slaves, vast numbers were annually imported into Italy. Thrace, and the countries round the Black Sea furnished large supplies of the best slaves; and numbers were obtained from Egypt, Syria, Cappadocia, and other places. Delus in Cilicia was the greatest slave market of antiquity; as many as 10,000 slaves have been sold there in a single day.—(*Strabo*, lib. xiv.)

Besides its brutalising influence on the manners of the people, the institution of slavery was in other respects productive of the worst effects. The best Roman writers bear testimony to the negligence, waste, and bad conduct of slaves.—(*Columella*, lib. i. § 8.; *Plin Hist. Nat.* lib. xvii. § 3.) The inferiority of the ancients in most of the useful arts is principally to be ascribed to the prevalence of slavery, which not only extinguished all emulation and invention on the part of most of those engaged in industrious employments, but made the employments be considered in some measure disgraceful. In the ancient world agriculture and arms were the only occupations that were reckoned worthy of a freeman. The mechanical arts were carried on either wholly by slaves, or by the very dregs of the people; and remained for ages in the same stationary state.

The establishment of Christianity contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else, first to mitigate, and finally to suppress the abomination of slavery. But within no very long period after its abolition had been completely effected in every part of Europe, its horrors began to be inflicted on America.

* Achilles sacrificed 12 Trojan captives on the tomb of Patroclus.—(*Iliad*, lib. 22.)

African Slave Trade.—The trade, however early, in consequence of the discovery of St. Domingo, and of African islands, and the concurrence of the bishop of Chiapa, and the Africans. The former. But it was nothing new of another.—(*Roberts*) The importation of slaves increased, until John Hawkins, with which our country imported 200,000 slaves before the Africans were imported into the colonies from Africa was 600,000. The importation was very great.

It is not easy to see how the former it has produced have been due to the European trade. Many, however, of the most of crime known to the inhabitants of Africa. In the West Indies, its effect was to increase the disorders, of which slavery as it exists in the volume entitled "Ergastula," published in 1781.

It would be to no purpose to attempt an opinion upon the question, as that the statements made by the negroes in the infamous cruelties because he happened to be a slave.

Abolition of the Slave Trade.—The abolition of the slave trade, and the supineness of the individuals, in this respect, is, perhaps, the most extensive circulation of power contributed to the abolition of the slave trade. The Quakers early in the 18th century were always the first to bear testimony to the subject was the history of the abolition of the slave trade in proof of the country, and a number of witnesses were, on the 12th of August, 1793, they were supported by Fox. But, notwithstanding the friends of the abolition, contrived to be done. In the United States, but without any effect, and consummated in 1808.

African Slave Trade.—This infamous traffic was commenced by the Portuguese, in 1442. The trade, however, was but of trifling extent till the commencement of the sixteenth century. In consequence, however, of the rapid destruction of the Indians employed in the mines of St. Domingo or Hayti, Charles V. authorised, in 1517, the introduction into the island, of African slaves from the establishments of the Portuguese on the coast of Guinea. The concurrence of the emperor was obtained by the intercession of the celebrated Las Casas, bishop of Chiapa, who, contradictorily enough, laboured to protect the Indians by enslaving the Africans. The latter were certainly more vigorous and capable of bearing fatigue than the former. But this circumstance affords no real justification of the measure, which, at best, was nothing more than the substitution of one species of crime and misery in the place of another.—(*Robertson's Hist. America*, book iii.)

The importation of negroes into the West Indies and America, having once begun, gradually increased, until the extent and importance of the traffic rivalled its cruelty and guilt. Sir John Hawkins was the first Englishman who engaged in it: and such was the ardour with which our countrymen followed his example, that they exported from Africa more than 200,000 slaves between the years 1680 and 1700; and between 1700 and 1786, 610,000 Africans were imported into Jamaica only; to which adding the imports into the other islands and the continental colonies, and those who died on their passage, the number carried from Africa will appear immense.—(*Bryan Edwards, Hist. West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 64.) The importations by other nations, particularly the French and Portuguese, were also very great.

It is not easy to say whether this traffic has been more injurious to Africa or America. In the former it has perpetuated and multiplied every sort of enormity and abuse. The petty princes have been tempted to make war on each other, that they might obtain captives to sell to the European traders; and when these could not be found, have seized and sold their own subjects. Many, too, have been kidnaped by the crews of the slave ships, nor is there any sort of crime known among pirates and banditti, which, for more than 3 centuries, the civilized inhabitants of Europe have not perpetrated upon the unoffending natives of Central Africa. In the West Indies, and those parts of America into which slaves have been largely imported, its effect has been equally disastrous. It has led to the most violent antipathy between the whites and the blacks; and been the fruitful source of crimes, convulsions, and disorders, of which it is difficult to see the termination.—(There are some good remarks on slavery as it exists in America, and on the multiplied evils of which it is productive, in a volume entitled "Excursion of an English Gentleman through the United States and Canada," published in 1824.)

It would be to no purpose to enter into any examination of the sophisms by which it was formerly attempted to justify the slave trade. We shall not undertake to pronounce any opinion upon the question as to the inferiority of the blacks; though it does not appear to us that the statements of Mr. Jefferson on this subject, in his "Notes on Virginia," and similar statements made by others, have received any sufficient answer. But supposing the inferiority of the negroes were established beyond all question, that would be no justification of the infamous cruelties inflicted upon them. Did any one ever think of vindicating a robber, because he happened to be stronger or cleverer than his victim?

Abolition of the Slave Trade.—Notwithstanding the sanction it received from parliament, and the supineness of the public, the slave trade was frequently denounced by distinguished individuals, in this and other countries, as essentially cruel and unjust. Of these, Montesquieu is, perhaps, the most conspicuous. He successfully exposed the futility of the different pleas put forth by the advocates of slavery.—(*Esprit des Loix*, liv. xv.) and the extensive circulation of his great work, and the deference paid to the doctrines advanced in it, contributed powerfully to awaken the public to a just sense of the iniquity of the traffic. The Quakers early distinguished themselves by their hostility to the trade; of which they were always the consistent and uncompromising enemies.

The first motion on the subject in parliament was made in 1776; but without success. The subject was not taken up systematically till 1787, when a committee was formed, of which Mr. Granville Sharp and Mr. Clarkson, whose names are imperishably associated with the history of the abolition of the slave trade, were members. This committee collected evidence in proof of the enormities produced by the trade, procured its circulation throughout the country, and succeeded in making a very great impression on the public mind. After a number of witnesses on both sides had been examined before the privy council, Mr. Wilberforce, on the 12th of May, 1789, moved a series of resolutions condemnatory of the traffic. They were supported by Mr. Burke in one of his best speeches; and by Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox. But, notwithstanding the resolutions were carried, nothing was done to give them effect. The friends of the trade having obtained leave to produce evidence at the bar of the house, contrived to interpose so many delays that the action passed off without any thing being done. In the following sessions the great struggle was continued with various success, but without any definite result. At length the triumph of humanity and justice was finally consummated in 1807; a bill for the total and immediate abolition of the slave trade, having

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been carried in both houses by immense majorities, received the royal assent on the 25th of March, being the last act of the administration of Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville. "Thus ended," says Mr. Clarke, "one of the most glorious contests, after a continuance of 20 years, of any ever carried on in any age or country: a contest, not of brutal violence, but of reason; a contest between those who felt deeply for the happiness and the honour of their fellow creatures, and those who, through vicious custom, and the impulse of avarice, had trampled under foot the sacred rights of their nature, and had even attempted to efface all title of the divine image from their minds."

America abolished the slave trade at the same time as England. But notwithstanding what had been done, further measures were soon discovered to be necessary. The Spaniards and the Portuguese continued to carry on the trade to a greater extent than ever; and British subjects did not hesitate, under cover of their flags, to become partners in their adventures. An effectual stop was put to this practice in 1811, by the enactment of a law introduced by Mr. (now Lord) Brougham, that made trading in slaves punishable by transportation for 14 years, or by confinement to hard labour for a term of not more than 5 years nor less than 3 years.

The British laws relative to the slave trade were consolidated by the act 5 Gen. 4. c. 113. But, as the greater part of this act has been superseded by the late statute for the extinction of slavery (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 73.), we shall merely lay before our readers the clauses still in force relating to the dealing in slaves.

Dealing in Slaves in the High Seas, &c. to be deemed Piracy.—And if any subject or subjects of his Majesty, or any person or persons residing or being within any of the dominions, forts, settlements, factories, or territories, now or hereafter belonging to his Majesty, or being in his Majesty's occupation or possession, or under the government of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies, shall, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, after the 1st day of January, 1825, upon the high seas, or in any haven, river, creek, or place, where the admiral has jurisdiction, knowingly and wilfully carry away, convey, or remove, or aid or assist in carrying away, conveying or removing, any person or persons as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported or brought as a slave or slaves into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used or dealt with as a slave or slaves; or shall, after the said 1st day of January, 1825, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, upon the high seas, or within the jurisdiction aforesaid, knowingly and wilfully ship, embark, receive, detain, or confine, or assist in shipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining, on board any ship, vessel, or boat, any person or persons for the purpose of his, her, or their being carried away, conveyed, or removed as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported, or brought as a slave or slaves into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used, or dealt with as a slave or slaves; then, and in every such case the persons so offending shall be deemed and adjudged guilty of piracy, felony and robbery, and being convicted thereof shall suffer death without benefit of clergy, and loss of lands, goods, and chattels, as pirates, felons, and robbers upon the sea ought to suffer.—14.

Persons dealing in Slaves, or exporting or importing Slaves, &c. guilty of Felony.—And (except in such special cases as are by this act permitted) if any persons shall deal or trade in, purchase, sell, barter, or transfer, or contract for the dealing or trading in, purchase, sale, barter, or transfer of slaves, or persons intended to be dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, carry away or remove, or contract for the carrying away or removing of slaves or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall import or bring, or contract for the importing or bringing into any place whatsoever, slaves, or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, ship, tranship, embark, receive, detain, or confine on board, or contract for the shipping, transshipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, slaves or other persons, for the purpose of their being carried away or removed, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall ship, tranship, embark, receive, detain, or confine on board, or contract for the shipping, transshipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, slaves or other persons, for the purpose of their being imported or brought into any place whatsoever, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall fit out, man, navigate, equip, despatch, use, employ, let or take to freight or on hire, or contract for the fitting out, manning, navigating, equipping, despatching, using, employing, letting, or taking to freight or on hire, any ship, vessel, or boat, in order to accomplish any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully lend or advance, or become security for the loan or advance, or contract for the lending or advancing, or becoming security for the loan or advance of money, goods, or effects, employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully become guarantee or security, or contract for the becoming guarantee or security, for agents employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful, or in any other manner to engage, or contract to engage, directly or indirectly therein, as a partner, agent, or otherwise; or shall knowingly and wilfully ship, tranship, lade, or receive or put on board, or contract for the shipping, transshipping, lading, receiving, or putting on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, money, goods or effects, to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall take the charge or command, or navigate, or enter and embark on board, or contract for the taking the charge or command, or fit the navigating or entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as captain, master, mate, surgeon, or supercargo, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat, is actually employed, or to be in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so take the charge or command, or navigate, or enter and embark, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully insure, or contract for the insuring of any slaves, or any property of other subject matter engaged or employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall wilfully and fraudulently forge or counterfeit any certificate, certificate of valuation, sentence, or decree of condemnation or restitution, copy of sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution, or any receipt (such receipts being required by this act, or any part of such certificate, certificate of valuation, sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution

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any sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution, or receipt as aforesaid; or shall knowingly and wilfully utter or publish the same, knowing it to be forged or counterfeited, with intent to defraud His Majesty, or any other person or persons whatsoever, or any body politic or corporate; then, and in every such case the persons so offending, and their procurers, counsellors, aiders, and abettors, shall be liable, and shall be liable to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding 14 years, or shall be confined and kept to hard labour for a term not exceeding 5 nor less than 3 years, at the discretion of the court before whom such offenders shall be tried.—§ 10.

Officers, &c. serving on Board such Ships guilty of Misdemeanour.—And (except in such special cases, and for such special purposes as are by this act permitted) if any persons shall enter and embark on board, or contract for the entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as petty officer, seaman, marine, or seaman, or in any other capacity not herein-before specifically mentioned, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat is actually employed, or is in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so enter and embark on board, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; then, and in every such case, the persons so offending, and their procurers, counsellors, aiders, and abettors, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour only, and shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years.—§ 11.

Abolition of Slavery.—We have already alluded (vol. i. p. 413.) to the ever memorable act of 1833, for the ANNIHILATION OF SLAVERY throughout the British colonies. In enacting this celebrated statute, parliament endeavoured, and, we think, successfully, to reconcile the apparently conflicting claims of humanity and justice, by providing for the emancipation of the slaves, without prejudice to the just rights and claims of their proprietors. This was effected by assigning to the latter the sum of twenty millions sterling, which is to be distributed amongst them on their complying with the provisions of the act. This is the greatest sacrifice ever voluntarily made by any nation in vindication of the right of property. But it was not too great for the object in view; for had that right been violated in this instance, a precedent would have been set for its violation in others, and the consequences would have been most disastrous. The measure, in fact, reflects quite as much credit on the wisdom and honesty, as on the generosity, of the British nation.

See subjoin a full abstract of such parts of this important statute as seem to be of general interest. See 1 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 73, FOR THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY THROUGHOUT THE BRITISH COLONIES; for promoting the Industry of the manumitted Slaves; and for compensating the Persons hitherto entitled to the Services of such Slaves.

Slaves to become apprenticed Labourers from 1st of August, 1834.—After reciting, that it is expedient that the slaves in the British colonies should be manumitted and set free on compensation being made to those entitled to their services, the act goes on to declare, that from and after the 1st day of August, 1834, all persons who, in conformity with the laws now in force in the said colonies, shall, on or before the 1st day of August, 1834, have been duly registered as slaves in any such colony, and who, on the said 1st day of August, 1834, shall be actually within any such colony, and who shall by such registries appear to be, on the said 1st day of August, 1834, of the full age of 6 years or upwards, shall by force and virtue of this act, and without the previous execution of any indenture of apprenticeship, or other deed or instrument for that purpose, become and be apprenticed labourers; provided that, for the purposes aforesaid, every slave engaged in his ordinary occupation on the seas shall be deemed and taken to be within the colony to which such slave shall belong.—§ 1.

Who entitled to Services of the Slave.—During the continuance of the apprenticeship of any such labourer, such person or persons shall be entitled to the services of such labourer as would for the time being have been entitled to his or her services as a slave if this act had not been made.—§ 2.

All Slaves brought into U. K. with Consent of Possessors, free.—All slaves who may at any time previous to the passing of this act have been brought with the consent of their possessors, and all apprenticed labourers who may hereafter with the like consent be brought, into any part of the United Kingdom, shall from and after the passing of this act be absolutely and entirely free to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—§ 3.

Apprenticed Labourers to be divided into predial attached, predial unattached, and non-predial.—And whereas it is expedient that such apprenticed labourers should, for the purposes herein-after mentioned, be divided into 3 distinct classes; the first consisting of predial apprenticed labourers attached to the soil, and comprising all persons who in their state of slavery were usually employed in agriculture, or in the manufacture of colonial produce or otherwise, upon lands belonging to their owners; the second consisting of predial apprenticed labourers not attached to the soil, and comprising all persons who in their state of slavery were usually employed in agriculture, or in the manufacture of colonial produce or otherwise, upon lands not belonging to their owners; and the third consisting of non-predial apprenticed labourers, and comprising all apprenticed labourers not included within either of the 2 preceding classes; be it therefore enacted, that such division shall be carried into effect in such manner and form, and subject to such rules and regulations, as shall for that purpose be established by such acts of assembly, ordinances, or orders in council as are herein-after mentioned; provided always, that no person of the age of 12 years and upwards shall be included in either of the said 3 classes of predial apprenticed labourers, unless such person shall for 12 calendar months at the least next before the passing of this act have been habitually employed in agriculture or in the manufacture of colonial produce.—§ 4.

Apprenticeship of the predial Labourers limited.—No person who, by virtue of this act, or of any act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, shall become a predial apprenticed labourer, whether attached or not to the soil, shall continue in such apprenticeship beyond the 1st day of August, 1840; and during such apprenticeship, no such predial apprenticed labourer shall be bound or liable to perform any labour in the service of his or her employer or employers for more than 45 hours in one week.—§ 5.

Apprenticeship of the non-predial Labourers.—No person who, by virtue of this act, or of any act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, shall become a non-predial apprenticed labourer, shall continue in such apprenticeship beyond the 1st day of August, 1838.—§ 6.

Labourer may be discharged by his Employer.—If before such apprenticeship shall have expired, the person or persons entitled during the remainder of any such term in the services of such apprenticed labourer shall be desirous to discharge him or her from such apprenticeship, it shall be lawful for such person or persons so to do by deed or instrument; which deed or instrument shall be in such form, and shall be executed and recorded in such manner, and with such solemnities, as shall be prescribed under authority; provided that, if any person so discharged from apprenticeship by voluntary act as

en labouring under any
of earning his or her
all continue and be the
of the apprenticeship.

apprenticed labourer to
sell, or in opposition, if
upon payment to such
being effected, the pur-
in each manner ad-
vantage.—§ 8.

owner shall be subject or
all apprenticed labourer
labour in the service of
plantations or estates in
employed or more than
of any 2 years for those
shall be lawful for those
transfer his or their ser-
vice; which written con-
tract shall first have as-
sent from his or her wife
in or her, and that such
owner; and such written
contract given, attested, and

or necessary of any in-
ferable by bargain and
for that purpose be pro-
by, virtue of any such
parent or child, or from

such apprenticeship, the
will be and is required to
attendance, and such other
which such apprenticed
and sex as such appren-
shall be supplied, not by
owner of ground not apart
required to provide such
his or her support, and
such labourer, from and
of 45 hours per week
rate for the proper cul-
tivation; the actual extent
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of the said ground as
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subject to the obligations
e, or order in council as
some who, on the 1st day
and after the said 1st day
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to be born to any such
their birth; and from and
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—§ 12.

he never attained the age
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saying this act into effect.

proper rules and regulations should be established for ascertaining, with reference to each appren-
ticed labourer, to what class he or she belongs, and for determining the manner in and the solemnities
with which the voluntary discharge of any apprenticed labourer may be effected, and for prescribing
the manner in and the solemnities with which the purchase by any apprenticed labourer of his or her
freedom from such apprenticeship, without, or in opposition, if necessary, to, the consent of those
entitled to his or her services, shall be effected, and how the necessary apprenticeship of the future
of such services shall be made, and how and to whom the amount of such apprenticeship shall
be paid, and applied, and in what manner and by whom the discharge shall be given, executed, and
recorded; and it is also necessary, for the preservation of peace throughout the said colonies, that
proper regulations should be established for the maintenance of order and good discipline amongst
the said apprenticed labourers, and for insuring the punctual discharge of the services due by them
to their employers, and for the prevention and punishment of indolence, or the neglect or improper
performance of work by any apprenticed labourer, and for enforcing the due performance by such
labourer of any contract into which he or she may voluntarily enter for any hired service during the
time in which he or she may not be bound to labour for his or her employer, and for the prevention and
punishment of indolence and insubordination on the part of such apprenticed labourers towards
their employers, and for the prevention and punishment of vagrancy, or of any conduct on the part of
any such apprenticed labourers injuring or tending to the injury of the property of any employer, and
for the suppression and punishment of any riot or combined resistance of the laws on the part of such
apprenticed labourers, and for preventing the escape of such apprenticed labourers, during their term
of apprenticeship, from the colonies to which they may belong; and whereas it will also be necessary
for the protection of such apprenticed labourers, that various regulations should be framed and esta-
blished in the said colonies for securing punctuality and method in supplying them with food, clothing,
bedding, medicines, medical attendance, and such other maintenance and allowances as they are enti-
tled to receive, and for regulating the amount and quality of all such articles in cases where the laws
at present existing may not have made any regulation or any adequate regulation for that purpose; and
it is also necessary that proper rules should be established for the prevention and punishment of any
fraud which might be practised, or of any omissions or neglects which might occur, respecting the
quantity or the quality of the supplies so to be furnished, or respecting the periods for the delivery of
the same; and whereas it is necessary, in those cases in which the food of any such predial appren-
ticed labourers as aforesaid may either wholly or in part be raised by themselves by the cultivation of
ground set apart and allotted for that purpose, that proper regulations should be made and established
as to the extent of such grounds, and as to the distance at which such grounds may be so allotted from
the ordinary place of abode of such predial apprenticed labourers, and respecting the deductions to be
made from the cultivation of such grounds from the annual time during which such predial appren-
ticed labourers are declared liable to labour; and whereas it may also be necessary, by such regula-
tions, to secure to apprenticed labourers the enjoyment for their own benefit of that portion of their
time during which they are not required to labour in the service of their respective employers, and for
preventing excesses in the computation of the time during which such labourers are required to labour
in the service of their employers; and it is also necessary that provision should be made for prevent-
ing the imposition of task-work on any apprenticed labourer without his or her free consent to under-
take the same; but it may be necessary by such regulations in certain cases to require and provide for
the acquiescence of the minority of the predial apprenticed labourers attached to any plantation or
estate in the distribution and apportionment amongst their whole body of any task-work which the
majority of them shall be willing and desirous collectively to undertake; and it is also necessary that
regulations should be made respecting any voluntary contracts into which any apprenticed labourers
may enter with their respective employers or with any other person for hired service for any future
period, and for limiting the greatest period of time to which such voluntary contract may extend, and
for enforcing the punctual performance of such contracts on the part both of such labourers and of
those engaging for their employment and hire; and it is also necessary that regulations should be made
for the prevention or punishment of any cruelty, injustice, or other wrong or injury done to or inflicted
upon any such apprenticed labourers by those entitled to their services; and it is also necessary that
proper regulations should be made respecting the manner and form in which indentures of appren-
ticeship shall be made on behalf of children, and respecting the registering and preservation of such inden-
tures; and whereas it is also necessary that provision should be made for insuring promptitude and
despatch, and for preventing unnecessary expense, in the discharge by the justices of the peace of the
jurisdiction and authorities committed to them, and for enabling such justices to decide in a summary
way such questions as may be brought before them in that capacity, and for the division of the colonies
into districts for the purposes of such jurisdiction, and for the frequent and punctual visitation
by such justices of the apprenticed labourers within their respective districts; and it is also necessary
that regulations should be made for indemnifying and protecting such justices of the peace in the up-
right execution and discharge of their duties; and whereas such regulations could not without great
inconvenience be made except by the respective governors, councils, and assemblies, or other local
regulations of the said respective colonies, or by his Majesty, with the advice of his privy council, in
reference to those colonies to which the legislative authority of his Majesty in council extends; he it
therefore enacted and declared, that nothing in this act contained extends or shall be construed to
intend to prevent the enactment by the respective governors, councils, and assemblies, or by such
other local legislatures as aforesaid, or by his Majesty, with the advice of his privy council, of any
such acts of general assembly, or ordinances, or orders in council as may be requisite for making
and establishing such rules and regulations, or for carrying the same into full and complete effect;
provided nevertheless, that it shall not be lawful for any such governor, council, and assembly, or
for any local legislature, or for his Majesty in council, to make or establish any enactment, regulation,
provision, rule, or order in anywise repugnant or contradictory to this present act, but that every such
enactment, regulation, &c. shall be and is declared to be absolutely null and void.—§ 16.

Such Colonial Acts may not authorize the Whipping or Punishment of the Labourer.—It shall not be
lawful for any such governor, &c., or other colonial legislature, or for his Majesty in council, by any
such act, ordinance, &c., to authorize any one entitled to the services of any apprenticed labourer, or
any person or persons other than justices of the peace holding special commissions as aforesaid, to
punish any apprenticed labourer for any offence committed or alleged to have been committed, by the
whipping, beating, or imprisonment of his or her person, or by any other personal correction or pun-
ishment whatsoever, or by any addition to the hours of labour herein-before limited; nor to authorize
any court, judge, or justice to punish any apprenticed labourer, being a female, for any offence by her
committed, by whipping or beating her person; and that every enactment, regulation, &c. for any
such purpose shall be hereby declared to be absolutely null and of no effect; provided always, that nothing
in this act contained doth or shall extend to exempt any apprenticed labourer from the operation of
any law or police regulation in force for the prevention or punishment of any offence, such law or
police regulation being in force against and applicable to all persons of free condition.—§ 17.

The next 3 sections provide that none but special justices, holding commissions as aforesaid, shall
act in execution of this act, or interfere between apprenticed labourers and their employers; but re-
serving to the supreme courts such powers in relation hereto as may now be vested in them.

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missioners shall proceed to
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It shall appear that any
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held in slavery in any colony mentioned in this act contrary to law, in every such case the commis-
sioners shall deduct from the sum to be appropriated as compensation to the proprietors in such colony,
such sums as shall correspond with the estimated value and number of the persons so illegally regis-
tered and held in slavery; and all such sum or sums which may be deducted as herein-before provided
shall be applied towards defraying the general expenses of the commission: provided always, that for
the purpose of ascertaining in what cases such deductions shall be made, every question arising in any
particular respecting the servile condition of any persons registered as slaves shall be inquired of and
determined by the commissioners to be appointed under this act, according to such rules of legal pre-
sumption and evidence as are or shall be established by any law in force or which shall be in force in
any such colony.— 45.

Commissioners to institute Inquiries, &c.—It shall be the duty of said commissioners, and they are
hereby required, to institute a full and exact inquiry into all the circumstances connected with each of
the said several colonies which in their judgment ought, in justice and equity, to regulate or affect the
apportionment within the same of that part of the general compensation fund which shall be assigned
to each of the said colonies; and especially such commissioners shall have regard to the relative value
of special slaves and of unattached slaves in every such colony; and they shall distinguish such slaves,
whether predaial or unattached, into as many distinct classes as, regard being had to the circumstances
of each colony, shall appear just; and such commissioners shall, with all practicable precision, ascer-
tain and fix the average value of a slave in each of the classes into which the slaves in any such colony
shall be divided; and the commissioners shall also inquire and consider of the principles according to
which the compensation to be allotted in respect to any slave or body of slaves ought, according to the
rules of law and equity, to be distributed amongst persons who, as owners or creditors, legatees or
assignees, may have any joint or common interest in any such slave or slaves, or may be entitled to
an interest in such slave or slaves, either in possession, remainder, reversion, or expectancy; and
the commissioners shall also inquire and consider of the principles and manner in which provision might
be most effectually made for the protection of any interest in any such compensation money which may
belong to or be vested in any married women, infants, lunatics, or persons of insane or unsound mind,
or persons beyond the seas, or labouring under any other legal or natural disability or incapacity, and
according to what rules, and in what manner, and under what authority, trustees should, when neces-
sary, be appointed for the safe custody, for the benefit of any person or persons, of such compensation
fund, and of any part thereof, and for regulating the duties of such trustees, and providing them with a
fair and reasonable indemnity; and the commissioners shall also inquire and consider upon what
principles, according to the established rules of law and equity in similar cases, the accession to such
funds should be regulated upon the death of any person entitled thereto who may die intestate; and
the commissioners are also required to consider of any other question which it may be necessary to
investigate in order to establish just and equitable rules for the apportionment of such compensation
money amongst the persons seized of, or entitled to, or having any mortgage, charge, incumbrance,
or lien upon, or any claim to, or right or interest in, any slave or slaves to be manumitted
aforesaid, at the time of such their manumission; and having made all such inquiries, and having
taken into all such matters and things as aforesaid into their consideration, the said commissioners shall
draw up and frame such general rules, regard being had to the laws and usages in force in each colony
respectively, as to them may seem best adapted in each colony for securing the just and equitable dis-
tribution of the said funds amongst or for the benefit of the several persons aforesaid, and for the pro-
tection of such funds, and for the appointment and indemnification of such trustees as aforesaid; and
such general rules, when framed, and agreed upon by the commissioners, shall be subscribed with
their respective hands and seals, and transmitted to the president of council, to be laid before his Ma-
jesty; and so from time to time as often as any further general rules should be so framed and agreed
to for the purposes aforesaid, or any of them.— 47.

Acts to be published in the London Gazette.—The general rules to be transmitted as aforesaid to the
said Lord President shall be forthwith published in the London Gazette on 2 several occasions at least,
together with a notice that all persons interested in or affected by them may, by a time to be in such
notice limited, appeal against any such rules to his Majesty in council; and it shall be lawful for the
 Lords of his Majesty's privy council, or for any 3 or more of them, by any further notice or notices
 published in the London Gazette, to postpone at the time for receiving any such appeal.— 48.

Section 48. enacts that his Majesty in council may hear such appeals, and thereupon confirm or dis-
allow any general rule so appealed against.

Section 50. enacts that, in a absence of appeal, his Majesty in council may confirm, rescind, or amend
such rules.

The remaining sections respect the enrolment of rules, and the proceedings under appeal to his Ma-
jesty in council; the mode in which sums awarded by the commissioners are to be paid, &c.

Foreign Slave Trade.—At the congress of Vienna, in 1814, the plenipotentiaries of the
great powers agreed to a declaration that the slave trade was "repugnant to the principles
of humanity and of universal morality; and that it was the earnest desire of their sovereigns
to put an end to a scourge which had so long desolated Africa, degraded Europe, and afflicted
humanity."

But notwithstanding this memorable declaration, the immediate abolition of the trade was
not agreed to. France was allowed to continue it for five years. It is, besides, abundantly
certain that, though the trade nominally ceased in 1819, it has since been clandestinely car-
ried on to a great extent in French ships, if not with the connivance, at least without much
opposition, on the part of the late government of France. There is now, however, reason to
hope that it will be effectually suppressed; for according to a recent arrangement (Nov. 30,
1831) made with his Majesty Louis-Philippe, the right of search is reciprocally conceded,
within certain limits, by the French and English; so that French ships suspected of being
engaged in the trade may be stopped by British cruisers.

Considering the efforts Great Britain made in behalf of Spain and Portugal, and the influ-
ence she might have been supposed to have acquired with the restored monarchs of those
countries, it may well excite astonishment that our negotiators (whether from the intract-
ability of those with whom they had to deal, or from want of address and firmness on their
parts, we leave it to others to decide) were unable to prevail on these powers to renounce
the trade till after the lapse of a considerable period. They succeeded, indeed, in inducing
them to exempt that portion of the African coast north of the Equator from their piratical
attacks; and for this concession, and damages alleged to have been sustained by their slave

ships from our cruisers, Great Britain has paid them no less than 1,230,000*l.*—(See *SISMA LORNE.*)

The Spanish slave trade was to have finally ceased, according to the stipulations in the treaty between Spain and this country of the 5th of July and 28th of August, 1814, in 1820. But within these 2 years, and, perhaps, at this very moment, slave ships have been publicly fitted out from Cuba, and immense numbers of slaves have been imported into that island, with the open connivance of authorities. A mixed commission court, consisting of British and Spanish commissioners, has been established at Havannah, for the condemnation of vessels proved to have been engaged in the slave trade. But we are officially informed by Mr. Macleay, one of the commissioners, that since the establishment of the court no seizure of a slave vessel has ever taken place, but on the interference and denunciation of the British commissioners; and even then *such seizure has only been made, to be instantly followed by a perfect acquittal in the Spanish tribunals!*"—(Parl. Paper, No. 120. Sess. 1831, p. 53.)

Slaves were freely imported in immense numbers into Brazil, till February, 1830, when the trade was to cease, conformably to the convention entered into with this country on the 23d of June, 1826.—(See *RIO DE JANEIRO.*) But whether the clandestine and illegal, as well as the open and legitimate importation of slaves, be at an end, is more than we can undertake to say.

On the whole, we are afraid that nothing short of a declaration by the great powers, making the slave trade piracy, will be sufficient entirely to rid humanity of its guilt and horrors.

(*Distribution of Slave Compensation.*—The Commissioners for the apportionment of the sum of 20,000,000*l.* granted by parliament as compensation to slave owners, under the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 73, have issued the following table. It shows the average value of a slave in each colony; the number of slaves in each by the last registration; the total value of the slaves, supposing the annual value of each were realized; and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* to which each colony is entitled.

Colony.	Average Value of a Slave from 1825 to 1830.			Number of Slaves by the last Registration in this Country.	Relative Value of the Slaves.			Proportion of the 20,000,000 <i>l.</i> to which each Colony is entitled.		
	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Bermuda	27	4	11 3-4	4,203	114,527	7	5 1-4	5,698	5	0 11-4
Bahamas	29	15	9 3-4	6,705	290,473	15	3 3-4	13,513	7	8 3-4
Jamaica	44	16	2 1-4	81,626	13,511,123	5	2 0	6,101,227	8	10 3-4 2-8
Honduras	180	4	7 1-3	1,520	220,914	0	0	101,848	19	7 13-8
Virgin Islands	31	19	3-4	5,122	165,143	0	0	73,940	8	9 14-8
Antigua	52	13	10 1-2	22,527	283,198	10	1 1-2	425,966	7	0 14-13
Montserrat	36	17	10 3-4	5,355	224,458	8	0 1-4	103,529	18	2 0-8
Nevis	39	5	11 3-4	5,722	341,893	6	0 1-2	151,007	8	11 3-4 3-8
St. Christopher's	36	6	10 3-4	20,680	750,840	7	1	391,680	10	7 1-4 2-8
Dominica	43	9	7 1-2	14,964	634,715	2	0	274,243	12	5 13-8
Barbadoes	47	1	8 1-2	22,807	3,967,478	12	0 4-8	1,791,243	17	7 0-7
Grenada	56	6	0	23,436	1,326,834	16	0	618,448	17	7 0-8
St. Vincent's	52	6	0	22,227	1,241,421	12	4	592,508	13	0 14-25
Tobago	45	13	0 1-2	11,521	523,641	10	2 1-2	254,254	4	4 14-16
St. Lucia	55	18	7	13,548	739,880	10	4	355,227	15	13 1-4 1-8
Trinidad	105	4	5 1-4	22,519	3,352,635	18	0 3-4	1,620,119	11	3 13-11
British Guiana	114	11	5 1-4	41,615	5,723,747	15	1 1-4	4,327,417	10	0 13-20
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It was by an act of Congress, passed on the 2d of March, 1807, that the importation of slaves into the United States was prohibited, under severe penalties, after the 1st of January, 1808, this being the earliest day on which the prohibition was allowed, by the constitution of the general government, to take effect. By the act of the 20th of April, 1818, those penalties were increased, and the citizens of the United States were prohibited from being in any way concerned in the slave trade. On the 3d of March, 1819, the president was authorized to employ the armed vessels of the United States to enforce the acts of Congress prohibiting the slave trade; and all vessels unlawfully engaged in the transportation of negroes, mulattoes, or persons of colour, were rendered liable to seizures. At length, by the act of May 15th, 1820, entitled "An act to continue in force 'An act to protect the commerce of the United States and punish the crime of piracy,'" it was enacted,

"That if any citizen of the United States, being of the crew or ship's company of any foreign ship or vessel engaged in the slave trade, or any person whatever, being of the crew or ship's company of any ship or vessel, owned in whole or in part, or navigated for, or in behalf of, any citizen or citizens of the United States, shall land, from any such ship or vessel, and, on any foreign shore, seize any negro or mulatto, not held to service or labour by the laws of either of the states or territories of the United States, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall decoy, or forcibly bring on board, or shall receive, such negro or mulatto on board any such ship or vessel, with intent as aforesaid, such citizen or person shall be adjudged a pirate; and, on conviction thereof, before the circuit court of the United States for the district wherein he may be brought or found, shall suffer death.

And also,

"That if any citizen of the United States, being of the crew or ship's company of any foreign ship or vessel engaged in the slave trade, or any person whatever, being of the crew or ship's company of any ship or vessel, owned wholly or in part, or navigated for, or in behalf of, any citizen or citizens of the United States, shall forcibly confine or detain, or aid and abet in forcibly confining or detaining, on board such ship or vessel, any negro or mulatto not held to service by the laws of either of the states or territories of the United States, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall, on board any such ship or vessel, offer or attempt to sell, as a slave, any negro or mulatto not held to service as aforesaid, or shall, on the high seas, or any where on tide water, transfer or deliver over,

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on any other ship or vessel, any negro or mulatto, not held to service as aforesaid, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall land, or deliver on shore, from on board any such ship or vessel, any such negro or mulatto, with intent to make sale of, or having previously sold, such negro or mulatto, as a slave, such citizen or person shall be adjudged a pirate; and, on conviction thereof, before the circuit court of the United States for the district wherein he shall be brought or found, shall suffer death.

See *Kear's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 9th, and *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*, Book 9th, Chapter 9th.—*Am. Ed.*]

SMALTZ, or **SMALT** (Ger. *Schmalz*; Du. *Smalt*; Fr. *Small*; It. *Smalto azzurro*, *Cosentino*; Sp. *Esmalte*, *Azul azur*; Rus. *Lasor*), an oxide of cobalt, melted with siliceous earth and potash. It is a sort of glass, of a beautiful deep blue colour; and being ground very fine, is known by the name of powder blue. The colour of smaltz is not affected by fire; and it is consequently in great demand in the painting of earthenware. It is also employed in the colouring of paper, and for other purposes in the arts. Beckmann has proved that the process used in the preparation of smaltz was invented about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century; and that the blue glass of the ancients owes its colour, not to the presence of cobalt or of smaltz, but to that of iron.—(*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. ii. art. *Cobalt*.)

Smaltz is principally manufactured in Germany and Norway. Of 391,523 lbs. imported into Great Britain in 1831, 206,840 lbs. came from Norway, 160,705 from Germany, and 23,958 from the Netherlands. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the entries of smaltz for home consumption amounted to 24,098 lbs. a year. The duty on smaltz has recently been reduced from 6d. to 4d. per lb.

SMUGGLING, the offence of defrauding the revenue by the introduction of articles into consumption, without paying the duties chargeable upon them. It may be committed indifferently either upon the excise or customs revenue.

Origin and Prevention of Smuggling.—This crime, which occupies so prominent a place in the criminal legislation of all modern states, is wholly the result of vicious commercial and financial legislation. It is the fruit either of prohibitions of importation, or of oppressively high duties. It does not originate in any depravity inherent in man; but in the folly and ignorance of legislators. A prohibition against importing a commodity does not take away the taste for it; and the imposition of a high duty on any article occasions a universal desire to escape or evade its payment. Hence the rise and occupation of the smuggler. The risk of being detected in the clandestine introduction of commodities under any system of fiscal regulations may always be valued at a certain average rate; and wherever the duties exceed this rate, smuggling immediately takes place. Now, there are plainly but two ways of checking this practice,—either the temptation to smuggle must be diminished by lowering the duties, or the difficulties in the way of smuggling must be increased. The first is obviously the more natural and efficient method of effecting the object in view; but the second has been most generally resorted to, even in cases where the duties were quite excessive. Governments have uniformly almost consulted the persons employed in the collection of the revenue with respect to the best mode of rendering taxes effectual; though it is clear that the interests, prejudices, and peculiar habits of such persons utterly disqualify them from forming a sound opinion on such a subject. They cannot recommend a reduction of duties as a means of repressing smuggling and increasing revenue, without acknowledging their own incapacity to detect and defeat illicit practices; and the result has been, that, instead of ascribing the prevalence of smuggling to its true causes, the officers of customs and excise have almost universally ascribed it to some defect in the laws, or in the mode of administering them, and have proposed repressing it by new regulations, and by increasing the number and severity of the penalties affecting the smuggler. As might have been expected, these attempts have, in the great majority of cases, proved signally unsuccessful. And it has been invariably found, that no vigilance on the part of the revenue officers, and no severity of punishment, can prevent the smuggling of such commodities as are either prohibited or loaded with oppressive duties. The smuggler is generally a popular character; and whatever the law may declare on the subject, it is quite ludicrous to expect that the bulk of society will ever be brought to think that those who furnish them with cheap brandy, Geneva, tobacco, &c. are guilty of any very heinous offence.

"To pretend," says Dr. Smith, "to have any scruple about buying smuggled goods, though a manifest encouragement to the violation of the revenue laws, and to the perjury which almost always attends it, would, in most countries, be regarded as one of those pedantic pieces of hypocrisy, which, instead of gaining credit with any body, seems only to expose the person who affects to practise them to the suspicion of being a greater knave than most of his neighbours. By this indulgence of the public, the smuggler is often encouraged to continue a trade, which he is thus taught to consider as, in some measure, innocent; and when the severity of the revenue laws is ready to fall upon him, he is frequently disposed to defend with violence what he has been accustomed to regard as his just property; and from being at first rather imprudent than criminal, he, at last, too often becomes one of the most determined violators of the laws of society."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. iii. p. 491.)

To create by means of high duties an overwhelming temptation to indulge in crime, and then to punish men for indulging in it, is a proceeding completely subversive of every prin-

0,000. l.—(See *STARR*.)

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Importation of slaves into January, 1805; this being of the general government, increased, and the citizens the slave trade. On the 3d of the United States is co- lawfully engaged in the able to seizure. At length, to protect the commerce of provision for punishing

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principle of justice. It revolts the natural feelings of the people; and teaches them to feel an interest in the worst characters—for such smugglers generally are—to espouse their cause and avenge their wrongs. A punishment which is not proportioned to the offence, which does not carry the sanction of public opinion along with it, can never be productive of any good effect. The true way to put down smuggling is to render it unprofitable; to diminish the temptation to engage in it; and this is not to be done by surrounding the coasts with cordons of troops, by the multiplication of oaths and penalties, and making the country the theatre of ferocious and bloody contests in the field, and of perjury and chicanery in the courts of law; but by repealing prohibitions, and reducing duties, so that their collection may be enforced with a moderate degree of vigilance; and that the forfeiture of the article may be a sufficient penalty upon the smuggler. It is in this, and in this only, that we must seek for an effectual check to illicit trafficking. Whenever the profits of the fair trade become nearly equal to those of the smuggler, the latter is forced to abandon his hazardous profession. But so long as prohibitions or oppressively high duties are kept up, or, which is in fact, the same thing, so long as *high bounties* are held out to encourage the adventuresome, the needy, and the profligate, to enter on this career, we may be assured that armies of soldiers and custom-house officers, backed by the utmost severity of the revenue laws, will be insufficient to hinder them.

Smuggling in France and England.—The recently printed *Report of Messrs. Villiers and Bowring*, on the commercial relations between France and Great Britain, contains some very curious and instructive details as to the smuggling carried on between them. They afford the most satisfactory and convincing proofs of the incapacity of restrictions and prohibitions to secure a real monopoly of any extensive market; and show that their principal effect is to promote illicit traffic; and to make that ingenuity and invention be exerted in devising means to defeat and elude the law, which, under a more liberal system, would be exerted to improve the methods of production. The introduction of prohibited goods is more easily effected by land than by sea; and smuggling into France is, in consequence, carried on principally through her north and east frontiers. Considerable quantities of prohibited or overtaxed goods are, however, introduced by sea. A regular tariff of risks is established; and persons of undoubted solidity contract, for certain premiums, which for the most part are abundantly moderate, to deliver any prohibited article in any part of France.

Owing to the system of *colrois*, or of the collection of duties at the gates of large towns, where an inspection of the goods may also be made, the cost of smuggling into Paris and other populous places is considerably greater than that of smuggling into villages. On an average, however, most foreign goods may be delivered in Paris at a charge of from 25 to 30 per cent. *ad valorem* on their real value.

Notwithstanding the advantage of a sea frontier, a coast guard, and a most efficient Custom-house establishment, the facts embodied by Messrs. Villiers and Bowring in their *Report* show that smuggling is in quite as flourishing a condition on the shores of England as on the land frontier of France. The premium on the illicit introduction amongst us of prohibited or overtaxed goods varies from 15 to 40 per cent. *ad valorem*, according to the description of the article. The parties employing the smugglers run no risk. The latter, or their agents, attend regularly upon 'Change; and "it is their constant practice to deposit the value of the goods confided to their care in a banker's acceptance, as a security to the owner!"—(*Report*, p. 54.) It could hardly, indeed, have been otherwise. Brandy, which is the favourite article for smuggling speculations, may be bought for shipment in France at from 3s. 6d. to 5s. a gallon. It is highly popular amongst us; but instead of admitting it to consumption under a moderate duty, or even under the high duty of 8s. or 10s., we load it with the oppressive and exorbitant duty of 22s. 6d.; that is, with a duty varying from 450 to 650 per cent. *ad valorem*! Had those, who originally imposed this duty, and those by whom it has been kept up, been deeply interested in smuggling adventures, their conduct would have been intelligible; but, as no such excuse can be made for them, it has been in the last degree irrational and absurd. The temptation to the illicit introduction of brandy, occasioned by the exorbitancy of the duty, has roused all the energies of the smuggler, who has defeated the utmost vigilance of the revenue officers, and eluded or defied the multiplied pains and penalties of the customs laws! Messrs. Villiers and Bowring estimate, from a comparison of the shipments of different articles from France for England with the imports into the latter, and other authentic data, that the total amount of duties evaded by the fraudulent importation of overtaxed French articles (exclusive of tobacco, whole cargoes of which are sometimes introduced into Ireland) into this country amounts to about 800,000*l.* a year.—(p. 54.) Of this sum, the loss on brandy makes by far the largest item; and is said to be "*considerably more than 500,000*l.**"—(p. 57.) It is plain, therefore, that, as a means of raising revenue, this system is signally unsuccessful; but it is so in a far greater degree than appears even from the above statements: for, in addition to the vast quantity of overtaxed articles clandestinely introduced, and on which a reasonable duty would be paid, it occasions the overloading of the market with spurious, counterfeit articles, by which the public health as well as the revenue is materially injured. Nor is this all. In

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to render oppressive duties productive of any revenue, it is necessary to organise and keep constantly on foot a very numerous and costly customs establishment. It is abundantly certain that we lose, by the clandestine importation of brandy, geneva, and tobacco, from France, Belgium, and Holland, above 1,500,000*l.* a year of revenue; and it is admitted, on all hands, that, but for the oppressive duties on these articles, a saving of 500,000*l.* a year might be effected in the customs department. Nothing, therefore, can be more futile than to attempt vindicating exorbitant duties on the pretence of their being required to keep up the revenue. In point of fact, such duties are about the most inefficient engines that can be devised for its reduction. The revenue derived from coffee has been trebled by reducing the duty from 1*l.* 7*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.—(see *COFFEE*); the revenue derived from British spirits was materially increased by reducing the duty from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* the wine gallon—(see *STARRS*); and Mr. Pitt increased the duty derived from brandy, geneva, &c. in 1786, not by adding to, but by taking 50 per cent. from, the duties with which they had previously been burdened! There cannot, indeed, be the shadow of a doubt that the revenue derived from brandy and geneva would be very largely increased by reducing the duties to 8*s.* or 10*s.* a gallon. A measure of this sort, coupled as it ought to be with a reduction of the duties on tobacco—(see *TOSACCO*)—would do what neither coast guards, preventive services, revenue cruisers, or customs acts will ever do,—it would go far to annihilate smuggling; and would enable the services of a large number of revenue officers to be dispensed with.

But the demoralising influence of an extensive smuggling system is the worst consequence of oppressive duties and prohibitions. They make the smuggler be regarded as a public benefactor, and procure for him the sympathy of all classes, and the strenuous support of those in the lower walks of life. No one acquainted with the state of the peasantry in extensive districts of Kent and Sussex, will believe that it is easy to exaggerate the evils that spring from this source. The whole body of labourers may be said to be in combination with the smugglers; and numbers of them are every now and then withdrawn from their usual employments to assist in their desperate adventures. Lawless, predatory, and ferocious habits are thus widely diffused; and thousands, who, but for this moral contamination, would have been sober and industrious, are trained to despise and trample on the law, and to regard its functionaries as enemies whom it is meritorious to waylay and assault.

Such being the operation and result of those oppressive duties and absolute prohibitions to which smuggling owes its origin, it is not surely too much to hope that the former may be modified, and the latter repealed. When this has been done, smuggling will cease; but not at the same moment sooner. Till then it will continue, in despite of all the impotent efforts that may be made for its suppression, to scatter its seeds, and spread its roots on all sides; impoverishing the fair and enriching the illicit dealer—emptying the public treasury of the state, and filling its goals with criminals!

Smuggling by Dogs.—The following extract from the *Report of Messrs. Villiers and Bowring* develops one of those ingenious devices by which mischievous customs laws are now to be defeated.

"The director of the Custom-house made, on the 30th of July, 1831, some very curious statements to the minister of finance on the subject of the fraudulent introduction of articles by means of dogs. He says, that since the suppression of smuggling by horses, in 1825, dogs have been employed; that the first attempts were made in the neighbourhood of Valenciennes, and that it afterwards spread to Dunkirk and Charleville; that it has since extended to Thionville and Strasburgh; and, last of all, in 1828, to Besançon.

"In 1823, it was estimated that 100,000 kilogrammes of goods were thus introduced into France; in 1825, 187,315; and in 1826, 2,100,000 kilogrammes; all these estimates being reported as rather under the mark: the calculation has been made at 2½ kilogrammes 'pro rata' per dog. The dogs sometimes carry 10 kilogrammes, and sometimes even 13. The above estimate supposes that 1 dog in 10 in certain districts, and in others 1 in 20, is killed; but these calculations must necessarily be very vague. In the opinion of many of the Custom-house officers, not more than 1 dog in 75 is destroyed, even when notice has been given, and the dogs are expected.

"Tobacco and colonial produce are generally the objects of this illicit trade; sometimes cotton twist and manufactures. In the neighbourhood of Dunkirk dogs have been taken with burdens of the value of 600, or 800, and even 1,200 francs. Publications hostile to the government have not unfrequently been so introduced.

"The dogs which are trained to these 'dishonest habits' are conducted in packs to the foreign frontiers; they are kept without food for many hours; they are then beaten and laden, and at the beginning of the night started on their travels. They reach the abodes of their masters, which are generally situated 2 or 3 leagues from the frontiers, as speedily as they can, where they are sure to be well treated and provided with a quantity of food. It is said they do much mischief by the destruction of agricultural property, inasmuch as they usually take the most direct course across the country. They are dogs of a large size for the most part.

"The *Report* states, that these carrier dogs, being so tormented by fatigue, hunger, and ill usage, and hunted by the Custom-house officers in all directions, are exceedingly subject to madness, and frequently bite the officers, one of whom died in consequence in 1829. They have also been trained to attack the Custom-house officers in case of interference."—(p. 47.)

Various efforts have been made to suppress this species of smuggling, but hitherto without success. It is ludicrous, indeed, to suppose, seeing the vast extent of the land frontier of France, that any means should ever be adopted capable of excluding cheap foreign products in extensive demand. Nothing short of surrounding the country by Bishop Berkley's wall of brass could accomplish such an object. The director general of the French customs says,

that smuggling is carried on to an extent that is *vraisment effrayante*; and he may truly say so, when it is estimated that English bobbinet, though prohibited, is introduced into France to the extent of 10,000,000 fr., or 400,000*l.* a year; cotton twill, and various other prohibited articles of British produce and manufacture, are also everywhere met with.

Thus it is that the two greatest and most civilised nations of Europe, by upholding vicious and destructive systems of commercial and financial legislation, mutually injure each other. Franco and England, by their proximity, and the difference and variety of their productions, are fitted to carry on a far more extensive and beneficial commerce than is carried on by any other two nations. But owing to their jealousy of each other's advancement, and the prevalence of unfounded theories as to the causes of national wealth, their intercourse has been subjected to the most oppressive fetters, and confined within the narrowest limits; most part too, of what is actually carried on, has been diverted into illegitimate channels; so that what would, if left to itself, have been the most prolific source of wealth, and the most powerful incentive to genius and invention, has been made principally productive of crime and demoralisation. This conduct is as much opposed to their duty as to their interest. *Hominum hominum causâ sunt generati, ut ipsi inter se aliis prodesse possint. . . Sed ut magna utilitatis adipiscimur conspiratione hominum ac consensu, sic nulla tam detestabilis peccati est, quæ non homini ab homine nascatur.*—(Cic. De Officiis, lib. ii. c. 5.)

Law as to Smuggling in England.—The penalties imposed on illicit dealing in commodities subject to duties of excise have been specified in the articles on such commodities. The following formidable statute, with its multiplied provisions and penalties, refers entirely to customs duties. The importance of the subject has induced us to give it nearly entire.

ACT 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 53., FOR THE PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING.

VESSELS AND BOATS.

Commencement of the Act.—First of September, 1833.—§ 1.

Certain Vessels found within certain Distances of the U. K. to be forfeited.—If any vessel not being square-rigged, or any boat, belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having in the persons on board subjects of his Majesty, shall be found or discovered to have been within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any vessel belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having in the persons on board subjects of his Majesty, or any foreign vessel not being square-rigged, or any foreign boat, in which there shall be 1 or more subjects of his Majesty, shall be found or discovered to have been within 4 leagues of that part of the United Kingdom which lies between the North Foreland on the coast of Kent, and Beachy Head on the coast of Sussex, or within 1 league of any other part of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any foreign vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man respectively, or within any bay, harbour, river, or creek, or of belonging to any one of the said islands; any such vessel or boat so found or discovered, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, any spirits not being in a cask or package containing 40 gallons at the least, or any tea exceeding 6 lbs. weight in the whole, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 450 lbs. weight at least, or being packed separately in any manner within any cask or package, or any cordage or other articles adapted and prepared for slinging or sinking small casks, or any casks or other vessels whatsoever of less size or content than 40 gallons, of the description used for the smuggling of spirits, then and in every such case the said spirits, tea, tobacco, or snuff, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and the cordage or other articles, casks, and other vessels of the description aforesaid, and also the vessel or boat, shall be forfeited.—§ 2.

Any Vessel or Boat arriving within any Port of the U. K. having prohibited Goods on board, forfeited, unless there was no Want of Care in the Master or Owner.—If any vessel or boat whatever shall arrive or shall be found or discovered to have been within any port, harbour, river, or creek of the United Kingdom, not being driven thereto by stress of weather or other unavoidable accident, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, within any such port, harbour, river, or creek, any spirits not being in a cask or package containing 40 gallons at the least, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 450 lbs. weight at least, or being packed separately in any manner within any cask or package, every such vessel or boat, together with such spirits or tobacco or snuff, shall be forfeited: provided always, that if it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that the said spirits, tobacco, or snuff were on board without the knowledge or privity of the owner or master of such vessel or boat, and without any wilful neglect or want of reasonable care on their or either of their behalves, that then and in such case the said commissioners shall and they are hereby authorised and required to deliver up the said vessel or boat to the owner or master of the same.—§ 3.

Certain Cases in which Vessels shall not be forfeited.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to render any vessel liable to forfeiture on account of any tobacco or snuff from the East Indies being in packages of 100 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any cigars being in packages of 100 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any tobacco made up in rolls, being the produce of and imported from the State of Colombia, and in packages containing 320 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire which may be separated or divided in any manner within the outward package, provided such package be a hogshhead, cask, chest, or case containing 450 lbs. weight nett at least, or on account of any rum of and from the British plantations in cases containing 30 gallons at the least, or on account of any spirits, tea, or tobacco ready intended for the consumption of the seamen and passengers on board during their voyage, and not being more in quantity than is necessary for that purpose, or to render any square-rigged vessel liable to forfeiture on account of any tea, or of any spirits in glass bottles, being really part of the cargo of such ship, and included in the manifest of such ship, or to render any vessel liable to forfeiture if really bound from one foreign port to another foreign port, and pursuing such voyage, wind and weather permitting.—§ 4.

Vessels belonging to his Majesty's Subjects, &c. throwing overboard any Goods during their Voyage.—When any vessel or boat belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having in the persons on board subjects of his Majesty, shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, and shall not bring to upon signal made by any vessel or boat in his Majesty's service, or a

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SMUGGLING.

—If any vessel not being 's subjects, or having ite been within 100 leagues or in part to his Majesty's foreign vessels not being t of his Majesty, shall be ed Kingdom where it is be- east of Sussex, or within en vessel or boat shall be Kingdom; or if any vesse- and of Guernsey, Jersey creek of or belonging to red, having on board or in ched thereto, or conveying ge containing 40 gallons of ruff not being in a cask In any manner within any or slinging or sinking any 40 gallons, of the descrip- id spirits, tea, tobacco, or cordage or other articles, ed separately in any man- Goods on board, forfeit, boat whatever shall arrive er, or creek of the United iddable accident, having o- namer attached thereto, rbour, river, or creek, any r any tobacco or snuff not ed separately in any man- such spirits or tobacco or to the satisfaction of the ff were on board without without any willful neglect and in such case the said up the said vessel or boat

ained shall extend to res- the East Indies being in packages of 100 lbs. weight use of and imported from enat, or on account of tor or divided in any number chest, or case containing rish plantations in rock too really intended for the, and not being more is vessel liable to forfeiture the cargo of such ship, and ture if really bound from and weather permitting.

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the service of the revenue, hoisting the proper pendant and ensign, in order to bring such vessel or boat on board, and thereupon chase shall be given, if any person or persons on board such vessel or boat so chased shall, during the chase or before such vessel or boat shall bring to, throw overboard any part of the lading of such vessel or boat, or shall stave or destroy any part of such lading, to prevent seizure thereof, then and in such case the said vessel or boat shall be forfeited; and all persons escaping from such vessel or boats, or from any foreign vessel or boat, during any chase made thereof by any vessel or boat in his Majesty's service or in the service of the revenue, shall be deemed and taken to be subjects of his Majesty, unless it shall be proved to the contrary.—§ 5.

Vessels in Port with a Cargo, and afterwards found in Ballast, and Cargo unaccounted for, forfeited.—Any vessel or boat whatever shall be found within the limits of any port of the United Kingdom without a cargo on board, and such vessel or boat shall afterwards be found light or in ballast, and the master is liable to give a due account of the port or place within the United Kingdom where such vessel or boat shall have legally discharged her cargo, such vessel or boat shall be forfeited.—§ 6.

Regulations as to Vessels sailing from Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—No vessel or boat belonging wholly or in part to his Majesty's subjects shall sail from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, without a clearance, whether in ballast or having a cargo; and if with a cargo, the master shall give bond to his Majesty, in double the value of the vessel or boat and of the cargo, for duly clearing the same at the port for which the vessel clears; and every such vessel or boat not having such clearance, or which, having a clearance for a cargo, shall be found light or with any part of the cargo discharged before delivery thereof at the port specified in the clearance (unless through necessity or for preservation of the vessel or boat, to be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs), shall be forfeited.—§ 7.

Vessels to bring to on being chased by Vessels or Boats of the Navy or in Preventive Service.—In case any vessel or boat is liable to seizure or examination under any act or law for the prevention of smuggling shall not bring to on being required so to do, on being chased by any vessel or boat in H. M. navy having the proper pendant and ensign of H. M. ships hoisted, or by any vessel or boat duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, having a proper pendant and ensign hoisted, it shall be lawful for the captain, master, or other person having charge or command of such vessel or boat in H. M. navy, or employed as aforesaid, (first causing a gun to be fired as a signal,) to fire at or into such vessel or boat; and such captain, master, or other person acting in his aid or assistance, or by his direction, shall be indemnified and discharged from any indictment, penalty, action, or other proceeding for so doing.—§ 8.

Vessels belonging to his Majesty's Subjects not to hoist any Pendant, Ensign, or Colours usually worn by his Majesty's Ships.—If any person or persons shall, from and after the passing of this act, wear, carry, or hoist in or on board any vessel or boat whatever belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects, whether the same be merchant or otherwise, without particular warrant for so doing from his Majesty, or the High Admiral of Great Britain, or the commissioners for executing the office of High Admiral of Great Britain, H. M. Jack, commonly called the Union Jack, or any pendant, ensign, or colour usually worn by H. M. ships, or any flag, jack, pendant, ensign, or colour resembling those of his Majesty, or those used on board H. M. ships, or any other ensign or colours than the ensign or colour by any proclamation of his Majesty now in force or hereafter to be issued prescribed to be worn, then and in every such case the master or other person having the charge or command thereof, or the owner or owners on board the same, and every other person so offending, shall forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*; and it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of H. M. navy on full pay, or for any officer or officers of customs or excise, to enter on board any such vessel or boat, and to seize any such flag, jack, pendant, ensign, or colours, and the same shall thereupon be forfeited.—§ 9.

Vessels and Boats used in Removal of raw Goods to be forfeited.—All vessels and boats made use of in the removal, carriage, or conveyance of any goods liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the revenue of customs, shall be forfeited.—§ 10.

Boats of Vessels to have thereon the Name of Vessel, Port, and Master.—The owner of every vessel belonging in the whole or in part to any of his Majesty's subjects shall paint or cause to be painted upon the outside of the stern of every boat belonging to such vessel, the name of such vessel, and the port or place to which she belongs, and the master's name withinside the transom, in white or yellow Roman letters, not less than 2 inches in length, on a black ground, on pain of the forfeiture of such boat so marked, wherever the same shall be found.—§ 11.

Boats not belonging to Ships to have Name of Owner, &c. thereon.—The owner of every boat not belonging to any vessel shall paint or cause to be painted upon the stern of such boat, in white or yellow Roman letters of 2 inches in length, on a black ground, the name of the owner or owners of the boat, and the port or place to which she belongs, on pain of the forfeiture of such boat not so marked, wherever the same shall be found.—§ 12.

Vessels and Boats used in piloting or fishing to be painted Black.—The owner or owners of every vessel or boat employed on the coast of the United Kingdom in piloting or fishing shall paint or cause to be painted on the outside of the stern of every such vessel or boat, or cause the same to be painted or tarred, entirely black, except the name or other description now required by law to be painted on such vessel or boat; and every such vessel or boat not so painted or tarred, and every boat so painted as to resemble any boat usually employed for the pretence of smuggling or in any other employment in H. M. service, shall be forfeited: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to prevent any distinguishing mark being placed on any vessel or boat, or to be otherwise painted, if the commissioners of customs think proper to allow the same, expressing it to be in the licence of said vessel or boat.—§ 13.

British Vessels having secret Places, &c. forfeited.—All vessels and boats belonging in the whole or in part to H. M. subjects, having false bulkheads, false bows, double sides or bottoms, or any secret or divided place whatsoever in the construction of the said vessel or boat adapted for the purpose of concealing goods, or having any hole, pipe, or other device in or about the vessel or boat adapted for the purpose of running goods, shall be forfeited, with all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel belonging to such vessel or boat; and all foreign vessels or boats, not being square-rigged, coming to any port of the United Kingdom, having on board any goods liable to the payment of duties, or prohibited to be imported, concealed in false bulkheads, false bows, double sides or bottoms, or any secret or disguised place in said vessel or boat, shall be forfeited.—§ 14.

Goods concealed on board forfeited, and all Goods packed thereon.—If any goods which are subject to any duty or restriction in respect of importation, or which are prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, shall be found concealed in any manner on board any vessel, or shall be found, either before or after landing, to have been concealed in any manner, in such case all such goods, and all other goods packed with them, shall be forfeited.—§ 15.

Licences.—N. B. The clauses of this act, with respect to the licensing of ships, from § 16. to § 27. both inclusive, are given under the word LICENCES.

VESSELS AND GOODS.

Goods whilpped without Payment of Duty, and prohibited Goods, liable to forfeiture.—If any goods liable to the payment of duties be unshipped from any vessel or boat in the United Kingdom or the Isle of Man, customs or other duties not being first paid or secured, or if any prohibited goods whatsoever

be imported into any part of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, or if any goods warehoused or otherwise secured in the United Kingdom, for home consumption or exportation be clandestinely or illegally removed from any warehouse or place of security, then and in every such case all such goods shall be forfeited, together with all horses and other animals, and all carriages and other things, made use of in the removal of such goods.—§ 28.

Spirits and Tobacco found without a Permit to be deemed run.—All spirits or tobacco which shall be found removing without a legal permit for the same shall be deemed to be spirits or tobacco liable to and unshipped without payment of duty, unless the party in whose possession the same be found or seized prove to the contrary.—§ 29.

Restricted Goods to be deemed run.—All goods the importation of which is in any way restricted, which are of a description admissible to duty, and which shall be found and seized in the United Kingdom under any law relating to the customs or excise, shall, for the purpose of proceeding for the forfeiture of them, or for any penalty incurred in respect of them, be described in any information exhibited on account of such forfeiture or penalty as goods liable to and unshipped without payment of duties.—§ 30.

Prohibited Goods shipped or waterborne, with intent to be exported, &c. forfeited, &c.—If any goods prohibited to be exported be put on board any vessel or boat with intent to be laden or shipped for exportation, or be brought to any quay, wharf, or other place in the United Kingdom to be put on board any vessel or boat for the purpose of being exported, or if any goods prohibited to be exported, be found in any package produced to the officer or officers of the customs or excise containing goods not so prohibited, then and in every such case, not only all such prohibited goods, but also all other goods packed therewith, shall be forfeited.—§ 31.

Vessels, Boats, and Goods may be seized by Officers and Persons herein mentioned, &c.—All vessels and boats, and all goods whatsoever, liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating in the revenue of customs, may be seized in any place, either upon land or water, by any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer or officers of customs or excise, or by any person having authority to seize from the commissioners of customs or excise; and all vessels, boats, and goods so seized shall, as soon as conveniently may be, be delivered into the care of the proper officer appointed to receive the same.—§ 32.

Penalty on Officers, &c. making collusive Seizures or taking Bribes, and on Persons offering them.—If any officer or officers of the customs or excise, or of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any other person or persons whatsoever duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, make any collusive seizure, or deliver up, or make any agreement to deliver up or not to seize, any vessel or boat or any goods liable to forfeiture, or take any bribe, gratuity, recompense, or reward for the neglect or non-performance of his duty, every such officer or other person shall forfeit for every such offence 500*l.* and be rendered incapable of serving his Majesty in any office whatever, either civil or military; and every person who shall give or offer, or promise to give or procure to be given, any bribe, recompense, or reward to, or shall make any collusive agreement with, any such officer or person as aforesaid, to induce him in any way to neglect his duty, or to do, conceal, or connive at any act whereby any of the provisions of any act of parliament relating to the revenue of customs may be evaded, shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 33.

Vessels and Persons may be searched within the Limits of the Ports.—It shall and may be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or for any officer or officers of customs, producing his or their warrant or deputation (if required), to go on board any vessel within the limits of any of the ports of this kingdom, and to rummage and search the cabin and all other parts of such vessel for prohibited and uncustomed goods, and to remain on board such vessel during the whole time that the same shall continue within the limits of such port, and also to search any person or persons either on board or who shall have landed from any vessel, provided such officer or officers have good reason to suppose that such person or persons hath or have any uncustomed or prohibited goods secreted about his, her, or their person or persons; and if any person obstruct any officer or officers in going or remaining on board, or in entering or searching such vessel or person, every such person shall forfeit and lose the sum of 100*l.*—§ 34.

Before Persons are searched, they may require to be taken before a Justice, &c.—Before any person shall be searched by any such officer or officers, it shall be lawful for such person to require the officer or officers to take him or her before a justice of the peace, or before the collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of the customs, who shall determine whether there is reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person; and if it appear to such justice, collector, &c. that there is reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, such justice, collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of customs shall direct such person to be searched in such manner as he shall think fit; but if it shall appear to such justice, collector, comptroller, &c. that there is not reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, then such justice, collector, &c. shall forthwith discharge such person, who shall not in such case be liable to be searched; and every such officer or officers is and are authorized and required to take such person, upon demand, before any justice, collector, &c. detaining him or her in the meantime: provided always, that no person, being a female shall be searched except by a female duty authorised by the commissioners of customs.—§ 35.

Penalty on Officers for Misconduct with respect to Search.—If any such officer or officers shall not take such person with reasonable despatch before such justice, collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of customs, when so required, or shall require any person to be searched by him, not having reasonable grounds to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, such officer shall forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*—§ 36.

Penalty on Persons denying having Foreign Goods about them.—If any passenger or other person on board any vessel or boat shall, upon being questioned by any officer of customs, whether he or she has any foreign goods upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, deny the same, and any such goods shall, after such denial, be discovered upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, such goods shall be forfeited, and such person shall forfeit treble the value of such goods.—§ 37.

Officers, authorised by Writ of Assistance, may search Houses for prohibited Goods, &c.—It shall and may be lawful for any officer or officers of customs, or person acting under the direction of the commissioners of customs, having a writ of assistance under the seal of the Court of Exchequer, to take a constable, headborough, or other public officer inhabiting near the place, and in the daytime to enter into and search any house, shop, cellar, warehouse, room, or other place, and in case of resistance to break open doors, chests, trunks, and other packages, there to seize and from thence to bring any uncustomed or prohibited goods, and to put and secure the same in the Custom-house warehouse in the port next to the place whence such goods shall be taken: provided always, that for the purpose of this act any such constable, headborough, or other public officer, duly sworn as such, may act as well without the limits of any parish, ville, or other place for which he shall be so sworn as within such limits.—§ 38.

Duration of Writs.—All writs of assistance so issued from the Court of Exchequer shall continue

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and be in force during the whole of the reign in which such writs have been granted, and for 6 months thereafter.—§ 30.

Officers may, on probable Cause, stop Carts, &c., and search for Goods.—It shall be lawful for any officer of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, upon reasonable suspicion, to stop and examine any cart, wagon, or other means of conveyance, for the purpose of ascertaining whether any smuggled goods are contained therein; and if no such goods be found, the officer or other person stopping and examining such cart, wagon, &c. having had probable cause to suspect that smuggled goods were contained therein, shall not, on account of such stoppage and search, be liable to any action at law on account thereof; and all persons driving or conducting such cart, wagon, &c. refusing to stop when required so to do in the lawful manner, shall forfeit 100*l.*—§ 40.

Police Officers seizing Goods to carry them to Warehouse.—If any goods subject or liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs be stopped or taken by any police officer or other person acting by virtue of any act of parliament, or otherwise duly authorised, such goods shall be carried to the Custom-house warehouse next to the place where the goods were stopped or taken, and there delivered to the proper officer appointed to receive the same, within 48 hours after the said goods were stopped and taken.—§ 41.

Goods stopped by Police Officers may be retained until Trial of Persons charged with stealing them.—If any goods be stopped or taken by a police officer on suspicion that the same have been feloniously stolen, it shall be lawful for the said officer to carry the same to the police office to which the offender is taken, there to remain to be produced at the trial of said offender; and in such case the officer is required to give notice in writing to the commissioners of customs of his having so detained the goods, with the particulars of the same; and immediately after the trial all such goods are to be deposited in the Custom-house warehouse, to be proceeded against according to law; and in case any police officer making detention of any such goods neglect to convey the same to such warehouse, or to give notice of having stopped the same as before described, he shall forfeit 50*l.*—§ 42.

Commissioners of Treasury, &c. may restore Seizures.—It shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury, or any 3 or more of them, or for the commissioners of customs or excise, by an order for that purpose, to direct any vessel, boat, goods, or commodities seized under this or any act relating to the customs or excise, or to the trade or navigation of the United Kingdom, or to any of his Majesty's possessions abroad, to be delivered to the proprietor or proprietors, whether condemnations have taken place or not, upon such terms and conditions as they may deem expedient, and which shall be mentioned in the said order: and it shall be also lawful for the said commissioners of the treasury, and of the customs and excise, to mitigate or remit any penalty or fine which shall have been incurred, or any part of such penalty or fine incurred under any such act: provided always, that no person shall be entitled to the benefit of any order for delivery or mitigation unless the terms and conditions expressed in the said order are fully and affectually complied with.—§ 43.

PENALTIES.

*Persons unshipping, &c. any prohibited or uncustomed Goods, to forfeit Treble the Value, or 100*l.**—Every person who shall, either in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, assist or be concerned in the unshipping of any goods prohibited to be imported into the U. K. or into the Isle of Man, or the duties for which have not been paid or secured, or who shall knowingly harbour, keep, or conceal, or knowingly permit or suffer to be barboared, kept, or concealed, any goods which have been illegally unshipped without payment of duties, or which have been illegally removed, without payment of the same, from any warehouse or place of security in which they may have been deposited, or any goods prohibited to be imported, or to be used or consumed in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, and every person, either in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, to whose possession any such uncustomed or prohibited goods shall knowingly come, or who shall assist or be in anywise concerned in the illegal removal of any goods from any warehouse or place of security in which they have been deposited, shall forfeit either the treble value thereof, or the penalty of 100*l.*, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 44.

How Value to be ascertained.—In all cases where any penalty, the amount of which is to be determined by the value of any goods, is directed to be sued for under any law now in force or to be made for the prevention of smuggling, or relating to the revenue of customs or excise, such value shall be taken to be according to the rate and price which goods of the like sort or denomination and of the best quality bear at such time, and upon which the duties due upon importation have been paid.—§ 45.

*Persons insuring the Delivery of prohibited or uncustomed Goods to forfeit 500*l.**—Every person who by way of insurance or otherwise shall undertake or agree to deliver any goods to be imported from beyond the seas into any port or place in the U. K. without paying the duties due on such importation, or any prohibited goods, or who in pursuance of such insurance shall deliver or cause to be delivered any uncustomed or prohibited goods, and every aider or abettor of such person, shall for every such offence forfeit 500*l.* over and above any other penalty to which he may be liable; and every person who shall agree to pay any money for the insurance or conveyance of such goods, or shall receive or take them into his custody or possession, or suffer them to be so received or taken, shall also forfeit 500*l.* over and above any penalty to which he may be liable on account of such goods.—§ 46.

Penalty on Persons selling Goods for Sale under Pretence of being run or prohibited.—If any person or persons offer for sale any goods under pretence that the same are prohibited, or have been unshipped and run on shore without payment of duties, in such case all such goods (although not liable to any duties or prohibited) shall be forfeited, and the person or persons, and every of them, offering the same for sale, shall forfeit the treble value of such goods, or the penalty of 100*l.*, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 47.

*Persons found to have been on board Vessels liable to Forfeiture subject to a Penalty of 100*l.**—Every person, being a subject of his Majesty, who shall be found or discovered to have been on board any vessel or boat liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs for being found or discovered to have been within any of the distances, ports, or places in this act mentioned, from or in the United Kingdom, or from or in the Isle of Man, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, such goods or things as subject such vessel or boat to forfeiture, or who shall be found or discovered to have been, within any such distance as aforesaid, on board any vessel or boat from which any part of the cargo or lading of such vessel or boat shall have been thrown overboard, or staved or destroyed, to prevent seizure, shall forfeit 100*l.*; and every person, not being a subject of his Majesty, who shall have been on board any vessel or boat liable to forfeiture for any of the causes aforesaid, within 1 league of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, or within any bay, harbour, river, or creek of the said island, shall forfeit for such offence 100*l.*; and it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, being duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer or officers of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and he and they is and are hereby authorised, empowered, and required, to detain and to carry and convey every such person before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein-after directed: provided always, that any such person

proving, to the satisfaction of any justice or justices before whom he may be brought, that he was only a passenger in such vessel or boat, and had no interest whatever either in the vessel or boat, or in the cargo or goods on board the same, shall be forthwith discharged by such justice. — § 48.

Persons unshipping, &c. Spirits or Tobacco, to forfeit 100*l.* &c.—Every person whatsoever who shall unship, or be aiding or concerned in the unshipping, of any spirits or tobacco liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise, in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, or who shall carry, convey, or conceal, or be aiding, assisting, or concerned in the carrying, conveying, or concealing of any such spirits or tobacco, shall forfeit for such offence 100*l.*; and every such person may be detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer or officers of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and taken before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein-after directed. — § 49.

Persons carrying, &c. Tea or manufactured Silk to forfeit Treble the Value, &c.—Every person who shall unship, or be aiding, assisting, or otherwise concerned in the unshipping, of any tea or foreign manufactured silk of the value of 20*l.*, liable to forfeiture under any act relating to the customs or excise, or who shall carry, convey, or conceal, or be aiding, assisting, or concerned in the carrying, conveying, or concealing of such tea or silk, shall forfeit for every such offence treble the value thereof; and every such person shall and may be detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer of customs or excise, or by any other person acting in his aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and taken before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein directed: provided always, that if it shall be lawful for such detained person to give security in treble the amount of the goods seized, to the satisfaction of such justice, to appear at a time and place appointed; and that no such person shall be liable to serve his Majesty in his naval service. — § 50.

A Justice may order Persons taken before him for Offences relating to the Customs to be detained a reasonable Time.—Where any person or persons shall have been detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer of customs or excise, or any person or persons acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, for any offence under this or any other act relating to the customs, and shall have been taken and carried before any justice of the peace, if it shall appear to such justice that there is reasonable cause to detain such person or persons, he may and he is authorized and required to order such person or persons to be detained a reasonable time, and at the expiration of such time to be brought before any 2 justices, who are authorized and required finally to hear and determine the matter. — § 51.

Any Person liable to Arrest making his Escape may be detained by any Officer of Customs.—If any person or persons liable to be detained under the provisions of this or any other act relating to the customs shall not be detained at the time of so committing the offence, or after detention shall make his or their escape, it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or for any officer of customs or excise, or any other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, to detain such person at any time afterwards, and to carry him before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as if detained at the time of committing the said offence. — § 52.

Persons making Signals to Smuggling Vessels at Sea, on Conviction to forfeit 100*l.* &c.—No person shall, after sunset and before sunrise between the 21st day of September and the 1st day of April, or after the hour of 8 in the evening and before the hour of 6 in the morning at any other time in the year, make, aid or assist in making, any signal in or on board or from any vessel or boat, or on or from any part of the coast or shore of the United Kingdom, or within 6 miles of any part of such coasts or shores, for the purpose of giving any notice to any person on board any smuggling vessel or boat, whether any person so on board such vessel or boat be or be not within distance to notice such signal; and if any person, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, make or cause to be made, or aid or assist in making, any such signal, such person shall be guilty of a misdemeanour; and it shall be lawful for any person to stop, arrest, and detain the person or persons who shall so offend, and to carry and convey such person or persons before any 1 or more justices of the peace residing near the place where such offence shall be committed, who, if he sees cause, shall commit the offender to the next county gaol, there to remain until the next court of oyer or terminer, great session, or goal delivery, or until such person or persons shall be delivered by due course of law; and it shall not be necessary to prove on any indictment or information that any vessel or boat was actually on the coast; and the offender or offenders being duly convicted thereof shall, by order of the court before whom they are convicted, either forfeit and pay the penalty of 100*l.*, or, at the discretion of such court, be committed to the common gaol or house of correction, there to be kept to hard labour for any term not exceeding 1 year. — § 53.

Proof of a Signal not being intended, to lie on the Defendant.—In case any person be charged with or indicted for having made or caused to be made, or been aiding or assisting in making, any such signal, the burden of proof that such signal so charged as having been made with intent and for the purpose of giving such notice as aforesaid was not made with such intent and for such purpose shall be upon the defendant. — § 54.

Any Persons may prevent Signals.—It shall be lawful for any person whatsoever to prevent any signal as aforesaid being made, and to enter upon any lands for that purpose, without being liable to any indictment, suit, or action for the same. — § 55.

Persons resisting Officers, or rescuing or destroying Goods to prevent Seizure, forfeit 100*l.*—If any person whatsoever shall obstruct any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer or officers of customs or excise, or any person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the execution of his or their duty, or in the due seizing of any goods liable to forfeiture, or shall rescue or cause to be rescued any goods which have been seized, or shall attempt or endeavour to do so, or shall help or aid or after any seizure, take, break, or otherwise destroy any goods, to prevent the seizure thereof or the securing the same, then and in such case the party or parties offending shall forfeit for every such offence 100*l.* — § 56.

Penalty on Persons procuring others to assist in unshipping prohibited Goods.—Any person or persons who shall by any means procure or hire any person or persons, who shall depote, authorize, or direct any person or persons to procure or hire any person or persons, to assemble for the purpose of being concerned in the landing or unshipping or carrying or conveying any goods prohibited to be imported, or the duties for which have not been paid or secured, shall for every person so procured or hired forfeit 100*l.* — § 57.

FELONIES.

Three or more armed Persons assembled to assist in the illegal Landing of Goods, &c. deemed guilty of Felony.—If any persons to the number of 3 or more, armed with fire-arms or other offensive weapons, shall, within the U. K., or within any port, harbour, or creek, thereof, be assembled in order to aid and assist in the illegal landing, running, or carrying away of any prohibited goods, or any goods liable to

any duties which are payable from the person or persons who are in receipt of such offence within any... every person... of labour, and... Persons who... maliciously... within 100 leas... properly woun... and on full pay... employed for t... offending, and... alleged guilty... Any Person... guilty of felon... liable to... punishable rive... in any of the... such offences, b...

Persons asst... offence men... employed for t... person actin... the 4th statu... passed for 7 ye... to hard labour... offender shall... Commanding... any Action for... for the preven... United Kingd... a garden or pl... shall be decre... of the aforesai... occasions, and... shall deem pri... to any indictm... withholding... Officer, if wo... or season ent... any way injur... for the preven... sisting such of... or for the wid... to do by warr... Vessels and... all goods wh... disposed of a... commissioner

Rewards to... they are here... person liable... upon the con... of 20*l.* for ea... Rewards to... of customs, a... officers or pe... part of... may receive... Rewards to... hereby author... the customs... wards; (the... In the case of... If all the p... seizure, ... provided... and with... owners... If or more... and one... If such per... made, he... convicted... and with... If such per... faring... If the re... without... If all the g... and an... If the goods...

...brought, that he was not
the vessel or boat, or in the
...-248.

...who shall
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...of Man, or who shall
...conveying, or conceal-
...every such person may be
...prevention of smuggling,
...person acting in his or their
...before any Justice of

...Every person what-
...the unshipping, of any tea
...ny act relating to the cus-
...ing, or concerned in the
...ry such offence in the
...icer of the army, navy, or
...by any officer of customs
...employed for the prevention
...therein directed: provided
...treble the amount of the
...e appointed; and that no

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...any officer of the army,
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...oms, or duly employed for
...ing to the customs, and
...to such Justice that he
...is authorised and required
...expiration of such time to
...hear and determine the

...officer of Customs.—If any
...other act relating to the
...ter detention shall make
...y, navy, or marines, em-
...cuties, or excise, or any
...prevention of smuggling,
...justice of the peace, to be

...1001, &c.—No person
...d the 1st day of April, or
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...or boat, or on or from
...part of such coast or
...smuggling vessel or boat,
...nce to notice such signal;
...use to be made, or sold or
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...eason, or goal delivery,
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...ly on the coast; and the
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...erson be charged with or
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...purpose shall be upon

...enever to prevent any
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...Any person or person
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...d in order to aid and
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any duties which have not been paid or secured, or in rescuing or taking away any goods, after seizure, from the officer of the customs or other officer authorised to seize the same, or from any pursuer or person employed by or assisting them, or from the place where the same have been lodged by them, or in rescuing any person who shall have been apprehended for any of the offences made felony by this or any act relating to the customs, or in the preventing the apprehension of any person guilty of such offence, or in case any persons to the number of 3 or more, so armed, shall, within the U. K., or within any port, harbour, or creek thereof, be so aiding or assisting, every person so offending, and every person aiding, abetting, or assisting therein, shall, being thereof convicted, be adjudged guilty of felony, and suffer death as a felon.—258.

Persons shooting at any Boat belonging to the Navy, &c. deemed guilty of Felony.—If any person shall maliciously shoot at any vessel or boat belonging to H. M. navy, or in the service of the revenue, within 100 leagues of any part of the coast of the U. K., or shall maliciously shoot at, maim, or dangerously wound any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, or any person acting in his aid, or assistance, or employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the due execution of his office or duty, every person so offending, and every person aiding, abetting, or assisting therein, shall, being lawfully convicted, be adjudged guilty of felony, and suffer death as a felon.—259.

Any Person in company with 4 others having prohibited Goods, or with 1 other armed or disguised, guilty of Felony.—If any person being in company with more than 4 other persons be found with any goods liable to forfeiture, or in company with 1 other person, within 5 miles of the sea coast or of any navigable river leading therefrom, with such goods, and carrying offensive arms or weapons, or disguised in any way, every such person shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall, on conviction of such offence, be transported as a felon for the space of 7 years.—260.

OFFICERS.

Persons assaulting Officers by Force or Violence may be transported.—If any person shall by force or violence assault, resist, oppose, molest, hinder, or obstruct any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the due execution of his or their office or duty, such person, being thereof convicted, shall be transported for 7 years, or sentenced to be imprisoned in any house of correction or common goal, and kept in hard labour, for any term not exceeding 3 years, at the discretion of the court before whom the offender shall be tried and convicted as aforesaid.—261.

Commanding Officers of Vessels in the Service may haul their Vessels on Shore without being liable to any Action for so doing.—It shall be lawful for the commanding officer of any vessel or boat employed for the prevention of smuggling to haul any such vessel or boat upon any part of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the shores, banks, or beaches of any river, creek, or inlet of the same (not being a garden or pleasure ground, or place ordinarily used for any bathing machine or machine), which shall be deemed most convenient for that purpose, and to moor any such vessel or boat on such part of the aforesaid coasts, shores, &c. below high water mark, and over which the tide flows on ordinary ebb-tide, and to continue such vessel or boat so moored for such time as said commanding officer shall deem proper; and such officer, or person or persons acting under his direction, shall not be liable to any indictment, action, or suit for so doing, any law, statute, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—262.

Officers, if wounded in the Service of the Customs, to be provided for, &c.—In all cases where any officer or seaman employed in the service of the customs or excise shall be killed, maimed, wounded, or in any way injured in the due execution of his office, or if any person acting in his aid, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, shall be so killed, maimed, wounded, or in any way injured while so acting such officer or seaman, or so employed, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs and excise to make such provision for the officer or person, so maimed, wounded, or injured as aforesaid, or for the widows and families of such as shall be killed, as they shall be authorised and empowered to do by warrant from the Lord High Treasurer or commissioners of the treasury.—263.

Taxes and Goods seized to be disposed of as the Commissioners direct.—All vessels and boats, and all goods whatsoever, seized and condemned for breach of any law relating to the customs, shall be disposed of as soon as conveniently may be after the condemnation thereof, in such manner as the commissioners of customs shall direct.—264.

REWARDS.

Rewards to Officers for detaining Smugglers.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised and empowered, to award, to any officer or other person detaining any person liable to detention under this or any other act relating to the revenue of customs, to be paid upon the conviction of such person, any reward they may think fit to direct, not exceeding the sum of 20*l.* for each person.—265.

Rewards to Officers where pecuniary Penalties are recovered.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised, to order the following reward to be paid to any officer or officers or persons by whose means any pecuniary penalty or composition is recovered; (that is to say) 1/3 part of the penalty or sum recovered, except in seizures of silk goods, in which case the officers may receive 1/4 the penalty or sum recovered.—266.

Rewards to Officers making Seizures.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised, to order to be paid, in respect of any seizure made under this or any act relating to the customs or to trade and navigation, to the person or persons making the same, the following rewards; (that is to say,)

In the case of seizures of spirits or tobacco:—

If all the parties concerned in the act which occasions the seizure, being above the age of 16 years, are detained and convicted, the whole value thereof, such value to be fixed and settled by the Lords of the Treasury, or by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, as hereafter directed: If two more of such parties, not being the whole, are so detained and convicted, 7/8ths of such value.

If such party, not being the whole of them, but being a seafaring man, is detained and convicted, 3/4ths of such value.

If such party, not being the whole of them, is detained and convicted, and the vessel or means of conveyance is or are seized and condemned, 3/4ths of such value.

If such party, not being the whole of them, nor being a seafaring man, is so detained and convicted, 5/8ths of such value.

If the vessel or means of conveyance is seized and condemned without any person being detained, 1/3d of such value.

If all the goods are seized, and all the parties concerned as aforesaid are subsequently convicted in consequence of such seizure, and by the seizure of the vessel, 1/3d of such value.

If the goods only are seized, 1/8th, or such other part as the com-

missioners of the customs shall think proper, not exceeding 1/4th of such value.

In the case of seizures of other goods, not silks:—

If the vessel or other means of conveyance are seized and condemned, or if any person is prosecuted in conviction on account of the same, 1/2 of the produce, exclusive of the duties.

If the goods only, 1/4th of such produce.

In the case of damaged tobacco, snuff, or other goods destroyed, such reward as the Lords of the Treasury or the commissioners of his Majesty's customs may think proper to direct, not exceeding a moiety of the duty payable on such goods in case the same had been sold for home consumption.

In the case of seizures of silk goods, the whole value of such goods, exclusive of the duty thereon.

In the case of seizures of vessels and boats:—

If sold, a moiety of the produce.

If taken into the public service, or broken up, a moiety of the value.

In the case of seizures of cattle and carriages in all cases 3/4ths of the produce of the sale.—Secs. 267.

The Treasury, &c. to fix the Value of Spirits & Tobacco.—The value of spirits and tobacco seized as aforesaid shall in all cases be deemed and taken to be such as the Lords of the Treasury or the commissioners of customs may think fit to fix the same at per gallon or per pound weight, for the purpose of rewarding the officer; and all the before-mentioned rewards shall be paid, subject to a deduction of 10l. per cent. on account of law charges and other expenses.—q 68.

All Rewards, &c. payable to Officers of Army, &c. to be regulated by H. M. Orders in Council.—Every such reward, or part or share of any such seizure or of the value thereof, as shall be payable to any officer or officers, non-commissioned officers, petty officers, seamen, or privates of the army, navy, or marines, or acting under the orders of the Lord High Admiral or commissioners of the admiralty, shall be divided and distributed in such proportions, and according to such rules, regulations, and orders, as His Majesty shall be pleased to direct and appoint.—q 69.

Commissioners may distribute Shares of Seizures so as to reward Persons not actually present.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs or excise respectively, in case of any seizure of vessels, boats, or goods, or of the apprehension of any parties, under this or any other act relating to the customs, to direct the distribution of the seisor's share of such vessels, boats, or goods, or of any penalties or rewards that may be recovered on account of any seizure, in such manner as to enable any officer or officers, or other person or persons through whose information or means such seizure shall have been made, or penalty recovered, or party apprehended, and who may by them be deemed to be so entitled, to participate in such proportion as the said commissioners shall respectively deem expedient.—q 70.

In case Officers act negligently or collusively.—Upon proof being made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs or excise that any officer or officers or person or persons as aforesaid have acted collusively or negligently in the making of any seizure, the said commissioners may direct that the whole or any part of the proportion of such seizure he applied to the use of His Majesty.—q 71.

None except Officers to take up Spirits in small Casks sunk or floating upon the Sea.—No person or persons whatsoever, being a subject or subjects of His Majesty, other than an officer or officers of the navy, customs, or excise, or some person or persons authorized that behalf, shall intermeddle with or take up any spirits, being in casks of less content than 40 gallons found floating upon or sunk in the sea within 100 leagues of the United Kingdom; and if any spirits shall be so intermeddled with or taken up, the same shall be forfeited, together with any vessel or boat in which they are found.—q 72.

Rewards to Persons giving Information of Goods floating or sunk in the Sea.—If any person or persons shall discover any spirits, being in casks of less content than 40 gallons, floating upon or sunk in the sea, and give information to any officer of the customs, or other person or persons authorized to make seizure of such spirits, so that seizure be made of the same, the person or persons giving such information shall be entitled to and shall receive such reward as the commissioners of customs may deem expedient to direct.—q 73.

Allowance to poor Persons confined for Offences against Laws of Customs and Excise.—For the necessary subsistence of any poor person confined in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, under or by virtue of any exchequer or other process for the recovery of any duties or penalties, upon a bond or otherwise, sued for, under or by virtue of any order of the commissioners of customs or excise, it shall be lawful for said commissioners respectively to cause an allowance, not exceeding the sum of 12d. and not less than 4d. per day, to be made to any such poor person, out of any money in their hands arising from the duties of customs or excise, as the case may require.—q 74.

JURISDICTION.

Penalties and Forfeitures how to be sued for.—All penalties and forfeitures incurred or imposed by this or any other act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall and may be sued for, prosecuted, and recovered by action, debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any court of record at Westminster, or at Dublin, or at Edinburgh, or in the royal courts of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, in the name or names of the attorney general or of the lord advocate of Scotland, or in the name of some officer or officers of customs, or by information before any 2 or more justices of the peace in the U. K., or before any governor, deputy governor, or demurrer in the Isle of Man.—Section 75.

Vessels, Boats, and Goods seized, shall be deemed to be condemned, unless the Owner gives Notice that he intends to claim.—All vessels, boats, and goods which have been or shall be heretofore seized as forfeited under any law relating to the customs, and which have been or shall hereafter be ordered to be prosecuted by the commissioners of customs, shall be deemed and taken to be condemned, and may be sold in the manner directed by law in respect to vessels, boats, and goods seized and condemned for breach of any law relating to the customs, unless the person from whom such vessels, boats, and goods have been seized, or the owner of them, or some person authorized by him, shall, within 1 calendar month from the day of seizing the same, give notice in writing, if in London, to the person seizing the same or to the secretary or solicitor for the customs, and if elsewhere, to the person seizing the same or to the collector and comptroller or other chief officer of the customs at the nearest port, that he claims the vessel, boat, or goods, or intends to claim them.—Section 76.

Offences on the High Seas deemed to have been committed at the Place into which the Offender is brought, or in which he is found.—In case any offence be committed upon the high seas against any other act relating to the customs, or any penalty or forfeiture incurred upon the high seas for any breach of such acts, such offence shall, for the purpose of prosecution, be deemed and taken to have been committed, and such penalties and forfeitures to have been incurred, at the place on land in the U. K. or the Isle of Man into which the person committing such offence or incurring such penalty or forfeiture shall be taken, brought, or carried, or in which such person shall be found; and in case such place on land is situated within any city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate, as well as any justice of the peace for such city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate, as any justice of the peace of the county within which such city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate is situated, shall have jurisdiction to hear and determine all cases of offences against such act so committed upon the high seas, any charter or act of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding; provided always, that where any offence shall be committed in any place upon the water not being within any county of the U. K., or where any doubt exists as to the same being within any county, such offence shall, for the purposes of this act, be deemed and taken to be committed upon the high seas.—Section 77.

Justices may summon Offenders, and the Statutory writs left at their Place of Residence, or on board any ship to which he belongs.—Upon the exhibiting any information before any justice of the peace for any offence against this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, for which the party charged is not liable to be detained in manner hereinafore mentioned, such justice is hereby empowered to issue a summons for the appearance of the party against

whom such information is exhibited before 2 justices of the peace; and such summons, directed to such party, being left either to his or her that know place of residence, or on board any ship or vessel to which such party may belong, shall be deemed to have been sufficiently served.—Section 78.

Two Justices may, upon Appearance or Default of the Party, proceed to the Hearing.—Upon the appearance or default of any party so summoned, or shall be lawful for any 2 justices of the peace to proceed to the examination of the matter contained in such information, and upon due proof thereof, either upon the confession of party or upon the oath of 1 or more credible witnesses or witnesses to convict such party in the penalty or penalties set for by such information; and in case of contumacy thereof, such justice, or justices, or some other justices or justice of the peace, or justice or justices authorized and required, by warrant under hand and seal, to command such party to any of His Majesty's goals within his or his jurisdiction, there to remain until the penalty or penalties shall be paid.—Section 79.

Warrants shall and may be executed in any part of the United Kingdom.—Section 80.

Justices empowered to mitigate Penalties.—Where any party shall or may be convicted before any 2 or more of His Majesty's justices of the peace in any penalty or penalties incurred as aforesaid, or set for in heretofore provided, it shall and may be lawful for the said justices, in cases where upon consideration of the circumstances they shall deem it expedient so to do, to mitigate the payment of the said penalty or penalties, so as the sum to be paid by such party be not less than 1-6th of the amount of the penalty in which such party shall have been convicted.—Section 81.

As to Persons committed for Penalties under 100l.—Where any person shall be committed for any penalty less than 100l., the gaoler or keeper of such prison is hereby authorized and required to discharge such person from the real of calendar months from the commencement of such imprisonment.—Section 82.

Married Women may be committed to Prison.—Where any party so convicted before 2 justices of the peace shall be a married woman, such party shall be liable to be committed to prison in heretofore before mentioned, notwithstanding her coverture.—Section 83.

Mode of Proceeding before Justices.—When any information shall have been exhibited before any 2 justices of the peace for the offence of any goods seized under this or any act relating to the customs shall be lawful for the said justice, and he is hereby authorized and required, to summon the party to whom such information is exhibited, or any other party who may be deemed to have been sufficiently served, and upon his, her, or their appearance or default, any 2 justices may proceed to the examination of the matter, and, upon due proof of the said goods seized, to issue a warrant for the seizure of such goods, the customs may continue the said goods.—Section 84.

Persons on Conviction to forfeit 100l. or if remaining in Prison to be sent into the Army for 3 years.—It shall be lawful for any 2 justices of the peace before whom any person liable to be detained, and who shall have been detained, for any offence against any act relating to the customs, shall be brought, either on the conviction of such person of such offence, or on proof thereof upon the oath of 2

any statute within such conviction... the justice, though... a default thereof... or warrant under... convicted, shall... such goods... of such offence... able to serve in... of the said person... and they are... of several years... to carry or any... on board any... the writs there... there, he shall be... and detained, and... that the conviction... of the said person... shall be lawful for... to any person... and the... payments for conv... that the commission... of the said party... or service, or...-Act. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100. 101. 102. 103. 104. 105. 106. 107. 108. 109. 110. 111. 112. 113. 114. 115. 116. 117. 118. 119. 120. 121. 122. 123. 124. 125. 126. 127. 128. 129. 130. 131. 132. 133. 134. 135. 136. 137. 138. 139. 140. 141. 142. 143. 144. 145. 146. 147. 148. 149. 150. 151. 152. 153. 154. 155. 156. 157. 158. 159. 160. 161. 162. 163. 164. 165. 166. 167. 168. 169. 170. 171. 172. 173. 174. 175. 176. 177. 178. 179. 180. 181. 182. 183. 184. 185. 186. 187. 188. 189. 190. 191. 192. 193. 194. 195. 196. 197. 198. 199. 200.

each person in the said court... if he is satisfied that... without any intention of fraud...

of Payment of Duties, or of the lawful Importation of... If any goods be seized for any offence...

Justice connected with the Collection of the Revenue to Interfere... No Justice of the Peace being a collector...

Arrest of certain Matters to be sufficient.—In case of any... Information or proceedings had under any act relating to the customs...

Persons proceeding Smuggling to be deemed duly employed.—All persons employed for the prevention of smuggling under the customs...

Admission of Evidence may be given.—If upon any trial a question shall arise whether any person is an officer of the army, navy, or customs...

(The 85th clause in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 53, for the prevention of smuggling (ante, p. 524), authorising justices to sentence seafaring men, convicted of smuggling, to serve in the navy for 5 years, has been repealed. Persons convicted of such offences are now to be committed to the house of correction, to hard labour, for not less than 6 months for the first offence, 9 for the second, and 12 for the third.—(4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 13. § 2.)

Boats used in fishing on the coasts of Scotland are not required to have licences.—(6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 60. § 8.)

Magistrates are authorised to commit offenders convicted of offences against the customs' laws to the nearest house of correction.—(§ 9.)—(Sup.)

(Concerning frauds on the customs, and penalties for breach of the revenue laws of the United States, see Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States, book 9th, chapter 16th, section 4th.—Am. Ed.)

SMYRNA, a large city and sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, on the western side of Asia Minor, lat. 38° 25' 36" N., lon. 27° 6' 45" E. Population, probably, about 120,000; of whom 60,000 may be Turks, 40,000 Greeks, and the remainder Armenians, Franks, Jews, &c. Smyrna is situated at the bottom of a deep gulf; the entrance to which lies between the island of Mytilene on the north, and Cape Carabouron, in lat. 38° 41' 30" N., lon. 26° 21' E., on the south. The woodcut on the next page gives a better idea of the gulf of Smyrna than could be derived from any description. The dotted line shows the course inwards. The passage between James's Castle (D) on the south and the opposite sand bank is narrow; but there is from 9 to 10 fathoms water, with a blue clay bottom. Merchant ships anchor abreast of the city in from 7 to 8 fathoms; but the water is so deep that they may come close to the quays. The in-bat or sea breeze blows from morning till evening, and is always waited for by ships going up to the city. There is excellent anchorage in most parts of the gulf, merely avoiding the shoals on the north side. Smyrna is a place of great antiquity. The excellence of its port, and its admirable situation, have made it be several times rebuilt, after being destroyed by earthquakes. On approaching it from the sea, it has the appearance of an amphitheatre; the castle is at the back of the town, which it commands, on the top of the hill; but it is in a state of decay, and could oppose no resistance to an invading force. The interior of the city does not correspond to its external appearance; the streets being, for the most part, narrow, dirty, and ill paved. Owing to the want of cleanliness, and of all sorts of precautions, on the part of the Turks, Smyrna is frequently visited by the plague. So late as 1814, from 50,000 to 60,000 of the inhabitants are said to have been cut off by this dreadful scourge. The trade of this city is more extensive than that of any other in the Turkish empire. The caravans from Persia are chiefly composed of Armenians. They arrive and depart at fixed periods, which are nearly identical with those of the arrival and departure of most of the foreign ships frequenting the port. Bargains are principally effected by Jew brokers, many of whom have amassed considerable fortunes. The principal articles of import consist of grain, furs, iron, butter, &c. from Odessa and Taganrog and of cotton stuffs and twist, silk and woollen goods, coffee, sugar, cochineal, and dye

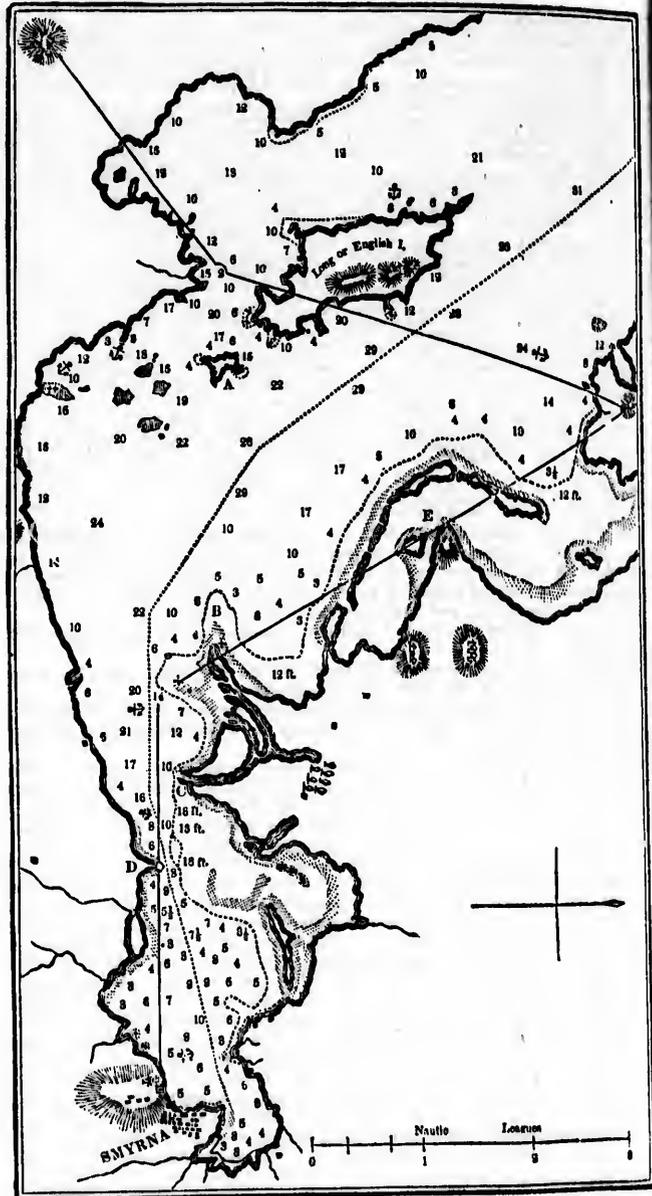
as such shall be deemed sufficient, and such person shall not be required to produce his commission or deputation, unless sufficient proof be given to the contrary; and every such officer, and any person acting in his aid or assistance, shall be a competent witness upon the trial of any suit or information on account of any seizure or penalty, notwithstanding such officer or person may be entitled to the whole or any part of such seizure or penalty, or to any reward upon conviction of the party charged in such suit or information.—(Sec. 11.)

What deemed sufficient Evidence of an Order of Commissioners of Customs or Excise.—Upon the trial of any issue, or upon any judicial hearing or investigation touching any penalty or forfeiture under any law or laws relating to the customs or excise, or to the law of navigation, where it may be necessary to give proof of any order issued by the commissioners of the treasury, or by the commissioners of customs or excise, the letter or instructions officially received by the officer of customs or excise at the place or district where such penalty or forfeiture was incurred, or shall be alleged to have been incurred, for his government, and in which such order is mentioned or referred to, and under which instructions he shall have acted, shall be admitted and taken as sufficient evidence and proof of such order to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—(Sec. 119)

Within what Time Suits, &c. are to be exhibited.—All suits, indictments, or informations exhibited for any offence against this or any other act relating to the customs in any court of record at Westminster, or in Dublin, or in Edinburgh, or in the royal courts of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, shall and may be had, brought, sued, or exhibited within three years next after the date of the offence committed, and shall and may be exhibited before 1 or more justices of the peace within 6 months next after the date of the offence committed.—(Sec. 120.)

Information may be exhibited any Time after 6 Months.—Where any person shall have been detained for any offence against this or any other customs act, and shall have made his escape from custody, an information may be exhibited before 1 or more justices of the peace against such person, for such offence, at any time afterwards, although more than 6 months have expired.—(Sec. 121.)

Indictments or Informations may be tried in any County.—Any indictments or informations for any offence against this or any other customs act shall be inquired of, examined, tried, and determined in any county of England where the offence is committed in England, and in any county in Scotland where the offence is committed in Scotland, and in any county in Ireland where the offence is committed in Ireland, in such manner and form as if the offence had been committed in the said county where the said indictment or information shall be tried.—(Sec. 122.)



References to Plan.—A, Pniridge Island, on the south side of which there is excellent anchorage in from 15 to 7 fathoms, muddy bottom. B, a mid point. C, Pelican Point. D, James's Castle. E, Low narrow island. Soundings, except where otherwise marked, in fathoms.

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wool, iron, tin, and tin plates, rum, brandy, paper, cheesc, glass, wine, &c. from Great Britain, France, Italy, the United States, &c. The exports consist principally of raw silk and cotton, fruits—particularly raisins; opium, rhubarb, and a variety of drugs and gums; olive oil, madder roots, Turkey carpets, valonia, sponge, galls, wax, copper, hare skins, goats' wool, willow, &c.—(For further details, see *Turnefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. pp. 433-507. 4to edit.; and *Macgill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. Letters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9.)

Meas. Weights, and Measures, same as at Constantinople; which see. Accounts are kept in plaques of 40 paras, or medini. The value of the plaque fluctuates according to the exchange. It has been very much degraded; and is at present worth about 4d. The oke is the principal weight used. It is equivalent to 2 lbs. 13 oz. 5 dr. avoirdupois; 45 okes = 1 kinta = 100 rottolos = 127.48 lbs. avoirdupois. The kinta of Constantinople is only 44 okes. A tefese of silk = 4½ lbs. avoirdupois. A cheques of opium = 1½ lb.; a cheques of goats' wool = 3½ lbs. Corn is measured by the killo = 12½ Winch. bushel. The pic, or long measure, = 27 Eng. inches.—(*Kelly's Cambist*, &c.)

COMMERCE OF SMYRNA.—The following details with respect to the commerce of Smyrna with Western Europe are copied from a letter addressed by an intelligent English merchant, established in Smyrna, to his correspondent in London, to whom we are indebted for it. Nothing so complete or satisfactory has ever been published as to the trade of this emporium. It is right, however, to mention, that since 1800 when this paper was drawn up, the commerce of Smyrna has lost some of its importance. Syria, the islands of the *Archipelago*, the eastern parts of Greece, &c. used formerly to derive a considerable part of their supplies of foreign produce at second hand from Smyrna; but they now, for the most part, are either supplied direct from England, Marseilles, &c., or indirectly from Syria, which is become a considerable depot.

Charges on Selling and Buying.—As we conceive that a correct list of selling and buying charges is an essential piece of information for those interested in the commerce of the Levant, we annex the same, including every item of expense, namely:—

On Selling.		On Buying.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.
Height (according to the rate agreed upon in England) say	2	Custom duty (according to the quality of the article)	1 to 3
Out day (or perusal goods)	3	Favours (included in the cost of packages, which vary according to the quality of the goods packed)	3
Charge from 1 to 2 piastres per package (according to the size)	0.12	House and street brokerage	1 to 2
Postage	0.12	Commission (except on figs, which is 5 per cent.)	0.12
Five per cent. brokerage	5	Warehouse rent	0.12
Commission for effecting sale	3		
Out. if proceeds are remitted by bill or specie	1 to 2		
Expence duty (when required to be charged)	3		
Insurance	0.12		

With regard to the cost of packages, those for silk are about 24 piastres each; for galls, 18 do.; puma antls, tragacanth, &c., 20 do.; scammony, 18 do.; opium, 30 to 36 do.; raisins, 12 to 14 do.; figs, 25 to 30 do.; cotton wool, from 12 to 20 piastres, &c.

We learn from —, that your firm deals largely in skins and furs, but he does not state the quality of either; the latter article is, however, of a very limited and ordinary nature with us, and chiefly consists of hare skins, which are abundant and shipped in considerable quantities for the German and French markets. They are most plentiful during the winter season, when they are also cheaper and keep better than in the hot months of the year. Sheep, goat, lamb, and kid skins are plentiful, and are often in request for America; particularly the 3 latter when in season, which is, for lamb skins from the middle of March to the beginning of June, and for goat skins from November until April. We have no want of ox and cow hides, both dried and salted, the leather of which is said to be more pliable than those of Europe. They are now and then sent to Marseilles in small parcels; but as it would be difficult to convey, by a written description, the exact quality of those skins, we intend making up a little bale of such kinds as may for the moment be met with, and to forward it by an early vessel to London, when it shall be submitted to your inspection, with an invoice, and remain, if you think proper, at your disposal.

We now proceed to make you acquainted with the manner in which our sales, purchases, and barter are effected, together with the nature of sales made on credit or for cash, &c.

Sales are effected in this country between our house's brokers, and what is termed a street or outdoor broker; the former receiving their instructions from us, and the latter acting on behalf of the buyer. When the terms are mutually agreed upon, the real buyer and seller personally meet; and a bond or obligatory note stating the terms and amount of the transaction is drawn out and signed by the buyer, and when not much approved of, one or more signatures are required to the bond, who individually and collectively become responsible for the fulfilment of it.

Parties are similarly made, except that the purchaser or agent himself, in the first instance, and his brokers, inspect the goods he is about to treat for; each down is generally expected; and it is but when that a short credit of 1 or 2 couriers is obtained: it is not unfrequently happens, also, that 1 or even 1/2 of the purchase amount is advanced to the seller, when an insufficient quantity of the article wanted by the buyer is in the place, and which must then be procured from the interior or place of growth. The money advanced (which is to be returned if the quality does not suit) is sent by a confidential person on the part of the purchaser, accompanied either by the seller in person, or by some one representing him.

Barter is generally attended with delay, impediments, and sacrifices to the European agent who exchanges his constituents' goods for native produce, and are never completed without his paying a large portion in cash, which is mostly 1/3, sometimes even 1/2, but never less than 1/3 of the full amount; besides always paying a higher price for the produce than if it were bought for ready money. On the other hand, so far as the agent's transaction goes in goods, the price of which he also advances, it is equal to an advantageous cash sale, deducting a discount; but still he loses, as we have just stated, on that part of the operation which subjects him to the necessity of giving ready money for such part of the produce as remains above the counter-value given in goods, at a higher rate than it is worth in the open market. Thus the advantage is all in favour of this country, and against the agent. Indeed, barter is seldom undertaken unless when a profitable result is anticipated, when European goods are difficult to be placed upon saving conditions, either from the want of demand or a glutted market, or when (which is mostly the case) the holder of such goods has orders from the owners of them to quit them in produce, and thus realize their property, if not upon profitable terms, at least without the risk arising from bad debts; sometimes, also, outstanding bonds are taken in part payment, to the extent occasionally of 1/3; another 1/3 is taken in goods at an advance of from 5 to 10 or 12 per cent. above



current prices; and the remaining in cash against produce, at from 5 to 10 per cent. more than fetches in the bazaars. However, it is by barter alone that any extensive transaction ever takes place or that it can be either readily or safely effected.

Sales on Credit.—The terms of credit vary considerably, and depend entirely upon the quality of the goods which the agent sells: for current or demanded merchandise, 2 couriers (or 2 periods of 15 days) and two and three 31 days, are the present terms; which are extended to four, five, and six months for articles not much in request. Couriers mean post days; of which we have 2 in each month; each courier, and 31 days, a proportionate payment becomes payable; for instance, on a credit of 31 days, 1-6th falls due at the expiration of the first month; and if paid, is noted accordingly on the bond, and so on until the remaining 5 periods are expired; it must, however, be observed, that payments are by no means punctually made, except by a few of our more wealthy bazaar buyers, although for the first 3 or 4 periods of a long credit some regularity is observed; but as the time begins to shorten, payments are proportionally retarded, so that two 31 days on a bond of credit for 6 months may be considered as a fair average of time in addition to the limited term.

Sales for Cash.—These very seldom occur, indeed, and then only when money is abundant, or the article sold scarce and in great demand; in fact, not 1 sale in 100 is made on these terms; and in about the same ratio is a discount taken off from a bazaar bond at even an exorbitant rate, however about the period may be that it has to run: occasionally a sale is, however, effected for cash, and the other for short credit, for some very current goods.

Character of Dealers.—Before entering upon the articles of commerce, we are desirous of making you acquainted with the character and customs of our bazaar dealers. The Greek dealers are in general petty shopkeepers, very cunning, and very bad payers. The Jews have similar defects, but are well supported by their brethren, who generally become guarantee for each other. The Armenians are by far the largest traffickers both for buying and selling; and though hard bargainers, are usually all solvent, and honourable as well as honest. The Turks are, however, as far superior to the foregoing races in all moral qualities, as they are inferior to them in means and commercial abilities; yet they sometimes deal largely, and their bond is as punctually discharged, in general, as the day comes when it falls due. The laws in this country mostly favour the debtor at the expense of the creditor, and so far they encourage dishonesty. The number of insolvent native dealers is at one time excessive; but of late the means of each individual buyer have been so carefully investigated, that at present we are not aware that there is one bazaar dealer who is not able to meet the demands of those from whom he has purchased. The European consuls, who enjoy much consideration by the Turks, protect the interests of their countrymen in disputed points; and, in general, questions of a commercial nature are submitted to the decision of a Turkish tribunal, where very little pleading but a good deal of plain straight-forward justice, goes forward; except that, perhaps, the European is, if anything, rather less favoured than the native.

We now proceed to offer some observations on the leading articles of our imports and exports for your government, the correctness of which may be relied upon.

IMPORTS.

Coffee.—This is by far the most current article received here, and is sent from England, France, Holland, Trieste, Marseilles, Leghorn, Genoa, and America; but first, and principally of late years, from the latter country; the vessels of which are frequently laden with coffee, and always partly so, the next in point of quantity comes from England; but is shipped mostly in small parcels at a time, of from 300 to 600 sacks, although occasionally that amount is doubled. France follows, but on a less extensive scale; and Austria, Holland, and the small ports in the south of Europe, do not together export more than what is received from England alone. We have 4 different qualities of coffee in our markets; namely, Mocha, St. Domingo, Havannah, and Brazil: the first is sent from Alexandria, and by American vessels, and but seldom from Europe; the consumption is, however, limited, and does not exceed 60,000 oke annually. At Constantinople, about 2 times that quantity is sold yearly. We never remember to have known such heavy importations of West India coffee as within the last 6 months (written in November, 1827); the consequence of which has been such an excess beyond the wants of the place, that not only buyers are fully supplied for some time to come, but also the heavy stock in first hands can only be diminished either by forced or ruinous sales, or must wait for 2 or 3 months, until the demand again comes round; which is, however, certain to take place, as coffee forms one of the necessities of life in this country; in short, an Asiatic cannot do without his coffee; and it is well known that in Smyrna alone not less than perhaps 400,000 cups of it are daily drunk, which, computed at the cost price of 2 pras each, amount to 800,000 piastres! The St. Domingo and Havannah coffee are preferred to the Brazil, although, when the latter is of a fair round quality, there is not more than 5 per cent. difference in price; the small green West India berry certainly commands a ready sale; but, for the finest sort, not more than 6 or 8 per cent. can be obtained above the middling and sound quality. Coffee is amongst the very few articles which occasionally meet with a partial and entire cash sale and short credit; and is, moreover, from the means and character of the dealers in it, the least liable to risk from insolvency. It is also the easiest through which an advantageous barter can be effected, as a much larger quantity of coffee will be taken in exchange for produce than almost any other item of European merchandise. Annual consumption, about 3,000,000 oke.

Sugar is the next in consequence. This article is supplied from the same sources as coffee, and is attended in its disposal with similar results. We receive the following qualities:—White crushed, white Havannah, brown do., white East India, refined in small loaves of 4 lbs. and in large of 8 lbs. each: the 2 latter are mostly shipped from America and England. The brown and ordinary sorts are not so current. Annual consumption, 10,000 kintals.

Indigo follows the 2 preceding articles, not so much in extent as meeting a ready sale always, and not unfrequently a profitable one: it is attended likewise with all the advantages and facilities attached to coffee and sugar, and is furnished by Europe and America, but principally by England. The qualities we receive consist of East India purple and copper, ditto common, and Guatemala. The first of the 3 is the kind best adapted for our markets, and is placed sooner and better than the other 2; but, as is the case with coffee, the very fine will not pay cost price, and ought therefore never to be sent. The pieces suited for our buyers ought to be good sized, with about an equal proportion of purple and copper in each piece. The few chests on sale are all ordinary, and consequently dull; and the first arrival of 15 or 20 chests (and not more ought ever to be shipped at one time) of fair East India will meet with a ready and favourable sale at 20 piastres per oke. Annual consumption, 80 chests.

Manufactures—This is, in point of amount, the most extensive branch of trade carried on in Turkey. We have, as you will perceive from our price current, a numerous assortment of British and East India cotton goods and English shalloons. The white or unprinted cotton goods are most in demand during the warm weather, and the coloured or printed stuffs during winter, although a considerable quantity of all sorts is regularly and largely sold throughout the whole year. The East India manufactures are supplied by America and England exclusively; the latter country also sends fair imitations of the East India loom, in long cloths, seracuckers, &c. The native consumers are exceedingly fastidious in their choice of designs and colours, which ought very frequently to be altered, in order to meet their capricious taste. Manufactured goods are always sold at long credits, but large barterers are

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is effected through them. A person desirous of entering into this item of our commerce is almost ultimately to reap an advantage; but he must have patience, a large capital, and must not be disappointed at the first or second result of his enterprise, should it disappoint his hopes of profit. He must also enter into the thing with spirit, and keep his agent always supplied with the goods he may command; and he is to remember that many months must elapse before he can expect a return by way of exchange, but sooner if he orders a barter. The capital employed must also at least be to the amount of 20,000, to do any good; and further, the sum ought to be dispersed by him without any necessary embarrassment or inconvenience. For a person willing to undertake such a step, he would require to be regularly furnished with patterns, and advices of the manner in which they ought to be prepared and varied; and we again repeat, that with competent means, a real desire to follow the branch fully, and full information hence of what is required, a most extensive and finally lucrative business would be done; and we recommend the matter strongly to your best consideration. Annual consumption of all kinds (British), about 367,300 pieces.

Cotes Tatist forms no inconsiderable article in our trade, and is supplied exclusively from England. It is, however, superseded, in some degree, the demand which formerly existed for water twist, and is consequently more in request. Water twist is nevertheless saleable, and both qualities appear to be rather high numbers. This article is often given in barter, but mostly sold at rather long credit, and hardly ever for cash. Annual consumption of water twist, 10,000 oke; ditto of mule twine, 20,000 oke.

Iron Bars, English, was formerly largely consumed; but from the buyers being plentifully supplied, it is at present but little demanded, even at the losing price of the day. Barter is very frequently effected through irons of all descriptions, and commands a short credit, and sometimes a cash bid. Annual consumption, 16,000 to 18,000 kintals.

Iron Plates are generally employed for building purposes, and store doors.

Iron Rods are always saleable.

Iron Nails are most saleable in August, September, and October, for fruit and other export barrels. *Iron Bars*, and *Swedish Bars*.—These kinds are sent in rather large parcels, particularly the latter, and fetch a higher price than the English, owing to their malleable qualities, which render them easier, and by that advantage command a preference: though the high price, beyond the English rates, puts the two qualities upon a level, and commands a larger consumption of the latter. Annual consumption, 3,500 kintals.

Iron Bars is a good, steady, saleable article; is often given on fair terms in barter, always disposed of on short credit, and now and then placed for cash. It comes from England exclusively. Annual consumption, 850 to 1,000 barrels of 4 cwt. each.

Iron Plates is attended with the foregoing advantages, and is also supplied by England alone. Annual consumption, 1,200 double boxes.

Lead in Sheets, Pigs, and Shot.—These 3 items have lately, particularly shot, been sent from Germany, and prove dangerous competitors with the English; in consequence of which the thing is overdone, and we have more in market than meets the demand at losing prices.

Lead, Red and White.—These 2 articles have lately been much in request for the formation of paint. Some large parcels of red have lately arrived, and sell well and currently, but we are altogether without white. The consumption of all sorts of lead has, however, considerably decreased of late years, and no longer forms an item of any great consequence in our trade. *Lead in Brandy*.—Lowland Island and Jamaica are furnished by America and England; the former particularly in the lower qualities, of which we have a full market at low prices. The better kind and quality are supplied from England, but do not obtain a proportionate advance compared with the numerous sorts. Brandy is but of limited demand, and 2 or 3 puncheons are sufficient at a time. It ought, as well as rum, to be deeply coloured. Annual consumption of rum, 300 puncheons.

Peppers are all saleable in small parcels at a time, particularly pepper and plumetto; the latter of which, in small sound berries, is demanded at good prices. Nutmegs are very abundant, and offering very low without finding purchasers. France, America, and England supply us with spices, but in none more so in cloves than in other kinds; and it may be remarked that the qualities received from England are preferred. Credit on selling is generally short.

Cinnamon is a fair article now and then in small quantities; and, when in demand, at times fetches good prices, occasionally a cash sale, and always one of the shortest credits. Annual consumption, 150 oke.

In concluding our observations on imports, we could wish to impress the conviction, that a poor man's purpose cannot be answered in speculating to this country; for, should his circumstances require a speedy remittance in bills, he must submit to a heavy sacrifice, in order to meet his wants, by selling his property for whatever it may fetch in cash; and such a measure cannot but be attended with very heavy loss. On the contrary, when an opulent person finds that his property cannot be disposed at selling prices, he can afford to wait until a more favourable moment presents itself; and such a moment, in less than 12 months, is almost certain to arrive, when he retires his money with advantage more than equal to any interest he could obtain for it in Europe.

That the rate of exchange has regularly advanced, and will continue to advance, is the natural result of the continual deterioration of the Turkish specie. We remember when the piece of money designated 'Mahmoudia,' passed at about its value, or nearly so, of 10 piastres: it rose to 25 soon afterwards; and the few which remain are at present worth 39 each. At the period we allude to (1812), the exchange on London was at 25 piastres the pound sterling; and until lately (owing to the great depression of trade, and to political events, which have lowered it), the rate has been up to 60. It cannot, however, increase beyond that rate more than 5 per cent., as it then will nearly be on a par with the value of the gold and silver current coin of the realm, when it will be better to result in specie than by a bill at 63 piastres for 61 days' sight.*

The rates of exchange fluctuate considerably, and a difference of 1 to 1 per cent. often occurs between one post day and another, and are attributable to the inequality scarcity of paper in market: it is for this reason that the rate always decreases during the present season, which takes place at the latter end of August, and continues until the middle of October; when it rises again to meet the limited wants of drawers, and the larger demands of those remittances who do not ship fruit, and invest the funds of their employers in that article. These observations lead us to submit the question of the advantage which a person in Europe has in receiving from this country, instead of sending to it. Late extensive barter have proved to us, and which we have endeavoured to show you, the unprofitable terms upon which they are conducted, were it only in paying, and that in cash too, for at least 1/2 of the amount, at a higher rate than was current; and this higher rate is, in itself, supposing the produce taken in barter to meet with a selling sale in Europe, of so small consideration;—then you have the advantage of drawing at a high exchange in making a purchase; and again you have the choice of selecting the good part of the produce, and of rejecting

* The exchange, partly from the further degradation of the coin, and partly from the balance of payments being against Smyrna, is now (February, 1834) 93 piastres to the pound sterling! This situation of the exchange renders the holding of property upon a speculation for an advance very hazardous.

the inferior,—a choice which is not allowed in taking it in barter; lastly, the principal advantage in buying over bartering is, that you can avail yourself of a depression in the produce market, and effect your purchase upon easy terms; whereas, when a barter is proposed, it has the immediate effect of producing a general rise in the whole market, and also of engendering the most absurd pretensions on the part of produce holders, who are too conversant with commerce not to see that either the European house, wishing to barter, is in want of procuring returns for his principal, or else that either the articles of produce wanted are in great demand in Europe—without which, the European agent would never submit to take produce at so much higher a price than he could procure it for with cash! The only time in which the person sending to this country can calculate upon a profitable return, is during the fruit season; and for that reason he ought to forward his shipments from Europe so as to meet the demand, and to be cashed by the beginning of August. A vessel from England hence is in general from 40 to 50 days in performing her voyage; sometimes much less, and but seldom longer; goods ought, if possible, always to be shipped in a fast and first class ship.

We now continue our remarks on the articles of our trade, and the following are some of them hence, and deserving of serious attention.

EXPORTS.

Silk.—This is the richest raw article in our export trade with Europe in general, but almost exclusively with England, which consumes nearly our entire produce. There are 3 different qualities, viz. fine, middling, and coarse. Bales, adapted for the English market, are composed of the 3 qualities, but the lesser quantity is of the coarse kind; at one time, all coarse was in request in London, but at present an assortment of the 3 qualities is preferred. When an order is given, it ought to be accompanied by a description of the quality required; and it is necessary to state that, for all of the qualities without being mixed, a higher price is demanded. A bale contains 40 tiffes; and, before being packed, is carefully examined and approved of by competent native judges. Silk is produced in *Brussa*, a large city about 200 miles distant from Smyrna, whence it is forwarded by caravans to the different places of consumption, which are Constantinople and this town. Until very lately, almost the entire crop of silk came for sale to Smyrna, but at present the most considerable part is sent to Constantinople, where the price is higher; we have therefore here an advantage, not only in price, but also in our manner of packing, which fetches 5 or 6 per cent. more in England than if packed in the capital. Silk is mostly a ready money article, though it sometimes may be had on credit, either at a short credit; or half cash and half 1 or 2 couriers; it is also now and then given in barter. Annual average produce, 2,500 bales, or about 450,000 lbs.*

Opium. In point of value, and as an article of speculation, hardly gives way to silk; but as it is largely shipped by Americans, and sent in smaller quantities to Holland, and the south of Europe, it is subject to much competition and variation of price, although we have invariably observed that the opening price of the new crop is always the lowest, which, however, is in some measure counterbalanced by the decrease in weight which occurs by keeping. This is also a cash article, and indeed subject to the same conditions as purchasing or bartering for silk; it nevertheless has one inferiority, which the silk is not liable to—namely, a difference in the quality of the crops: last year, our inferior opium was of a very bad kind, and hardly saleable in England; this year, though small, it is fine. On the Continent and in America, the small sort is preferred to the larger sized. We observe that, in England, the prices of opium fluctuate considerably; but we are not aware that, by holding it, any loss has ever happened,—another reason why a wealthy man only should embark in the Turkey trade. It would be impossible, or at least difficult, and attended with much expense, to obtain a monopoly of the opium crop, as it is produced through some thousands of individuals, each one (and they are all poor) adding his produce; and when collected in sufficient quantities, it is brought to market by the natives, having each of them 1 or 2 baskets for sale. What might be done is this:—Send a person to the place of growth with ready money to purchase a certain but limited quantity, and which he can do easily, if not hurried, to the extent of 50, or even 100 baskets, and upon terms of advantage, from the simple fact that the collectors of it prefer to receive a remunerating price on the spot of growth, rather than perform a long and expensive journey, with the chance of not finding purchasers immediately. Opium is produced at sundry places in the interior, of from 10 to 30 days' distance hence, but that grown at *Caissa*, about 600 miles from Smyrna, is the most esteemed, from its cleanliness and good quality; it comes to market in June, and finishes about December or January. Annual average produce, 3,000 baskets, or about 400,000 lbs.*

Drugs and Gums form one of our principal branches of commerce, and is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews. At present, gum Arabic and mastic are exceedingly scarce; and it is only when that the case, or the demand for exportation is very brisk, that much variation exists in the price of drugs, Trieste, and occasionally America, consume a considerable portion of gums, but the largest quantity goes to the English markets. Barterers are often effected through this medium; but it is not attended with much advantage, as they are conducted by a race who never lose in any transaction they undertake. It is impossible to ascertain the quantities of drugs received in Smyrna, and equally so to know the quantity remaining, as they are dispersed all over the city, and consumed so irregularly in Europe, as to hide defiance to all regular calculation.

Sponges have been, and still are, an article of considerable moment, particularly for the English markets, and are found about the islands in the Grecian Archipelago, brought here, and cleared for exportation. They vary in price from 6 to 90 piastres per ske, according to fineness and quality; the better sort alone answers for speculation, and which, it would appear, from the considerable quantity sent to London, turns to good account. The produce depends so entirely on chance, that no correct estimate of the yearly quantity can be formed; however, we are seldom in want of a moderate supply.

Galls are shipped in considerable quantities for the English, German, and French markets; the former, however, being the largest consumers; for England, the blue galls are those principally sent, though the market there for their sale being dull and low, prices with us, moderate as they are compared to last year, will still further decline, should a demand not spring up, of which there is no appearance. Annual produce of all sorts, 3,500 kintals.

* Since the period when this paper was drawn up, a considerable change has taken place in the silk and opium trade of Smyrna. A few years ago, the Turkish government so far receded from the principles which pervade its commercial policy—(see CONSTANTINOPLE),—as to attempt the establishment of monopolies of silk and opium; by compelling the producers of these articles to sell them at a fixed and low price to the government agents, by whom they were afterwards disposed of at an advanced rate. But a plan of this sort could not be carried into effect in such a country as Turkey; and had, consequently, to be abandoned. A duty of nearly 10 per cent. has, however, been imposed on the silk and opium exported to foreign parts. And in order to facilitate the collection of this duty, the whole of these articles intended for exportation are required to be brought to Constantinople! The regulation has done there for their sale being dull and low, prices with us, moderate as they are compared to last year, will still further decline, should a demand not spring up, of which there is no appearance. Annual produce of all sorts, 3,500 kintals. (See *Quarterly Turkey and its Resources*, p. 169.)

Cotton Wool, cleaned at present with us, which generally were produced of possible quantities of growth, which much resorted to, as with us, in Europe. It can

Pratt.—This is during the season, and all their quality, however, Cabsick, quality gained, quality fair with, and with a risk depends upon a variety. The quantity of the cotton used in carding, is seldom exceeding in price, is expected to be only bought up, usually. Made

lands may be calculated, 1,500 k. We have new, during them, and of from 16, 7, about 12 per cent.

SNUFF (G)

de polco; Russia, the usual basis, vary its pungency of snuff are inferior to the first, granulated, part remaining, result from its

Dealers in tobacco, they also oblige, over their door, and with ochre, under a penalty, it is prohibited, and be found to be water filled, deflected, and the

SNUFF-BO

British. We are met with in Cannon boxes

These beautiful, about 40 years ago. In place of preparation for the inventor, instead of years since, purity. The first box, is so called, required in its mystery attached, who are rigorous.

About the beginning of the 18th century, of the various attempts, producing a strongly enriched, most in demand, improved and probably, 20 made in Smyrna, who employ 20, and it was a manufacture of Smyrna in the wool, 1/2, the intricate, finest colour, this return it yields!

Cotton Wool, of which we have several qualities, is chiefly exported to Trieste and Marseilles. The demand at present for a kind of this produce is extremely limited, and we expect that prices will go lower with us before long, when perhaps something good might be done in Shouboogear to England, which generally receives only that quality. Barters are made to a large extent in cottons. Annual exports produce of all sorts, 60,000 kintals.

Raisins employs more British shipping for full cargoes of only one article, than any other species of produce, if we except, perhaps, fruit: it is also sent to Dublin and to the German markets in considerable quantities. Almost any supply can be obtained, and it is shipped generally near the places of growth, which are numerous, although there is never any want of it in the Smyrna market. It is much resorted to as a means of making barter, which perhaps are as easily effected, upon pretty fair terms, as with any other article of produce. The annual produce is sufficient to meet the wants of all Europe. It can be had to any extent, and at all periods.

Figs.—This is an article which occupies the attention of all Smyrna, more or less, and produces, during the season, great interest and activity. Figs come to market early in September, and raisins are ready for shipping early in October: the former are procurable only at Smyrna, where the latter in all their qualities may be procured; but the shipments are generally made at Cesme, Vouria, Carabourn, Uabek, &c., from which ports the name of the raisin takes its origin. Large sums are frequently gained in fruit speculations; and when the demand in England is brisk, and the prices and quality fair with us, it very seldom happens, indeed, that any loss is sustained: it is, however, attended with risk; it must be shipped dry; and ought only to go in a very fast, sound vessel, as much depends upon a fast, or at least an early arrival, which obtains in general a higher price than the later arrivals. The quantity produced is always uncertain.

The remaining articles of exports hence, we refer you to our price current. Carpets are produced to the extent of about 80,000 to 100,000 pikes a year. Oil (olive), to the amount of 10 to 15 million stook cargoes, from the islands of Mytilene, Candia, &c., is generally shipped for America and France; seldom for England; the season commences in September, but the crops of olives fluctuate exceedingly in point of quantity; hence arise dear and cheap years: last year was a high one, and it is expected to be lower this. Copper, old and new, may be computed at 20,000 oke, which are generally bought up as soon as offered in Europe. Hare's kins are computed at 350,000 to 400,000 annually. Madar roots at 12,000 kintals. Peletons, at 12,000 to 15,000 cheques. Goats' wool of all kinds may be calculated per year at 45,000 to 50,000 cheques; sheep's wool at 22,000 kintals. Wax (yellow), 1,600 kintals.

We have now finished our general remarks on the exports and imports of the place; and in concluding them, we beg to state that, upon an average of all of them, with the exception of fruit from, and of iron to, Turkey, the selling charges may (excluding del credere commission) be calculated at about 12 per cent., and on purchasing at about 8 per cent.

SNUFF (Ger. *Schnupftaback*; Fr. *Tabac en poudre*; It. *Tabacco da naso*; Sp. *Tabaco de pelo*; Rua. *Nosowoi tabak*), a powder in very general use as an errhine. Tobacco is the usual basis of snuff; but small quantities of other articles are frequently added to it, to vary its pungency, flavour, scent, &c. Though substantially the same, the kinds and names of snuff are infinite, and are perpetually changing. There are, however, 3 principal sorts: the first, granulated; the second, an impalpable powder; and the third, the bran, or coarse part remaining after sifting the second sort. Unless taken in excess, no bad consequences result from its use.

Dealers in tobacco and snuff are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually, which costs 5s. They are also obliged to enter their premises, and have their names written in large legible characters over their doors, or on some conspicuous part of their houses, under a penalty of 50l. The dyeing of snuff with ochre, amber, or any other colouring matter except water tinged with colour, is prohibited under a penalty of 100l.; and its intermixture with fustic, yellow ebony, touchwood, sand, dirt, leaves, &c. is prohibited under a penalty of 100l. and the forfeiture of the article.—(1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 109.) If snuff be found to contain 4 per cent. of any substance, not being tobacco, and other than water only, or water tinged with colour, or flavoured only, such snuff shall be deemed adulterated, and shall be forfeited, and the parties subjected to a penalty of 100l. over and above all other penalties and forfeitures.—(2.) No quantity of snuff weighing above 2 lbs. shall be removed by land or water without a permit.—(29 Geo. 3. c. 68.)—(See **TOBACCO**.)

SNUFF-BOXES are made of every variety of pattern, and of an endless variety of materials. We only mention them here for the purpose of giving the following details, not to be met with in any other publication, with respect to the manufacture of Laurencekirk or Cumnock boxes. These are made of wood, admirably jointed, painted, and varnished.

These beautiful boxes were first manufactured at the village of Laurencekirk, in Kincardineshire, about 40 years since. The original inventor was a cripple hardly possessed of the power of locomotion. In place of curtains, his bed (rather a curious workshop) was surrounded with benches and respectives for tools, in the contrivance and use of which he discovered the utmost ingenuity. The inventor, instead of taking out a patent, confided his secret to a joiner in the same village, who in a few years amassed a considerable property; while the other died, as he had lived in the greatest poverty. The great difficulty of the manufacture lies in the formation of the hinge, which, in a genuine box, is an delicately made as hardly to be visible. Peculiar, or as they are called, secret tools, are required in its formation; and though they must have been improved by time and experience, the mystery attached to their preparation is still so studiously kept up, that the workmen employed in one shop are rigorously debarred from having any communication with those employed in another.

About the beginning of this century, an ingenious individual belonging to the village of Cumnock, in Ayrshire, of the name of Crawford, having seen one of the Laurencekirk snuff-boxes, succeeded after various attempts, by the assistance of a watchmaker of the same village, who made the tools, in producing a similar box; and by his success, not only laid the foundation of his own fortune, but greatly enriched his native parish and province. For a while, the Laurencekirk boxes were most in demand; but Mr. Crawford and his neighbours in Cumnock not only copied the art, but so improved and perfected it, that, in a very few years, for every box made in the north there were, probably, 20 made in the south. In 1820, the Cumnock trade was divided amongst 8 master manufacturers, who employed considerably more than 100 persons. The demand at that time equalled the supply, and it was calculated that the trade yielded from 7,000l. to 8,000l. annually,—a large product for a manufacture seemingly so insignificant, and consisting almost exclusively of the wages of labour. Fine is the wood commonly used, and the cost of the wood in an ordinary sized box does not exceed 1s.; the paints and varnish are added at 2d.; and though something is lost by selecting timber of the best colour, the whole expense of the raw material falls considerably short of 1 per cent. on the return it yields:

all workshops of any size... period allowed to an individual... a polisher considerably less... in any price he chooses to... sold at 2s. 6d., and ladies... simply apprentices, who first... of improvement and competi... respective prices of 2s. and... property stationary, that of... which is much employed, the... rkmann, without injuring the... a Bunkerline wester, can... short, any object be made... considerable talent, and is offer... really worthy of being pro... were taken from Bourn's... "Tam O'Shanter," "The... very quarter of the habitable... studios of Wilkie, and other... with an figures; and there i... re or less perfectly on the... h affected by the long-conti... for some other employment... instead of being cooped up i... brief interval the trade fall... In Cumrock, the number of... shop so extensive that it may... be extending, such as the... principal markets for the man... in regard to simple manuf... "the condition most favorabl... bands of opulent neighbors... exempts them from the cri... of luxury, these are the most... and manufacturers; or those in... raw material." Some very... parts of England; but the... the finishing, is rising in the... friend, John M'Donald, in... the empire.

Mulo; Lat. Sapo). The... and soft; the former is... oily matters. Soap made... times denominated white... ice of the article, to mix... the common yellow soap... ot assume a solid form; it... ties of soft soap as a deter... nearly so convenient for... s in the formation of soap... as an unguent. The red... little tallow is also added... in fine white spots. The... France, Italy, and Spain, is... ctured from grease, tallow...

considered as a necessary of life... us, that soap was invented by... German soap was received the... limited for completing the cleaning... relating to the kind of soap, and the... Copper and other metals... every month. The frames used in... and put into the same tubs when... and prepared, must be either... and each of such frames are to be... inches long, and 13 inches broad... ed of all the residue of the soap... The soap is regulated by 30 Grs. 3 c... 125 110,555 85,011 2,441 3 10 5,703,970 3,526 72,076 11 6 4,903,504 3,729 62,448 7 3 210,919 88,809 3,384 11 1 4,073,972 2,773 50,944 17 7 201,612 69,290 4,421 10 6 7,445,467 6,491 92,115 13 4 310,612 101,753 90,875 25,501 4 11 7,936,569 12,734 99,309 19 3 2,751,559 140,873 35,420 4 3 6,884,061 4,167 84,083 6 6 6,559,461 190,992 82,875 9 11 8,068,205 10,324 101,302 16 10 10,714,263 120,256 131,605 3 1

the weight of 28 lbs. of such barrels at one time. In the... of soap according to the quality of 28 lbs. the word "soap"... is printed or marked in large letters of at least 1/2 inches long on... case, basket, box, case, or package containing the same; and... the same word must be printed or marked in letters of at least 2... inches in every way, cut, or other carriage carrying... the 28 lbs. in some conspicuous and open part of the same... is carried by a person being a known and public or common... of goods and merchandise from one part to another; officers

may inspect the soap and the accompanying certificate. Soap-makers... are also to keep books, and enter therein all quantities of soap sold... exceeding 28 lbs. Every barrel of soap must contain 8.6 lbs. soap... every 1-2 barrel 128 lbs., every 3/4 84 lbs.; and every 1-2... 38 lbs. Besides the weight and tare of the case, Soap-makers... must keep scales and weights, and send the scales officers in the... of 10 s., and must weigh their materials for making soap before the... officer, on penalty of 50s.—(City's Com. Laws, vol. ii. pp. 418-420.)

Exports of Soap and Candles.—We annually export from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 lbs. of soap and candles, worth from 250,000l. to 350,000l. Nearly 3/4 are exported to the British West Indian and American colonies. A very large quantity is also exported to Brazil.

Oppressiveness of the Duty.—The direct duty charged on hard soap, which is by far the most extensively used, amounted, till June, 1833, to 3d. per lb., or 2s. per cwt., while the price of soap rarely exceeded 6d. per lb., or 56s. per cwt., so that the direct duty was fully 100 per cent. But besides this enormous duty, the substances of which soap is made, viz. tallow, burilla, and turpentine, or rosin, were respectively charged with duties of 3s. 4d., 2s., and 4s. 4d. a cwt.; and taking these indirect taxes into account, it may be truly stated that soap was taxed from 150 to 130 per cent. ad valorem. The imposition of so exorbitant a duty on an article that is indispensable to the prosecution of many branches of manufacture, and to the comfort and cleanliness of all orders of persons, was in the last degree oppressive. There were good reasons, too, for thinking that in consequence of the encouragement which this excessive duty gave to smuggling and fraud, the revenue derived from it was not much greater than it will be now that it is reduced to 1/2 its former amount. During the 5 years ending with 1833, the consumption of duty-paid soap was nearly stationary; though there can be no doubt, from the increase of manufactures and population during that period, that it would have been very considerably extended, but for the increase of smuggling. This baneful practice is facilitated by the total exemption which Ireland enjoys from this duty; for it most infrequently happens that the soap made in that country, and sent to Ireland under a drawback, is again clandestinely introduced into Great Britain. It is, perhaps, needless to say, that nothing but the effectual reduction of the duty could put a stop to the smuggling and fraud that has been so generally practised. So long as the profit to be made by breaking the law was so high as 120 or 130 per cent., so long was it sure to be broken, in despite of the multiplication of penalties and the utmost activity and vigilance of the officers. But now that the duty has been reduced 1/2, the temptation to smuggle will be most materially diminished. And it may be fairly concluded that the increased consumption that will, no doubt, follow this reduction of duty, will go far to render the low duty as productive as the higher one; so that the advantages resulting from the diminished temptation to smuggling and fraud, and the influence of the reduced price of the article in facilitating manufacturing industry, and in promoting habits of cleanliness, will, most probably, be obtained, without any considerable loss of revenue.

The entire repeal of the soap duty would be a popular measure; but, seeing that a large amount of revenue must be raised, and that those taxes only are productive which affect all classes of the community, we should not be depressed to recommend such a measure. It is not the tax itself, but the oppressive extent to which it was carried that made it objectionable. Instead of proposing its repeal, we think it ought to be extended to Ireland. The exemption of one part of the empire from a duty which is imposed on another part, is contrary to all principle, and is fraught with the most pernicious results. It will be impossible to get rid of smuggling as long as this unjust distinction is suffered to exist. Were the duty extended to Ireland, the necessity for granting drawbacks on the soap exported thence, and of laying countervailing duties on that imported from it, would, of course, fall to the ground. And we feel confident that, though a still further deduction were made from the rate of duty, its productiveness would not, under such circumstances, be impaired even in England.

I. Account of the Quantity of Hard and Soft Soap charged with Excise Duty in Great Britain, in each of the Eleven Years ending 5th January, 1833; the Rates of Duty; and the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duties.—(Compiled from different Parliamentary Papers.)

Year.	Pounds Weight of Soap.		Rates of Duty.		Gross Produce of the Duties.			Nett Produce of the Duties.		
	Hard.	Soft.	Hard, per lb.	Soft, per lb.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1822	89,189,924	7,553,938	d.	d.						
1823	92,901,392	8,073,803	3	1 1/2						
1824	97,071,456	8,326,922	—	—						
1825	100,261,353	9,297,485	—	—						
1826	102,622,165	8,910,504	—	—	1,347,761	19	10	1,179,612	2	4
1827	96,453,694	7,278,416	—	—	1,263,818	3	8	1,107,060	7	10 1/2
1828	101,372,507	9,646,477	—	—	1,374,998	19	7	1,199,409	18	0 1/2
1829	108,110,198	10,024,665	—	—	1,425,516	11	9	1,210,754	11	1 1/2
1830	103,011,061	9,968,919	—	—	1,354,152	0	9	1,151,909	15	4 1/2
1831	117,291,290	10,200,519	—	—	1,513,149	19	0 1/2	1,249,684	13	10 1/2
1832	119,379,037	10,350,703	—	—	1,550,344	15	4 1/2	1,186,210	11	11 1/2

II. Account of all Soap exported to Ireland and Foreign Countries, on which a Drawback was allowed, during the Nine Years ending with 5th of January, 1833.—(Part Paper, No. 23. Sess. 1831.)

Year.	Ireland.				Foreign Countries.			
	Pounds Weight of Soap exported.		Drawback allowed thereon.	Pounds Weight of Soap exported.		Drawback allowed thereon.		
	Hard.	Soft.		Hard.	Soft.			
1821	116,461	72,813	£ s. d.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£ s. d.		
1822	110,555	85,011	1,985 18 11 1/2	4,903,504	3,729	62,448 7 3 1/2		
1823	110,919	88,809	2,441 3 10 1/2	5,703,970	3,526	72,076 11 6 1/2		
1824	201,612	69,290	3,384 11 1 1/2	4,073,972	2,773	50,944 17 7 1/2		
1825	310,612	101,753	4,421 10 6	7,445,467	6,491	92,115 13 4 1/2		
1826	271,559	90,875	12,501 4 11	7,936,569	12,734	99,309 19 3 1/2		
1827	2,751,559	140,873	35,420 4 3 1/2	6,884,061	4,167	84,083 6 6 1/2		
1828	6,559,461	190,992	82,875 9 11	8,068,205	10,324	101,302 16 10		
1829	10,714,263	120,256	131,605 3 1					

SODA. See ALKALI.
(SOUND.)

Return of the Number of Vessels which passed the Sound and cleared at Elsinore, in 1832, 1831, 1833, 1830, and 1837; distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, and stating their Tonnage for 1837.

Flags.	Ships, 1833.	Ships, 1834.	Ships, 1835.	Ships, 1836.	Ships, 1837.	Tonnage in 1837.
British - - -	3,192	2,758	2,473	3,194	3,417	655,417
Hanoverian - -	314	386	386	418	477	60,572
Danish - - -	826	759	752	920	1,113	110,256
Swedish - - -	1,069	936	991	903	1,038	111,090
Norwegian - -	1,461	1,495	1,357	1,417	1,513	186,112
Prussian - - -	2,089	1,927	1,938	2,392	2,319	474,295
Russian - - -	530	551	625	664	721	156,457
Dutch - - -	370	681	654	603	847	101,640
Belgian - - -	3	13	16	6	43	5,930
Macklenburg -	554	585	583	740	760	90,920
Hamburg - - -	44	26	21	27	28	5,168
Bremen - - -	53	49	43	49	40	4,505
American - - -	166	158	126	133	101	26,219
Portuguese - -	4			3	4	691
French - - -	121	115	146	105	130	20,881
Italian States -	10	22	21	26	26	3,276
Spanish - - -	19	18	7	19	14	2,580
Oldenburg - -	68	35	40	60	55	6,770
Lubeck - - -	91	82	71	91	93	9,632
Totals - - -	10,985	10,605	10,255	11,921	13,102	2,032,706

SOUTH SEA DUTIES. The act of the 9 Ann. c. 21., establishing the South Sea Company, conveyed to them the exclusive privilege of trading to the Pacific Ocean, and along the east coast of America, from the Orinoco to Cape Horn.

This privilege was taken away by the 47 Geo. 3. c. 23.; and in order to raise a guarantee fund for the indemnification of the Company, a duty of 2 per cent. *ad valorem* was imposed by the 53 Geo. 3. c. 57. on all goods (with the exception of those from Brazil and Dutch Surinam*); and with the exception of hubber, oil, &c. of whales, or fish caught by the crews of British or Irish ships imported from within the afore-said limits. A duty of 1s. 6d. per ton was also imposed on all vessels (except in ballast or importing the produce of the fishery of British subjects) entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to places within the said limits. The duties are to cease when the guarantee fund is completed.

SOY, a species of sauce prepared in China and Japan from a small bean, the produce of the *Dolichos soja*. It is eaten with fish and other articles. It should be chosen of a good flavour, not too salt nor too sweet, of a good thick consistence, a brown colour, and clear; when shaken in a glass, it should leave a coat on the surface, of a bright yellowish brown colour; if it do not, it is of an inferior kind, and should be rejected. Japan soy is deemed superior to the Chinese. It is worth, in bond, from 6s. to 7s. a gallon. It is believed to be extensively counterfeited.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SPELTER, a name frequently given to ZINC; which see.

(The exportation of spelter or zinc from Europe to India, which began in 1821, produced an extent of speculation, and a fluctuation of price, that could hardly have been conceived possible.—Subjoined is an account of the

Quantity, Value, and Selling Price of the Spelter Imported into Calcutta, from all Parts, from the year 1820—21.

Years.	Quantity Imported.		Value.		Years.	Quantity Imported.		Value.		Average Price per T. M.
	Baz.	Mds.	Rs.	Ann.		Baz.	Mds.	Rs.	Ann.	
1820-21					1827-28					
1821-22					1828-29					
18-2-23					1830-30					
1823-24					1830-31					
1824-25					1831-32					
1825-26					1832-33					
1826-27					1833-34					

This table shows the extraordinary extent to which speculation had operated on this article. The excess of imports from 1824-25 to 1828-29 was such, that recently the trade may be said to have been altogether extinct; the supplies that were carried out during the 3 years ending with 1831-32 being intended rather to serve as dead weight than as a merchantable article. The stock in the India market has now, however, been so much reduced, that a considerable rise of prices may, at no distant period, be fairly anticipated. (*Bull's Comparative View of the Commerce of Bengal for 1830-31, and 1831-32, p. 5.; and for 1832-33, and 1833-34, p. 24.*)—*Sup.*

SPERMACETI (Ger. *Wallrath*; Fr. *Blanc de Baleine*, *Sperme de Baleine*; It. *Spermaceti*; Sp. *Espuma de Ballena*; Rus. *Spermazet*), a product obtained from the brain of the *physeter macrocephalus*, a species of whale inhabiting the Southern Ocean. The brain being dug out from the cavity of the head, the oil is separated from it by dripping. The residue is crude spermaceti, of which an ordinary sized whale will yield 12 barrels. After being brought to England, it is purified. It then concretes into a white, crystallised, brittle, semitransparent, unctuous substance, nearly inodorous and insipid. On being cut into small

* The provinces of the Rio de la Plata have since been added.—(*Treas. Order*, 12th of March, 1833.)

pieces it assumes a flaky aspect. It is very heavy; its specific gravity being 9.433. It is used in the manufacture of candles, in medicine, &c.

SPICES (Ger. *Spezereyen*; Du. *Speceryen*; Fr. *Epiceries, Epices*; It. *Spezi, Spezie-rie*; Sp. *Espicias, Especerias*; Port. *Especiaria*; Rus. *Pränue korenja*). Under this denomination are included all those vegetable productions which are fragrant to the smell and pungent to the palate; such as cloves, ginger, nutmegs, allspice, &c. These will be found under their proper heads.

SPIRIT OF WINE. See **ALCOHOL.**

SPIRITS. All inflammable liquors obtained by distillation, as brandy, rum, geneva, whisky, gin, &c., are comprised under this designation. The term *British spirits* is applied indiscriminately to the various sorts of spirits manufactured in Great Britain and Ireland. Of these, gin and whisky are by far the most important.

The manufacture of spirits is placed under the *surveillance* of the excise, and a very large revenue is obtained from it. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 80. lays down the regulations to be followed by the distillers in the manufacture, and by the officers in charging the duties. This act is of great length, having no fewer than 151 clauses; it is, besides, exceedingly complicated, and the penalties in it amount to many thousand pounds. It would, therefore, be to no purpose to attempt giving any abstract of it in this place. Every one carrying on the business of distillation must have the act in his possession, and must be practically acquainted with its operation.

1. *Spirit Duties.* *Consumption of British Spirits in Great Britain and Ireland.*—These are, perhaps, no better subjects for taxation than spirituous and fermented liquors. They are essentially luxuries; and while moderate duties on them are, in consequence of their being very generally used, exceedingly productive, the increase of price which they occasion has a tendency to lessen their consumption by the poor, to whom, when taken in excess, they are exceedingly pernicious. Few governments, however, have been satisfied with imposing moderate duties on spirits; but partly in the view of increasing the revenue, and partly in the view of placing them beyond the reach of the lower classes, have almost invariably loaded them with such oppressively high duties as have entirely defeated both objects. The imposition of such duties does not take away the appetite for spirits; and as no vigilance of the officers or severity of the laws has been found sufficient to secure a monopoly of the market to the legal distillers, the real effect of the high duties has been to throw the supply of a large proportion of the demand into the hands of the illicit distiller, and to superadd the atrocities of the smuggler to the idleness and dissipation of the drunkard.

During the latter part of the reign of George I., and the earlier part of that of George II., gin-drinking was exceedingly prevalent; and the cheapness of ardent spirits, and the multiplication of public houses, were denounced from the pulpit, and in the presentations of grand juries, as pregnant with the most destructive consequences to the health and morals of the community. At length, ministers determined to make a vigorous effort to put a stop to the further use of spirituous liquors, except as a cordial or medicine. For this purpose an act was passed in 1736, the history and effects of which deserve to be studied by all who are clamorous for an increase of the duties on spirits. Its preamble is to this effect:—"Whereas the drinking of spirituous liquors, or strong water, is become very common, especially among people of lower and inferior rank, the constant and excessive use of which tends greatly to the destruction of their health, rendering them unfit for useful labour and business, debauching their morals, and inciting them to perpetrate all vices; and the ill consequences of the excessive use of such liquors are not confined to the present generation, but extend to future ages, and tend to the destruction and ruin of this kingdom." The enactments were such as might be expected to follow a preamble of this sort. They were not intended to repress the vice of gin-drinking, but to root it out altogether. To accomplish this, a duty of *twenty shillings* a gallon was laid on spirits, exclusive of a heavy licence duty on retailers. Extraordinary encouragements were at the same time held out to informers, and a fine of 100*l.* was ordered to be rigorously exacted from those who, were it even through inadvertency, should vend the smallest quantity of spirits which had not paid the full duty. Here was an act which might, one should think, have satisfied the bitterest enemy of gin. But instead of the anticipated effects, it produced those directly opposite. The respectable dealers withdrew from a trade proscribed by the legislature; so that the spirit business fell almost entirely into the hands of the lowest and most profligate characters, who, as they had nothing to lose, were not deterred by penalties from breaking through all its provisions. The populace having in this, as in all similar cases, espoused the cause of the smugglers and unlicensed dealers, the officers of the revenue were openly assaulted in the streets of London and other great towns; informers were hunted down like wild beasts; and drunkenness, disorders, and crimes, increased with a frightful rapidity. "Within 2 years of the passing of the act," says Tindal, "it had become *odious and contemptible*, and policy as well as humanity forced the commissioners of excise to mitigate its penalties."—(*Continuation of Rapin*, vol. viii. p. 358, ed. 1759.) The same historian mentions (vol. viii. p. 390.), that during

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Stonore, in 1833, 1831, 1835,
and stating their Tonnage

Sh ps, 1837.	Tonnage in 1837.
3,917	655,417
477	60,572
1,112	110,256
1,038	141,090
1,813	186,113
2,319	475,995
721	150,477
847	104,640
43	5,920
760	90,920
38	5,166
40	4,865
104	26,240
4	824
130	20,881
26	2,376
14	2,350
55	6,770
93	9,632
13,102	2,033,706

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publishing the South Sea
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Value.	Average Price per T. Mt.
Sa. Rs.	Cur. Rs.
1,173,614	9 3
711,317	7 2
487,627	8 1
382,203	5 10
19,183	5 8
12,245	
96,312	

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Order, 12th of March, 1831.

the 2 years in question, no fewer than 12,000 persons were convicted of offences connected with the sale of spirits. But no exertion on the part of the revenue officers and magistrates could stem the torrent of smuggling. According to a statement made by the Earl of Chomondelley, in the House of Lords—(*Timberland's Debates in the House of Lords*, vol. viii. p. 388.), it appears, that at the very moment when the sale of spirits was declared to be illegal, and every possible exertion made to suppress it, upwards of SEVEN MILLIONS of gallons were annually consumed in London, and other parts immediately adjacent! Under such circumstances, government had but one course to follow—to give up the unequal struggle. In 1742, the high prohibitory duties were accordingly repealed, and such moderate duties imposed, as were calculated to increase the revenue, by increasing the consumption of legally distilled spirits. The bill for this purpose was vehemently opposed in the House of Lords by most of the Bishops, and many other peers, who exhausted all their rhetoric in depicting the mischievous consequences that would result from a toleration of the practice of gin-drinking. To these declamations it was unanswerably replied, that whatever the evils of the practice might be, it was impossible to repress them by prohibitory enactments; and that the attempts to do so had been productive of far more mischief than had ever resulted, or could be expected to result, from the greatest abuse of spirits. The consequences of the change were highly beneficial. An instant stop was put to smuggling; and if the vice of drunkenness was not materially diminished, it has never been stated that it was increased.

But it is unnecessary to go back to the reign of George II. for proofs of the impotency of high duties to take away the taste for such an article, or to lessen its consumption. The occurrences that took place in the late reign, though they would seem to be already forgotten, are equally decisive as to this question.

Duties in Ireland.—Perhaps no country has suffered more from the excessive height to which duties on spirits have been carried than Ireland. If heavy taxes, enforced by severe fiscal regulations, could make a people sober and industrious, the Irish would be the most so of any on the face of the earth. In order to make the possessors of property join heartily in suppressing illicit distillation, the novel expedient was here resorted to, of imposing a heavy fine on every parish, town land, manor land, or lordship, in which an unlicensed still was found; while the unfortunate wretches found working in it were subjected to *transportation for seven years*. But instead of putting down illicit distillation, these unheard-of severities rendered it universal, and filled the country with bloodshed, and even rebellion. It is stated by the Rev. Mr. Chichester, in his valuable pamphlet on the *Irish Distillery Laws*, published in 1818, that “the Irish system seemed to have been formed in order to perpetuate smuggling and anarchy. It has culled the evils of both savage and civilised life, and rejected all the advantages which they contain. The calamities of civilised warfare are, in general, inferior to those produced by the Irish distillery laws; and I doubt whether any nation of modern Europe, which is not in a state of actual revolution, can furnish instances of legal cruelty commensurate to those which I have represented.”—(Pp. 92–107.)

These statements are borne out to the fullest extent by the official details in the *Reports of the Revenue Commissioners*. In 1811, say the commissioners (*Fifth Report*, p. 19.), when the duty on spirits was 2s. 6d. a gallon, duty was paid in Ireland on 6,500,361 gallons (Irish measure); whereas, in 1822, when the duty was 5s. 6d., only 2,950,647 gallons were brought to the charge. The commissioners estimate, that the annual consumption of spirits in Ireland was at this very period not less than TEN MILLIONS of gallons; and, as scarcely three millions paid duty, it followed, that seven millions were illegally supplied; and “taking one million of gallons as the quantity fraudulently furnished for consumption by the licensed distillers, the produce of the unlicensed stills may be estimated at six millions of gallons.”—(*Ib.* p. 8.) Now, it is material to keep in mind that this vast amount of smuggling was carried on in the teeth of the above barbarous statutes, and in despite of the utmost exertions of the police and military to prevent it; the only result being the exasperation of the populace, and the perpetration of revolting atrocities both by them and the military. “In Ireland,” say the commissioners, “it will appear, from the evidence annexed to this Report, that parts of the country have been absolutely disorganised, and placed in opposition not only to the civil authority, but to the military force of the government. The profits to be obtained from the evasion of the law have been such as to encourage numerous individuals to persevere in these desperate pursuits, notwithstanding the risk of property and life which they have been attended.”

To put an end to such evils, the commissioners recommended that the duty on spirits should be reduced from 5s. 6d. to 2s. the wine gallon (2s. 4d. the imperial gallon), and government wisely consented to act upon this recommendation. In 1823, the duties were accordingly reduced; and the following official account will show what has been the result of this measure:—

It may appear, on a superficial view of this Table, as if the consumption of spirits in Ireland had been nearly trebled since 1823; but, in point of fact, it has not been in any degree increased. The reduction of the duties substituted legal for illicit distillation, and freed the

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An Account of
Home Consum
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Year	Consumption
1811	6,500,361
1822	2,950,647
1823	2,950,647
1824	2,950,647
1825	2,950,647
1826	2,950,647
1827	2,950,647
1828	2,950,647
1829	2,950,647
1830	2,950,647
1831	2,950,647
1832	2,950,647
1833	2,950,647

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country from the perjuries and other atrocities that grew out of the previous system; but it would be wholly erroneous to say that it increased drunkenness. We have already seen that the commissioners, who had the best means of obtaining accurate information, estimated the consumption of spirits in Ireland, in 1823, at *two millions* of gallons; and it was not more in 1828 and 1829. The measure was, therefore, in every point of view most successful; and it is much to be regretted that it was interfered with in 1830, by raising the duties from 2s. 10d. to 3s. 4d. The following Table shows that this increase has materially diminished the quantity of spirits brought to the charge. We do not, however, believe that it has occasioned any diminution of consumption. The truth is, that 2s. 10d. was as high a duty as the article would bear; and the additional 6d. has again thrown the balance in favour of the smuggler, and led to a partial revival of illicit distillation. The evidence taken before the commissioners of excise inquiry has completely established this fact; and sound policy would, therefore, suggest that the duty should be once more reduced to 2s. 10d. At all events, we trust that no senseless, though well-meant clamour about the prevalence of drunkenness, and no pecuniary necessity, will ever tempt ministers to add further to the duties on spirits. Such a measure would not bring a shilling into the public treasury, nor cause any diminution of the vice of drinking; it would merely add smuggling and its attendant evils to the other disorders with which Ireland is afflicted.

An Account of the Quantities of Spirits made in Ireland, which have paid the duties of Excise for Home Consumption; stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since the Year 1820.—(Parl. Paper, No. 340, Sess. 1829, No. 61, Sess. 1831, &c.)

Year.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.
1821	<i>Imperial Measure.</i> 2,648,179	5s. 6d. per Irish gallon.	£ 912,288 <i>s.</i> 7 <i>d.</i> 5
1822	2,328,357	Ditto.	797,518 13 3
1823	3,345,505	{ from 10th of Oct. 1823, 2s. per English wines gallon. }	634,460 7 2
1824	6,690,315	Ditto.	771,690 16 0
1825	6,292,744	Ditto.	1,061,191 6 5
1826	6,537,408	2s. 10d. per Imperial gallon.	964,509 10 8
1827	6,360,919	Ditto.	1,122,696 14 10
1828	9,637,903	Ditto.	1,393,721 12 11
1829	9,212,223	Ditto.	1,305,064 18 6
1830	9,004,539	2s. 10d., 2s., and 3s. 4d. per ditto.	1,409,128 3 7
1831	8,710,672	3s. 4d.	1,451,560 7 1
1832	8,637,736	Ditto.	1,443,843 9 11
1833	8,168,596	Ditto.	1,360,769 6 8

Duties in Scotland.—The experience of Scotland is hardly less decisive as to this question. The exorbitance of the duties produced nearly the same effects there as in Ireland. Mr. John Hay Forbes, formerly sheriff-depute of Perthshire, now one of the Lords of Session, stated in evidence before the commissioners, that, according to the best information he could obtain, the quantity of illegally distilled spirits annually produced in the Highlands could not amount to less than *two millions of gallons*. In corroboration of this he stated, that, in 1821, only 298,138 gallons were brought to the charge in the Highlands; and of these, 254,000 gallons were permitted to the Lowlands, leaving only 44,000 gallons for the consumption of the whole country;—a supply which, we are well assured, would hardly be sufficient for the demand of 2 moderately populous parishes. In a letter of Captain Munro of Terrinich to the commissioners, it is stated that, “at Tain, where there are upwards of 20 licensed public houses, *not one gallon had been permitted from the legal distilleries for upwards of twelve months*,” though a small quantity of smuggled whisky had been purchased at the excise sales, to give a colour of legality to the trade. The same gentleman thus expresses himself in another part of his letter:—“The moral effects of this baneful trade of smuggling on the lower classes is most conspicuous, and increasing in an alarming degree, as evidenced by the multiplicity of crimes, and by a degree of insubordination formerly little known in this part of the country. In several districts, such as Strathconon, Strathcarron, &c., the excise officers are now often deforced, and dare not attempt to do their duty; and smuggled whisky is often carried to market by smugglers escorted by armed men, in defiance of the laws. In short, the Irish system is making progress in the Highlands of Scotland.”

To arrest the progress of demoralisation, government, pursuant to the judicious advice of the commissioners, reduced the duties on Scotch to the same level as those on Irish whisky; and the consequences were equally salutary. The subjoined official statement (page 540) shows the effect of the reduction of the duty in 1823, and of its subsequent increase in 1830.

This Table sets the impolicy of the increase of duty in 1830 in nearly as striking a point of view as it does the policy of its reduction in 1823. There is no denying the fact, that this unequalled measure has diminished the consumption, and given a powerful stimulus to illicit distillation. We understand

that the commissioners of excise inquiry mean to recommend that the duty be again reduced to 2s. 10d.; and every one, not anxious for the prevalence of smuggling, will be desirous that this recommendation should be carried into effect.

An Account of the Quantities of Spirits made in Scotland, which have paid the Duties of Excise for Home Consumption; and stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since the Year 1820.—(Parl. Paper, No. 340, Sess. 1829, No. 61, Sess. 1831, &c.)

Years.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.	
			£	s. d.
1821	<i>Imperial Measure.</i> 2,229,435	5s. 6d. per English wine gallon.	727,650	19 7
1822	2,079,556		691,136	6 6
1823	2,229,729	} from 10th of Oct. 1823, 2s. per English wine gallon.	536,654	17 8
1824	4,350,301		530,624	19 4
1825	5,981,550		629,848	11 0
1826	3,988,788	2s. 10d. per Imperial gallon.	563,263	4 0
1827	4,752,199		672,441	6 6
1828	5,716,180	Ditto.	809,550	6 7
1829	5,777,250		818,448	0 0
1830	6,007,621	2s. 10d., 3s., and 3s. 4d. per ditto.	939,258	6 0
1831	5,700,689		930,041	4 3
1832	5,407,097	Ditto.	901,182	16 8
1833	5,988,556	Ditto.	936,051	3 3

Duties in England.—Previously to the reduction of the duty on Irish and Scotch spirits, the duty on English spirits had been as high as 10s. 6d. a gallon. This high duty, and the restrictions under which the trade was placed, were productive of the worst effects. They went far to enable the distillers to fix the price of spirits, "and consequently," (we quote the words of the commissioners) "to raise it much beyond that which was sufficient to repay, with a profit, the cost of the manufacture and the duty advanced to the Crown." And, in proof of this, the commissioners mention, that in November, 1823, "when corn spirits might be purchased in Scotland for about 2s. 3d. a gallon, raw spirits could not be purchased in England for less than 4s. 6d. ready money, and 4s. 9d. credit, omitting in both cases, the duty." In consequence of this state of things, the adulteration of spirits was carried on to a great extent in England; and the large profits made by the smuggler occasioned clandestine importation in considerable quantities from Scotland and Ireland. To obviate these inconveniences, and at the same time to neutralize the powerful additional stimulus that the reduction of the duties in Scotland and Ireland would have given to smuggling, had the duties in England been continued at their former amount, the latter were reduced, in 1825, to 7s. a gallon, facilities being at the same time given to the importation of spirits from the other parts of the empire. It is of the effects of this measure that so many complaints have been made, though nothing can well be imagined more completely destitute of foundation. The commissioners estimated the consumption of British spirits in England and Wales in 1823, at 5,000,000 gallons.—(Sup. to Fifth Report, p. 8.); and it appears from the subjoined account, that it amounted, for the year ending the 5th of January, 1834, to 7,717,303 gallons; producing 2,838,694 12s. 6d. of revenue; so that, making allowance for the increase of population, and the check given to adulteration and smuggling, the increase must appear very trifling indeed; and we are warranted in affirming that the reduction of the duties has been as eminently successful in England as in either Scotland or Ireland.

Account of the Quantities of British, Colonial, and Foreign Spirits, which paid the Home Consumption Duty for England, Scotland, and Ireland, from the Year 1821 to 1834, inclusive.

Years.	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.
1821	Imp. Gal. 969,474	Imp. Gal. 1,166,441	Imp. Gal. 3,820,015	Imp. Gal. 34,601	Imp. Gal. 158,169	Imp. Gal. 2,229,435	Imp. Gal. 10,325	Imp. Gal. 158,659	Imp. Gal. 2,610,170
1822	1,054,510	2,100,923	4,346,918	35,730	130,879	2,079,556	10,325	15,023	2,229,257
1823	1,131,009	2,222,923	3,521,566	34,297	108,562	2,232,728	25,289	18,175	2,345,505
1824	1,285,609	2,407,207	4,067,232	47,710	134,986	4,350,301	1,352	9,123	4,690,315
1825	1,348,482	1,980,867	3,443,554	56,554	140,752	5,981,540	4,550	10,128	4,998,743
1826	1,498,230	3,982,053	7,407,205	42,092	291,505	3,988,789	0,452	27,728	6,857,408
1827	1,321,221	3,080,152	6,671,562	42,756	185,214	4,753,200	0,179	23,240	6,200,519
1828	1,323,197	3,004,850	7,759,687	45,719	188,089	5,716,180	9,779	24,708	6,947,963
1829	1,293,523	3,202,113	7,700,766	43,229	132,161	5,777,250	10,374	21,369	6,242,223
1830	1,307,307	3,503,141	7,722,101	38,967	137,806	6,007,621	10,406	18,011	6,601,259
1831	1,217,971	3,479,911	7,431,047	30,714	125,702	5,700,689	10,459	18,864	6,516,622
1832	1,530,088	3,377,567	7,259,287	60,256	119,026	5,407,097	33,413	24,432	6,857,226
1833	1,319,816	3,314,018	7,717,303	46,600	121,357	5,988,556	21,262	22,888	6,188,546
1834	1,347,436	3,206,650	7,644,301	44,748	111,169	6,045,043	27,988	27,358	6,768,416

Account of the Number of Gallons of British, Colonial, and Foreign Spirits, which have paid the Home Consumption Duty; specifying the Quantities, separately entered for England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the Total Nett Revenue derived from the same; during the Year ended the 5th of January, 1836.

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.
British Spirits	6,715,613	2,743,145	6,013,934	1,002,324	11,387,323	1,327,869	24,170,068	5,033,778
Colonial ditto	3,285,473	1,478,521	165,188	47,540	28,295	11,833	9,318,909	1,374,941
Foreign ditto	1,256,167	1,436,561	409,000	45,098	21,633	24,418	1,346,710	1,800,660
Totals	11,896,613	5,658,227	6,188,110	1,094,968	11,439,171	1,361,009	25,475,914	7,210,379

The following Table exhibits in detail the consumption of, and revenue from, the different sorts of spirits in the United Kingdom, during the 3 years ended with the 5th of January, 1833:—

An Account of 1832; dis

Year 1830.	£	s.	d.
By duty on spirits	727,650	19	7
By duty on wine	691,136	6	6
Total	1,418,786	25	13
Year 1831.			
By duty on spirits	536,654	17	8
By duty on wine	530,624	19	4
By duty on rum	629,848	11	0
By duty on home-made spirits	563,263	4	0
Total	2,260,389	31	2
Year 1832.			
By duty on spirits	809,550	6	7
By duty on wine	818,448	0	0
By duty on rum	939,258	6	0
By duty on home-made spirits	930,041	4	3
Total	3,537,307	16	8

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Year.	Revenue.	Gallons.
1830	1,601	1,897
1831	1,288	1,388
1832	1,815	1,871
1833	1,237	1,374
1834	1,208	1,300
Total	628	628

Year.	Revenue.	Gallons.
1830	1,601	1,897
1831	1,288	1,388
1832	1,815	1,871
1833	1,237	1,374
1834	1,208	1,300
Total	628	628

SPIRITS.

An Account of the Quantity of each of the different Sorts of Spirits that paid Duty in 1830, 1831, and 1832; distinguishing England, Scotland, and Ireland; with the Amount of Duty thereon.

Year 1830.	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.
Brandy	1,230,113	1,391,474	37,997	31,485	7,943	6,656	1,274,801	1,442,023
Geneva	19,373	21,619	9,633	1,198	1,016	30,759	34,408	
Rum	5,603,144	1,531,521	136,240	10,517	19,254	3,619,858	1,630,311	
Home-made spirits	7,736,101	2,957,148	6,007,631	839,334	9,004,539	1,412,917	22,741,271	
Total	12,468,737	5,892,656	6,181,761	1,041,583	9,033,319	1,432,016	27,709,831	
Year 1831.	1,184,717	1,342,735	81,563	35,509	8,821	9,923	1,235,101	1,388,167
Brandy	15,079	16,971	7,431	8,361	1,369	1,562	23,869	26,994
Geneva	3,479,811	1,564,775	124,702	56,268	14,984	3,40	3,614,997	1,629,881
Rum	7,434,047	2,787,787	5,700,833	920,115	6,710,672	1,461,779	21,845,408	
Home-made spirits	12,468,737	5,892,656	6,181,761	1,041,583	9,033,319	1,432,016	27,709,831	
Total	12,468,737	5,892,656	6,181,761	1,041,583	9,033,319	1,432,016	27,709,831	
Year 1832.	1,508,921	1,697,095	81,151	68,794	31,577	35,512	1,601,652	1,801,401
Brandy	13,333	15,567	7,068	7,947	1,402	1,677	22,301	25,091
Geneva	3,777,437	1,518,504	119,029	50,198	24,432	10,978	3,915,965	1,550,580
Rum	7,239,287	2,742,433	5,407,097	90,113	8,617,756	1,444,919	91,324,110	
Home-made spirits	12,159,561	5,603,889	5,587,340	1,028,332	8,715,167	1,491,026	26,420,658	
Total	12,159,561	5,603,889	5,587,340	1,028,332	8,715,167	1,491,026	26,420,658	

The extraordinary increase in the consumption of brandy in 1832 is wholly ascribable to the alarm occasioned by the breaking out of the cholera, and the prevalent, but now exploded, notion that brandy potations were an antidote to the disease. As soon as the alarm subsided, the consumption of brandy declined to its old level; the entries for home use in 1833 not having exceeded 1,335,820 gallons.

Penalty on Spirits.—No spirits made in England, Scotland, or Ireland, shall be conveyed from England to Scotland or Ireland, or from Scotland or Ireland to England, otherwise than in casks containing any gallons at the least, and in vessels of not less than fifty tons burthen.

All persons who, not being licensed distillers, rectifiers, or compounders, having more than eighty gallons of spirits in their possession, shall be deemed dealers in spirits, and subject to the survey of the officers of excise, and to all the regulations, penalties, &c. to which such persons are liable. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 132.)

Distillers in British spirits are prohibited selling or having in their possession any plain British spirits, except spirits of wine, of any strength exceeding the strength of 23 per cent. above hydrometer, or of any strength below 17 per cent. under hydrometer proof; or any compound spirits, except brandy, of any greater strength than 17 per cent. under hydrometer, under pain of forfeiting all such spirits, with double the value. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 132.)

Distillers in foreign and British spirits are to keep them separate, in casks, vats, or other vessels specially intended for that purpose, under a heavy penalty; and if any person mixing, selling, or sending any British spirits mixed with foreign or colonial spirits, shall be liable to prosecution for every such offence. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 133.)

No retailer of spirits, or any other person licensed or unlicensed, shall sell or send out from his stock or custody any quantity of spirits exceeding 1 gallon, unless the same be accompanied by a true and lawful permit, under pain of forfeiting 20*l.*; and any rectifier, compounder, or dealer in spirits, receiving the same into their stock, or allowing any one else to receive it, and any carrier, boatman, or other person, knowingly carrying the same, shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.*, with the boat, horse, cart, &c. used in the carriage. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 134.)

No licence to be granted for retailing spirits within goals, houses of correction, or workhouses for parish poor; nor are spirits to be used there, except medicinally prescribed by a regular physician, surgeon, or apothecary. Penalty for a first offence of this sort committed by a gaoler, &c. 100*l.*; a second offence in be deemed a forfeiture of their office. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 135.)

Persons housing spirits to forfeit them and 100*l.*; and if the penalty be not immediately paid, they are to be committed to the house of correction for 3 months, or until paid. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 136.)

Any person is authorised to detain a lawbreaker of spirits, and give notice to a peace officer, who is to carry the offender before a justice. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 137.)

Any officer of excise, or other person employed in the excise, taking any sum of money or other reward from, or entering into any collusion agreement with, any person, to act contrary to his duty, to forfeit 500*l.*, and be incapacitated; and any person offering such reward or proposing such agreement, to forfeit 500*l.*. (6 Geo. 4. c. 80. sect. 138.)

For the regulations as to the importation, &c. of foreign spirits, see *Brandy, Geneva, and Rum.*

(The reader will find in the foregoing article a statement of the smuggling and other pernicious consequences resulting in Ireland from the oppressive duties laid on spirits previously to 1833; of the good effects of the reduction of the duty to 2*s.* 10*d.* the imperial gallon in that year; and of the influence which the addition of 6*d.* to the duty in 1831 had in reviving that illicit distillation, the preceding reduction had gone far to put down. The view we took of the necessity of making a fresh reduction of the duty was approved and strongly recommended by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry; and has, we are glad to say, been acted on by government; the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 75. having reduced the duty on British spirits, entered for home consumption in Ireland, to 2*s.* 4*d.* a gallon.)

It was contended, when this measure was before parliament, that the reduction should be extended to all parts of the empire; and that, by confining it to spirits used in Ireland, a new temptation would be created to smuggle from that country into England and Scotland. This no doubt will be, in some degree, the case; and we hope that no long period will be allowed in elapse till the measure be generalised. We do not, however, think, that there is much probability of its giving birth to any considerable amount of smuggling; and it is not to be denied that the reduction was much more urgently required in Ireland than any where else. Scotch whiskey carried to Ireland is admitted for consumption at the low duty.

SPIRITS AND WINE, (CONSUMPTION OF.)
Account of the Number of Gallons of Foreign and Colonial Spirits upon which Duty was charged in the United Kingdom since the Year 1832; with the Amount of Duty received thereon; also, a similar Account of Home-made Spirits and of Foreign Wine.

Year.	Foreign and Colonial Spirits.				Home-made Spirits.	Total of Spirits.	Foreign Wines of all Sorts.
	Brandy.	Geneva.	Rum.	Total.			
1832	Gallons. 1,601,983	Gallons. 20,948	Gallons. 6,492,705	Gallons. 4,871,192	Gallons. 91,846,738	Gallons. 26,206,533	Gallons. 6,175,338
1833	1,637,381	20,948	5,492,705	4,871,192	91,874,455	26,745,587	6,421,631
1834	1,998,151	21,989	6,341,868	4,769,116	93,337,760	28,153,878	6,716,581
1835	1,515,071	19,705	5,417,692	4,752,456	94,710,326	28,444,668	6,645,533
1836	1,237,980	20,008	5,835,098	4,693,094	92,741,500	21,548,334	7,036,246
1837	1,206,107	16,151	5,562,702	4,789,960	94,433,339	29,223,499	6,562,973
Rate	2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per Gallon	2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per Gallon	9 <i>s.</i> per Gall.				Cape Wine 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> other sorts 5 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
Rate of Duty on Home-made Spirits.							
In England, 7 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per Gall.							
Scotland, 3 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> —							
Ireland, 3 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i> until Sept., 1834, when 2 <i>s.</i> 4 <i>d.</i>							

Account of the Number of Proof Gallons of Rum, Brandy, Geneva, and all other Foreign and British Spirits, that paid Duty in England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, during (1871, with the Total Number of Gallons that paid Duty in the United Kingdom, and the total Duty in the above Year.—(Parl. Paper, No. 323, Sess. 1838.)

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.
Rum	8,079,778	1,385,910	88,804	£ 7,780	80,673	9,398	2,184,255	1,821,070
Brandy	1,190,628	1,305,572	81,181	25,056	16,877	15,947	1,208,846	1,232,615
Geneva	11,356	13,488	4,833	5,439	1,441	1,622	16,184	20,320
Other Foreign Spirits	11,802	£ 2,213	1,140	500	868	863	19,300	19,466
Total Foreign Spirits	4,864,148	2,714,163	120,940	78,024	89,578	30,201	4,424,456	2,823,473
Spirits of the Manufacture of the United Kingdom	7,128,960	2,674,900	6,124,085	1,020,570	11,235,065	1,310,768	24,480,539	6,006,267
Duty of Guernsey or Jersey	25,045	6,330	81	0	0	0	25,799	9,790
Spirits of all kinds	11,423,063	5,398,453	6,245,028	1,099,603	11,275,114	1,541,036	28,945,100	7,859,117

Spirit Licences.—The act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 75. made certain additions to the duties on spirit licences; but these have been repealed by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 72; and the spirit licences are now the same as those dated in p. 138.—*Sup.*

SPONGE (Ger. Schwamm; Fr. Eponge; It. Spugna; Sp. Esponja), a soft, light, very porous and compressible substance, readily imbibing water, and as readily giving it out again. It is found adhering to rocks, particularly in the Mediterranean Sea, about the islands of the Archipelago. It was formerly supposed to be a vegetable production, but is now classed among the zoöphytes; and analysed, it yields the same principles as animal substances in general. The inhabitants in several of the Greek islands have been trained from their infancy to dive for sponges. They adhere firmly to the bottom; and are not detached without a good deal of trouble. The extraordinary clearness of the water facilitates the operations of the divers. Smyrna is the great market for sponge. The price varies from 6 to 16 piastres per oke for ordinary and dirty, and from 80 to 100 piastres per oke, for fine and picked specimens. Sponge is also fished in the Red Sea.—(Vre's Dictionary; Savory's Letters on Greece, Eng. ed. p. 109; and private communications.)

Sponge is used in surgery, and for a variety of purposes in the arts. The duty on it, in 1829, produced 2,071, 4s. 1d.; but it has since been judiciously reduced from 2s. in 6d. per lb. when brought from a foreign country, and from 6d. to 1d. per lb., when brought from a British possession. The far greater portion comes from the former. No deduction is made from the duty on account of sand or dirt, unless it exceed 7 per cent., and then only for the excess above 7 per cent.

SQUILL (Ger. Meerzwiebel; Fr. Seille, Oignon marin; It. Scilla, Cipolla marina; Sp. Cebolla albarrana), or, as it is sometimes denominated, the Sea onion, is a plant with a large bulbous root, which is the only part that is used. It grows spontaneously on sandy shores in Spain, and the Levant; whence we are annually supplied with the roots. They should be chosen large, plump, fresh, and full of a clammy juice: some are of a reddish colour, and others white; but no difference is observed in the squills of the 2 sorts. The root is very nauseous, intensely bitter, and acrimonious; much handled, it ulcerates the skin. The bulbs are brought to England, preserved fresh in sand. The acrimony of the roots, on which their virtue depends, is partially destroyed by drying and long keeping, and is completely destroyed by exposure to heat above 212°. Squill is one of the most powerful and useful remedies in the materia medica.—(Lewis's Mat. Med.; Thomson's Dispensatory.)

STADE, a small city of Hanover, on the Schwinge, 22 miles W. by N. of Hamburg, lat. 53° 36' 32" N., lon. 9° 28' 34" E. It has very little trade; and would be quite unworthy of notice in a work of this sort, except for the circumstance that a toll or duty charged by the Hanoverian government on all goods imported into Hamburg, whether for consumption or transit, is paid at the castle of Brunshausen, contiguous to this town. The duty is generally about 1/3 per cent. *ad valorem*. It is rated according to a tariff; and is computed from the ship's manifest, bills of lading, cocketts, &c., which must be left at Brunshausen for that purpose. The duties are paid in Hamburg; and no vessel is allowed to unload, till a receipt, subscribed by the Hanoverian authorities in that city, be produced for the duties. We have already—(See HAMBURG)—expressed our surprise that an obstruction of this sort should have been tolerated for so long a period. The duties fall heavily on certain descriptions of goods; particularly on some manufactured articles; and are, at an average, decidedly higher than the duties charged in Hamburg. They are most objectionable, however, from their requiring many troublesome regulations to be complied with; the unintentional deviation from any one of which exposes the cargo to confiscation, and never fails to occasion a great deal of delay, trouble, and expense. As the principal part of the foreign trade of the Elbe is in our hands, we are, of course, principally affected by the Stade toll; and, considering the source of the nuisance, it is really not a little astonishing it should not have been abated long ago. The sum which the Hanoverian government derives from the

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other Foreign and British
ing 1837; with the Total
uty in the above Year.

United Kingdom.		
Year.	Number of Tons.	Net Amount of Duty.
1807	3,184,255	1,818,770
1808	1,908,648	1,232,810
1809	16,384	20,283
1810	13,300	10,466
1811	4,424,468	2,823,473
1812	24,480,330	6,006,262
1813	85,799	9,309
1814	28,943,110	7,839,112

Duties on spirit licences;
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is but trifling compared with the injury they inflict on our trade; it would, conse-
quently, be good policy for the former to sell, and for the British government to buy, an ex-
emption from so vexatious a duty; and we are well assured that few things would do more
to extend our trade with Hamburg than the completion of an arrangement of this sort.

Previously to 1736, English ships passing up the Elbe had to come to an anchor opposite
Brunshausen: but they were then allowed, under certain conditions, to pass on to Ham-
burgh. The proclamation to this effect, and which contains an epitome of the regulations
that have still to be observed, is subjoined.

1. That all English vessels be exempted from coming to an anchor
before Brunshausen, and allowed to sail directly up to Ham-
burgh.

2. That all English vessels shall be obliged, at their approach, within
the space of 4 leagues thereof, to hoist their colours, to lower their
masts only to drive, till the legitimation is made at the king's
house.

3. The master of the ship, or a proper person fully provided with
the necessary documents, is to go on board the frigate, and afterwards
to the Custom-house at Brunshausen and Stade; and there to produce
an exact manifest, and the original bills of lading, cocketts, &c.

4. The documents being produced, the accounts shall be stated, and
the duties made to be paid at Brunshausen, Stade, or Hamburg.

5. The clearance shall be given at Brunshausen to the person sent
on board the master of the vessel; by whom it must be delivered to
the commissary in Hamburg, together with the documents of
cargo, and a specification of the parcels, bales, casks, &c. which
were on board at the port of lading, whither designed for
any other place.

6. This must not be broken till all this has been performed, except
in urgent cases, in which the commissary in Hamburg permits, in
urgent cases, the
pass.

a certificate in lieu of an oath—that they neither have received nor
expected more goods than have been specified,—which must be de-
livered to his Majesty's commissary in Hamburg, to enable him to
examine the report made by the master.

8. No master is to depart from Hamburg before he has taken a
certificate from his Majesty's commissary, proving that all has been
fully performed; which is to be sent to the king's frigate, near
Brunshausen.

9. The signals mentioned in the second article are likewise to be
made when the ship re-passes Stade.

10. The taking cognizance of, and punishing misdemeanors,
frauds, and mismanagements, as well as the neglecting of the pre-
ceding articles, remains in the Court of the King's Customs at Stade;
so that both the merchants and masters of ships, who may be called in
an account, shall, when summoned, appear before the said court, and
submit to its decisions; but they have the liberty of appeal to the
superior courts for a revision and relief.

11. As to all other points not expressly mentioned in the foregoing
articles, they shall be observed at the King's Customs houses at Brun-
shausen, Stade, and Hamburg, according to the regulations and
customs heretofore practised.

12. This gracious concession is hereby granted only *durante lora*
placita: the king reserving to himself and his successors in his Ger-
man dominions the right of revoking it, and making any alterations
or new orders, whenever they shall see reason.

The following statement, taken from the books of a Hamburg merchant, shows in parallel columns,
the amount of the Stade and Hamburg duties paid on certain articles imported into Hamburg. It
is taken from II, that even though there were no burdensome regulations to be complied with, the
amount of the Stade duties must be a very serious drawback on the trade of the Elbe.

Table, showing the Amount of Stade Duties, and the Amount of Hamburg Duties paid on the same
Goods imported into Hamburg.

Articles.	Stade Duty.		Hamburg Duty.		Articles.	Stade Duty.		Hamburg Duty.	
	Rees.	Marc.	Rees.	Marc.		Rees.	Marc.	Rees.	Marc.
41 Bales cotton	17	13	17	13	358 Casks coffee	419	3	419	3
130 Bales coffee	865	15	925	8	153 Hogheads ditto	139	1	603	9
100 Rio Grande hides	37	2	107	8	341 Barrels ditto	101	4		
12 Casks indigo	13	5	29	4	314 and 45 Barrels rice	527	2	85	12
11 Bales sulphur	19	8	91	8	330, 150 and 5 boxes segars	72	12	18	4
100 Bales whalebone	15	2	19	4	40 Hogheads tobacco	196	1	23	10
100 Bales Hyacinth sugar	19	6	298	0	50 Ditto	71	4	27	12
100 Hogheads sugar	23	6	56	10	4 Ditto	0	4	4	4
44 Cans Bala sugar	49	7	374	14	121 Bales ditto	70	6	7	8
35 Tons logwood	90	13	10	6	14 Casks tobacco stems	2	10	4	10
21 Packboxes rum	8	4	21	6	100 Chests souehong tea	77	9	10	4
11 Bales pimento	18	7	16	9	95 Hogheads quercitron bark	21	2	28	4
20 Hogheads refined sugar	6	12	29	2					

STARCH (Ger. *Amidan*; Fr. *Amidon*; It. *Amodi, Amido*; Sp. *Amidon, Almidon*; and
Am. Kruchmal), a substance obtained from vegetables. It has a fine white colour, and is
usually concreted in longish masses; it has scarcely any smell, and very little taste. When
kept dry, it continues for a long time uninjured, though exposed to the air. It is insoluble
in cold water; but combines with boiling water—forming with it a kind of jelly. It exists
chiefly in the white and brittle parts of vegetables, particularly in tuberose roots, and the
seeds of the gramineous plants. It may be extracted by pounding these parts, and agitating
them in cold water; when the *parenchyma*, or fibrous parts, will first subside; and these
being removed, a fine white powder, diffused through the water, will gradually subside, which
is the starch. Or the pounded or grated substance, as the roots of potatoes, acorns, or horse
chestnuts, for instance, may be put into a hair sieve, and the starch washed through with
cold water, leaving the grosser matters behind. Farinaceous seeds may be ground and treated
in a similar manner. Oily seeds require to have the oil expressed from them before the farina
is extracted. Potato starch goes a good deal further than wheat starch—a less quantity of it
is sufficient to form a paste of equal thickness, with water. It has a very perceptible crystallised
appearance, and is apparently heavier than common starch.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Ure's
Dictionary.*)

Starch is charged with a duty of 3*d.* per lb.; and its manufacture is, consequently, placed under the
control of the excise. Every maker of starch for sale must take out an annual licence, which costs
2*l.* Notice must be given to the excise of the erection, and of all changes in the construction, of
workshops, implements, &c. used in the manufacture of starch, under a penalty of 50*l.* All starch,
before it be put into any stove or place to dry, must be papered and sealed or stamped by the officer,
under a penalty of 100*l.* Any person forging or counterfeiting such stamp or seal is guilty of felony,
but with the benefit of clergy. Any person knowingly selling any starch with a forged or counterfeit
stamp, &c. forfeits 500*l.* No quantity of starch exceeding 25 lbs. to be removed from one place to
another, unless the word *starch* be marked on the package in legible letters 3 inches long, under for-
feiture of the package, and of the cattle and carts conveying the same. Any dealer in starch receiv-
ing any quantity exceeding 25 lbs. not marked as above, shall forfeit 200*l.* Starch-makers are to make
truly samples of the starch made by them, under a penalty of 50*l.*; and are to make payment of the
duties within a week of each entry. Cocketts granted for shipping starch to be carried coastwise are

to express the quality, quantity, weight, the mark of the package, by whom made and sold, and to whom consigned; and if shipped without such ticket, it may be seized. No starch is to be imported, unless in packages containing at least 321 lbs. stowed openly in the hold, on pain of forfeiture and incurring a penalty of 50*l.* No starch is to be exported, unless the package as originally sealed or stamped by the officer be entire, and unless the officer mark the word *exportation* upon it. The duties must have been paid on all starch exported; but the exporter is entitled to an excise drawback of 2*l.* per lb.—(*Burn's Justice of the Peace*, Marriott's ed., tit. *Starch*.)

An Account of the Number of Pounds of Starch that paid the Home Consumption Duty in Great Britain, the Rate of Duty, and the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duty, in each of the Three Years ending with the 5th of January, 1833.

Years ended 5th Jan.	Rate per lb.	Lbs.	Gross Produce.			Nett Produce.		
			£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1831	3½	7,645,486	103,532	12	5	86,453	9	4
1832	—	7,533,469	102,286	11	2	76,414	3	8
1833	—	8,070,026	109,281	12	0	85,105	18	8

(The injurious influence of the duty on starch, the nett produce of which, in 1833, was only 91,517*l.* 18*s.* 2½*d.*, was most ably exposed, and its abolition strongly recommended, by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry, and we are glad to have to add that, agreeably to that recommendation, the duty has been abolished.—(4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 77.)—*Sup.*)

(STEAM VESSELS.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Steam Vessels belonging to the British Empire in the Year 1837, distinguishing British Possessions in Europe from the British Plantations.

England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.		Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, & Man.		British Plantations.		Total.	
Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage
422	37,240	109	13,868	87	18,437	610	69,045	6	832	44	8,411	668	78,263

Steam Engines and Steam Vessels, &c. of the United States.—We believe we shall be doing an acceptable service to the bulk of our readers by laying before them the following extracts from a letter by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, prepared in pursuance of a resolution of the House of Representatives, of the 20th of June, 1838. It communicates many interesting particulars with respect to the employment of steam engines and steam vessels in the United States, and the accidents that have happened to the latter.

Number of Steamboats, Locomotives, and other Steam Engines in the United States.—“The whole number of steam engines, of every kind, in the United States, reckoning one to each boat, is estimated to be 3,010. Of these, 2,653 have been ascertained, and 357 are estimated, in places from which the returns are either defective or not received at all. Of this whole number, about 800 are supposed to be employed in steamboats, of which 700 are ascertained, and 100 estimated. About 350 are employed in locomotives upon railroads. Of these, 337 are ascertained, and 13 estimated. The residue, being 1,860, are used in manufactories of various kinds. Of these, 1,616 are ascertained, and 244 estimated.”

Number of Accidents to Steam Engines.—“The number of accidents occasioning loss of life or much injury to property, which have occurred in the use of steam engines of every kind in the United States, is computed to have been about 260. Of these, 253 are ascertained, and the rest are estimated. Such accidents, by explosions and other disasters to steamboats, appear to have constituted a great portion of the whole, and are supposed to have equalled 230, of which 215 are ascertained. The first of these is believed to have occurred in the Washington, on the Ohio river, in 1816.

“Since the employment of steamboats in the United States, it is computed that quite 1,200 have been built here. Of these, about 260 have been lost by various accidents, as many as 240 worn out, and the rest are now running.

“The first steamboat used for practical purposes here, (or indeed in any part of the world,) was in 1807, on the Hudson River, in the State of New York. She was built by Fulton, called the North River, with an engine of only 18-horse power, and made the passage between Albany and New York in thirty-three hours. Though with a steam engine manufactured abroad by Boulton and Watt, yet no boat was launched in Europe, that proved successful in practice, till five years after, by Mr. Bell, at Glasgow, in 1812. At that time the Car of Neptune, built in 1808, the Paragon, in 1811, and the Richmond, in 1812, were all, in addition to the boat first built, running from New York. Rumney is known to have made experiments on a small scale as to steamboats, in Virginia, as early as 1787; but they were not reduced to any practical use. Both he and Fitch commenced trials in this country as early as 1783 and 1784, and Oliver Evans, in 1785 and 1786. They had been preceded in France, in 1762, by the Marquis d'Jeauffrey; and the idea of applying steam in boats had been suggested in England as early as 1736, by Jonathan Hulls.

“The whole number of steamboats ascertained and estimated to be now in this country, is 800. In England, in 1836, the whole number is computed to have been 600. On the Western and South-western waters alone, near 400 are now supposed to be running, where

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76,414	3	8
85,105	18	8

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British Plantations.		Total.	
Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage
14	6,411	668	75,356

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... were used till 1811, and where, in 1834, the number was computed to be only 334.
Of these 400, about 141 are estimated. On the Ohio river alone, in 1837, about 413 dif-
ferent steamboats are reported to have passed through the Louisville and Portland canal,
besides all below and above, which never passed through. But it deserves notice, that of
these 413, near 60 went out of use by accidents, decay, &c., within that year; and several
of the others, viz., 104, were new, and many of them probably were destined to run on
other rivers. As an illustration of the rapid increase of business in steamboats on the Ohio,
the number of passages by them through the Louisville canal increased from 400, in 1831,
to 1,501, in 1837, or nearly fourfold in six years. About 70 boats were running the present
year on the North-western lakes, where a few years since the number was very small, having
been in 1835 only 25. Of the 800 steamboats now in the United States, the greatest num-
ber ascertained to be in any State is 140, in the State of New York.

"It is a matter of surprise that so few of these are sea-going vessels, considering that the
first steamboat which ever crossed the Atlantic was built in New York, so long ago as 1810,
and went from Savannah (the place after which she was called) to Liverpool in 20 days;
and that the Robert Fulton, as early as 1822, made several trips to New Orleans and Ha-
vana. A similar remark applies to the circumstance that only one of the whole number
is a public vessel of war, when the first steam vessel of that kind ever launched was the
Fulton, and was built in this country, so long ago as 1815. The Government of the Uni-
ted States never owned but two steam vessels of war—both called the 'Fulton.' The first
was lost, by accident, in 1829; and now there is only the other, before alluded to, built in
1838. It has, however, 13 other steam vessels, employed in the war department, on the
public works, and in the transportation of troops and stores.

"Of the whole number of locomotives in the United States propelled by steam, being
about 350, the most which have been ascertained in any State is 98, in the State of Penn-
sylvania.

"None of them were introduced here 'till 1831, though they now run on nearly 1,600
miles of railroad. The first, it is believed, was in the State of Delaware, on the Newcastle
railroad; the second, in Maryland, on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad; and the third, be-
tween New Orleans and Lake Pontchartrain, in the State of Louisiana. They had been
used in this country, by Oliver Evans, as early as 1804, and in England as early as 1805;
but not reduced to useful practice in the latter till 1811, for freight, and in 1830 for passen-
gers and speed. One succeeded on a common road, from London to Bath, in 1829. Of
the whole number of other steam machines in the United States (being about 1,800), the
State of Pennsylvania has the most, being 383. The number in some States is not accu-
rately ascertained; but near 300 are ascertained and computed to exist in Louisiana alone.
The introduction of them here, and especially with the high pressure machinery, was much
promoted by Oliver Evans, about 1804. The first of them in use in the United States was
put up in 1787, in the State of New Jersey, for raising water and earth from mines. The
first were about 1791, in a cotton factory in Kensington, near Philadelphia; and soon after
in saw-mills, and iron slitting and rolling mills at Pittsburgh. The power has been known
in England to be applicable to mechanical uses since the experiments of the Marquis of Wor-
cester, in 1663. It is said by some that he was preceded in France (and a pamphlet pub-
lished on the subject as early as 1615) by Solomon de Caus. But the views of the latter, like
many who preceded him in the knowledge of steam as a moving power, are supposed to have
been rather theoretical than practical. Several machines were made in England as early as
1720; and Watt's first patent was taken out, for improvements in them, as early as 1769. But
they were not, even there, very extensively and successfully applied to mills and manufactu-
ries, till 1785, though 18 large engines were employed in the mines of Cornwall as early as
1770; and a flour-mill, with 20 pairs of stones, was moved by steam in London in 1784.

"The greatest employment of these in the South is in the sugar manufacture, and in
cleaning and pressing cotton; in the West in grist and saw mills, and in various manufac-
tures of iron machinery and tools; and in the East, in mills, in printing, in cotton manufac-
tories, and the public works at navy yards and armories.

"The government of the United States owns 17 of these; they being employed at their
navy yards, to empty docks, saw timber, &c.; and at some arsenals and armories, in manu-
facturing arms.

"The tonnage of all the steamboats in the United States is computed to exceed 153,473.
Of this, 137,473 is in boats ascertained or reported. By the official returns, the whole ton-
nage would now, probably, equal near 160,000 tons, having been, in 1837, equal to 153,060.
Many boats included in those returns have been lost or worn out, and several new ones built
since. In England, the tonnage is estimated to have been 67,969 in 1836. The tonnage
of each boat here averages about 200; and the estimates, where the returns have been de-
fective, were made on that basis. The power employed in all the steam engines in the Uni-
ted States is ascertained and estimated at 100,318 horse-power; of this, 12,140 only is in
engines estimated and not returned. In the aggregate, all this new mechanical force would
be equal to the power of 601,808 men. Of this force, 57,019 horse-power is computed to

be in steamboats; 6,980 in railroads; and the rest, being 36,319, in other engines. This averages about 70 horse-power to each boat, or one horse to between two and three tons, and less than 20 horse-power to each of the other engines. It is a striking fact, that the steam-power employed in standing engines, is equal to about two-thirds of all that is used in steamboats. The largest boat in the United States is supposed to be the Natchez, of 860 tons, and near 300 horse-power, destined to run between New York and Mississippi; the Illinois, and the Madison, on Lake Erie, are the next in size, the former being 755, and the latter 700 tons; the Massachusetts, in Long Island Sound, is the next largest, being 626 tons; and the Buffalo, on Lake Erie, next, being of 613 tons. The largest boats passing Louisville, in 1837, were, the Uncle Sam, of 447 tons, and the Mogul, of 414 tons; though below Louisville, the Mediterranean, of 490 tons, and the North America, of 445 tons, on the Ohio, and the St. Louis, of 550 tons, on the Mississippi, are running. The greatest loss of life well-authenticated on any one occasion in a steamboat, appears to have been by collision, and consequent sinking, in the case of the Monmouth, in 1837, on the Mississippi, by which 300 lives were lost. The next greatest were by explosions; of the Oronoka, in 1838, on the same river, by which 130, or more, lives were lost; and of the Moselle, at Cincinnati, Ohio, by which 100 to 120 persons were destroyed. The greatest injury to life by accidents to boats from snags and sawyers appears to have been 13 lost, in 1834, in the case of the St. Louis, on the Mississippi river. The greatest by shipwreck, was in the case of the Home, in 1837, on the coast of North Carolina, where 100 persons were lost. The greatest by fire, happened in the Ben Sherrod, on the Mississippi river, in 1837, when near 130 perished. The number of steamboats built in the United States in 1834, was 88; but in 1837, it was 181; or, had increased over 200 per cent. in three years. The places where the greatest number of steamboats, and other steam machines, appear to have been constructed in this country, are Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville, on the Western waters; and New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, on the Atlantic. At Louisville alone, from 1819 to 1838, there appears to have been built 244 steam engines; of which 62 were for boats. The fuel originally used in steamboats in the United States, was wood; but, of late years, bituminous coal has, in many instances, been substituted; and, in several, anthracite coal. The latter, from the small space it occupies, would seem to possess a decided advantage, in sea-going vessels, as well as in locomotives.

"Some steamboats, made of iron, are believed to be in use in Georgia, if not in other parts of this country, though none of that material have been manufactured here; but it is computed that their cost is less than those of wood, and, as they draw less water with the same freight, they are more useful on shallow streams."—*Sup.*)

[The number of steamboats built in the United States, during the years ending on the 30th of September, 1838 and 1839, were 90 and 125 respectively.]

The 23d of April, 1838, constituted an era in the progress of navigation, by the arrival at New York of the steam ships Sirius and Great Western; the former having left Cork, in Ireland, on the 4th of April, and the latter Bristol, on the 8th.

The shortest passage of the Great Western, down to the 19th of June, 1840, from Bristol to New York, was 13 days; the longest 21½; and the average, 16. The shortest passage from New York to Bristol, during the same period, was 12 days; the longest, 15; and the average, 13½.

Besides the Great Western, the steam ship British Queen now passes regularly between New York and Great Britain. Her passages have averaged, from Portsmouth to New York, 17½; and in the contrary direction, 16 days.

Cunard's Liverpool, Halifax, and Boston line of steam-packet ships, consisting of the Britannia, Acadia, Caledonia, and Columbia, is now in successful operation; the first arrival at Boston being that of the Britannia, on the 18th of July, 1840, in 14½ days. On the 17th of August, the Acadia arrived at Boston, after a passage of only 12 days and 18 hours—the shortest passage ever made between Europe and America.

There can be no doubt that the success of the abovementioned vessels will speedily lead to the introduction of steam ships as the principal means for conveying passengers from the one continent to the other.—*Am. Ed.*

STEEL. (*Fr. Acier; Ger. Stahl; It. Acciajo; Lat. Chalybs; Rus. Stal; Sp. Aera; Sw. Stål*), is iron combined with a small portion of carbon; and has been, for that reason, called carburetted iron. The proportion of carbon has not been ascertained with much precision. It is supposed to amount, at an average, to $\frac{1}{100}$ th part. Steel is so hard as to be unmanageable while cold; or at least it acquires that property by being immersed, while ignited, in a cold liquid; for this immersion, though it has no effect upon iron, adds greatly to the hardness of steel. It is brittle, resists the file, cuts glass, affords sparks with flint, and retains the magnetic virtue for any length of time. It loses this hardness by being ignited, and cooled very slowly. It is malleable when red hot, but scarcely so when raised to a white heat. It may be hammered out into much thinner plates than iron. It is more sonorous; and its specific gravity, when hammered, is greater than that of iron—varying from 7.78 to 7.84.

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Steel is usually divided into 3 sorts, according to the method in which it is prepared; as *natural steel*, *steel of cementation*; and *cast steel*. The latter is the most valuable of all, as its texture is the most compact, and it admits of the finest polish. It is used for razors, surgical instruments, and similar purposes. Steel is chiefly employed in the manufacture of saws, knives, and cutting instruments of all sorts used in the arts; for which it is peculiarly adapted by its hardness, and the fineness of the edge which may be given to it.—(Thomson's Chemistry; and see IRON.)

(STETTIN, a city of Prussia, on the left bank of the Oder, about 36 miles from its mouth, in lat. 53° 23' 20" N., long. 14° 33' E. It is well built, strongly fortified, and has a population, exclusive of troops, of 50,000.

Stettin is the seat of an extensive and growing commerce; and is now, indeed, the principal port of importation in Prussia. She owes this distinction mainly to her situation. The Oder, which flows through the centre of the Prussian dominions, is navigable as far as Ratibor, near the extreme southern boundary of Prussian Silesia; and is united, by means of canals, with the Vistula, the Elbe, the Spree, &c. Stettin is, consequently, the principal emporium of some very extensive and flourishing countries; and is not only the port of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Breslaw, &c., but also of Berlin. Hence, at the proper seasons, its wharfs are crowded with lighters that bring down the produce of the different countries traversed by the river, and bring back colonial products, and other articles of foreign growth and manufacture. Vessels of considerable burden, or those drawing above 7 or 8 feet water, load and unload, by means of lighters, at the mouth of the river, at Swinemunde, the out-port of Stettin, on the east coast of the Isle of Usedom, in lat. 53° 55' N., long. 14° 15' 15" E. Formerly there were not more than 7 feet water over the bar adjacent to Swinemunde; but the harbour of the latter has recently been so much improved, by the construction of piers and breakwaters, dredging, &c., that it is now the best on the Prussian coast, and admits vessels drawing from 18 to 19 feet water. A light-house has been erected at the extremity of the Eastern pier. Stettin is a free port; that is, a port into which all sorts of goods may be imported and re-exported free of duty. If goods brought through the Sound be imported at Stettin, and entered for home consumption in the Prussian states, they are charged with 2½ per cent. less duty than if they had been imported through any other channel. This is intended to reimburse the merchant for the Sound duties, and to encourage importation by this direct route in preference to that carried on through Hamburg and Embden. There is a great wool fair in the month of June each year.

Meas., Weights, and Measures, same as at Dantzic, which see. The Bank of Berlin has a branch at Stettin, and there is also an insurance office.

Imports and Exports.—The principal articles of import at Stettin are sugar, coffee, dye woods, wine, iron, and hardware, oil, tallow, wax, and various goods, herrings, gelatin, linseed, coal, salt, &c. The principal exports are linen, timber and staves, corn, wool, zinc, tin, and glass, bones, manganese, fruits, &c. In 1834, among other articles, there were imported 32,363 tons raw sugar, 84,472 do. clayed sugar, 24,503 do. molasses, 1,296 barrels rice, 12,490 tons olive oil, 11,483 do. hempseed oil, 5,419 do. palm oil, 10,232 quintals dye-woods, 119,568 barrels herrings, 15,360 saltpetre, 17,358 quintals iron, 68,757 do. tallow, 47,066 do. potash, 158 do. copper, &c. Among the exports in the same year, various of linen, &c. were 1,620 quintals of wool, 4,783 lasts corn, 105,616 staves, 3,258 do. waincoat, 17,513 pieces of wood for making, 5,044 lasts of wood for ship building, 74,192 quintals of coal, 1,538 do. glass, 4,453 do. manganese, 36,850 do. bones, 36,046 do. saltpetre, 6,077 bottles, &c. The wheat shipped from Stettin is very good, and of very fine quality. The barley is also very good. These sorts are believed to be equal, or perhaps superior, to any from any other part of the Baltic.

Navigation.—Stettin is the principal shipping port in the Prussian dominions. In 1834, there belonged to it 229 ships, of the burthen of 4,289 lasts, being about a third part of the shipping belonging to Prussia.

Journal of the Arrivals and Departure of Shipping at Swinemunde, the Out-port of Stettin, in 1834.

Flag.	No. of Ships.	Lasts.	Whereof		
			Sailed.	Laden.	In Ballast.
Prussia	Arr. 821 Dep. 845	40,987 45,904	3984 499	25,892 26,791	127 50
Dutch	Arr. 87 Dep. 86	3,914 3,980	63 49	2,561 2,539	21 36
Neckarburg	Arr. 123 Dep. 81	3,807 880	307 8	3,077 542	2 148
Hansa Tonnage	Arr. 8 Dep. 2	879 351	8 1	387 154	4 197
Swedish	Arr. 15 Dep. 15	969 964	9 3	899 828	9 12
Sardinian	Arr. 85 Dep. 26	1,143 1,193	25 11	1,143 901	15 15
British	Arr. 60 Dep. 50	4,968 4,468	47 42	4,538 3,734	3 1,132
American	Arr. 31 Dep. 30	1,337 1,212	18 59	780 1,250	13 1
Oldenburg	Arr. 18 Dep. 13	651 503	19 11	473 421	4 8
French	Arr. 1 Dep. 1	48 48	1 1	48 48	0 0
Norwegian	Arr. 50 Dep. 52	2,559 2,650	19 62	1,032 2,650	31 1,568
Italian	Arr. 8 Dep. 6	703 703	0 0	703 698	0 1
Total	Arr. 817 Dep. 842	58,792 69,807	806 714	43,077 50,472	809 1,833

Account of charges incurred by a British ship, of about 200 tons burden, at Swinemunde and Stettin.—

	Rix d.	S. gr.	F.
Stettin.—Pilotage and fee	6	0	0
Town dues and clearances	6	0	0
Poor rates	1	10	0
Muster roll	2	27	0
Brokerage and charter party	5	20	0
Broker's commission	16	23	0
Measuring	8	0	0
Swinemunde.—Port charges, inwards	34	12	0
Ditto, outwards	54	12	0
Factor's dues	16	31	0
Commission	16	0	0
Prussian dollars, or about 100 Spanish dollars	151	14	0

Port Regulations.—All vessels are prohibited entering Swinemunde, unless forced by stress of weather, without previously heaving-to for, and receiving, a pilot on board. But when compelled to enter without a pilot, the master is to observe the signals made from the lighthouse on the eastern pier, and to shape his course accordingly. If no flag be hoisted on the lighthouse, no signal made, the port cannot be entered, and the master must either anchor in the roads or stand out to sea. After the pilot has been received on board, the master is bound, in all cases, to conform to his directions. Within 24 hours after arrival, the master must deliver to the custom-house an account of the species and quantity of each article on board; and he is subjected to a heavy fine if this account should turn out to be incorrect. He is to abide by the instructions given him as to discharging his cargo, loading, &c. No gunpowder is to be kept on board, nor any inflammable matter loaded in the ship. All ships proceeding from Swinemunde to Stettin must have pilots. The master must produce at the police office the muster roll of the crew, and the names of the passengers, if there be any on board. The latter are bound to go with him to the police, and the crew, if desired. All presents to pilots and custom-house officers are strictly prohibited. Vessels directed to perform quarantine must immediately hoist the yellow flag; and on no account quit their assigned berth. The master is responsible for the conduct of the crew; and if any of them be discharged or remain on shore, he must give notice thereof to the police.

The following regulations apply to all the Prussian ports.—
Notification to Captains of Ships respecting Importation and Exportation by Sea in the Prussian Dominions.—

As soon as a ship arrives in the road, and has complied with the police regulations of the port (which are communicated to her), the captain repairs to the custom-house, and delivers a complete list of manifest of cargo. This list bears the title of a chief declaration, or manifest, and in preparing it, the following conditions are to be observed:—

If the whole cargo be not destined for the port, that part which is to proceed further with the ship is to be placed under a distinct division. The goods accompanied with bills of lading are entered in notation after each other for every bill of lading.

The account (or statement) is made out in kind and quantity, agreeable to those measures and divisions adopted in the tariff for the payment of duties.

Excepting therefrom various articles conveyed in an unpacked state, the following measures are valid:—
For beer in casks, tuns of 100 Pruss. quart.

other engines. This two and three tons, and the fact, that the steam that is used in steam Natchez, of 860 tons, Mississippi; the Illinois, of 755, and the latter largest, being 826 tons; at boats passing Louisiana, of 414 tons; though Louisiana, of 445 tons, on the Mississippi, by which the Oronoka, in 1838, on the Missouri, at Cincinnati, by accident to life by accidents in 1834, in the case of the St. Home, in the case of the Home, in 1834. The greatest loss of property in 1837, it was 181; but the greatest number of vessels in this country, are in New York, Philadelphia, and 1839, there appears to be originally used bituminous coal bas, in the latter, from the small-going vessels, as well as

Georgia, if not in other parts; here; but it is draw less water with the years ending on the navigation, by the arrival of the former having left Cork, in June, 1840, from Bristol to the shortest passage the largest, 15; and the

passes regularly between Portsmouth to New York,

ships, consisting of the operation; the first arrival in 14½ days. On the 17th days and 18 hours—the vessels will speedily lead to passengers from the one

Rus. Stal; Sp. Acem; has been, for that reason, ascertained with much precision. Steel is so hard as to be immersed, while ignited, iron, adds greatly to the work with flint, and retains being ignited, and cooled raised to a white heat. It is more sonorous; and its varying from 7-78 to 784.

Quantities of some of the principal Articles imported into Stockholm, in 1833.

Rum, and other foreign	Salt	tunor	89,565	Ditto stalks	15,000
Spice	Indigo	lbs.	17,184	Silks	13,183
Coffee	125,869	Sugars	6,017,137	Cottons	414,296
Fish (dry)	2,303,157	Tobacco	910,853	Woolens	54,799
Herrings	134,433				
	46,431				

TRADE OF SWEDEN.

Official Account of the principal Articles, with their Values, exported from, and imported into, Sweden, in 1831.

Country.	Exports.	Official Value.	Imports.	Official Value.
Finland	Pig iron, ore, herrings, deals, salt, limestones, &c.	786,300	Corn, tar, tallow, butter, flour, deals, fire wood	1,060,160
Prussia	Iron, steel, tar, pitch, lime, cannon, copper, wood, paper, flooring stones, iron plates, &c.	569,171	Corn, wool, hides	160,978
Mocklenburgh, Hanover, &c.	Wood, lime, iron, paper, staves, stones, steel, manufactured iron, tar, pitch, colours, alum, &c.	439,773	Corn, wool, hides, furs, fruit, &c.	110,992
Denmark	Corn, staves, wood, paper, iron, copper, mill and flooring stones, tar, pitch, alum, nails, lime, cutlery, fire wood, oak bark, steel, brass wire	1,556,814	Sugar, cotton, coffee, wine, rum, spices, chalk, salt, manufactures, oil, oil, wool, herrings, hides, tallow, &c.	1,135,412
Netherlands	Wood, rock moses, tar, pitch	939,981	Manufactures, cork, hops	302,320
Great Britain	Iron, steel, tar, pitch, corn, wood, cobalt, rock moses, bones, bark, manganese, oil-cakes, &c.	3,336,700	Sugar, coffee, spices, mahogany, massicc, lures, cotton, dyes, wine, cognac, rum, coal, cotton yarn, earthenware, &c.	1,742,301
France	Iron, wood, tar, pitch, copper, porphyry, staves, bricks, colours	706,471	Wine, cognac, oil, silk, soap, fruit, lead, soap, &c.	387,472
Portugal	Wood, iron, steel, tar, pitch, staves	570,120	Salt, fruit, leather, hides, cork, &c.	300,568
Gibraltar	Wood and iron	13,949		
Sardinia	Wood, iron, tar, pitch	55,170		
Tuscany	Ditto	133,920		
Austria	Tar	18,700		
Algiers	Wood	52,0		
Egypt	Wood, tar, copper	41,366		
United States of America	Iron and iron plates	3,189,955	Tobacco, cotton, sugar, hides, rice, dye woods	805,541
Norway	Corn, copper, bricks, &c.	524,372	Fish	1,547,170
Hamburgh and Lubbeck	Iron, cutlery, copper, steel, tar, wood, coal, pitch, staves, brass wire, alum, lime, colours	576,235	Manufactures, &c.	2,034,471
Spain	Wood, tar	41,296	Salt, fruit, wine, oil, lead, &c.	154,540
Both Sicilies	Iron and wood	6,754	Salt, fruit, oil, &c.	3,290
Brazil	Iron, wood, beer, steel, tar, pitch, salt, porter, &c.	336,744	Sugar, coffee, tobacco, hides, horn, &c.	1,263,466
Russia	Alum, colours, coffee, indigo, wine, steel, salt, herrings	113,447	Bristles, corn, seeds, hemp, tallow, soap, hides, oil, &c.	1,689,380
	Rixdollars banco	13,564,618	Rixdollars banco	12,202,624

Shipping of Sweden.—Swedish vessels employed in foreign trade,

per official returns—	1830. 704 vessels = 45,173-96 last; navigated by 4,725 mariners, exclusive of masters.
1831. 871 vessels = 44,161-78 last; navigated by 4,635 mariners, exclusive of masters.	
Vessels reported inwards from foreign places—	Ferret.
1830. Swedish	2,240 = 67,896 last.
Foreign	1,781 = 70,754
1831. Swedish	2,427 = 63,089
Foreign	1,634 = 67,843

Vessels entered outwards for foreign places—

1830. Swedish	2,222 = 12,979 last.
Foreign	1,755 = 73,935
1831. Swedish	2,378 = 74,111
Foreign	1,674 = 68,326
Or together—	
Reported inwards, 1830	4,021 = 138,650 last.
1831	4,064 = 138,441
Entered outwards, 1830	4,047 = 103,917
1831	4,052 = 142,315

Regulations as to the working of Mines in Sweden.—The following paper, which we have received from Sweden, and on the authenticity of which our readers may rely, shows the nature of the obstructions laid on the principal branch of industry carried on in that kingdom. They appear to us to be in the last degree absurd and oppressive. It might be proper to enact regulations to prevent the waste of the forests; but having done this, every one ought to be at liberty to produce as much iron as he pleased, without being subject to any sort of regulation or control. We are surprised that so intelligent a government as that of Sweden should think of imposing such preposterous regulations.

"Sweden has at present from 330 to 340 smelting furnaces, which produce annually from 50,000 to 95,000 tons of pig iron. In converting the pig into bar iron, about 23 per cent. is allowed for waste; and as near as can be ascertained, the annual manufacture of bar iron is from 63,000 to 65,000 tons. The number of iron works is between 420 and 430, having about 1,100 forges (hearths). The annual exportation of bar iron, at an average of the 10 years ending 1831, was 49,568 tons; of which were, for—

Great Britain	10,000 tons.
United States	20,000
Germany, Holland, France, and Portugal	15,000
The remainder to Brazil, and a very little to the Mediterranean	4,568
Total	49,568

"The smelting furnaces and iron works are licensed for particular quantities, some being as low as 50 tons, and others as high as 400 or 500 tons; and some fine bar iron works have licenses for 1,000 tons each. These licenses are granted by the College of Mines, which has a control over all iron works and mining operations. The iron masters make annual returns of their manufacture, which must not exceed the privileged or licenced quantity, on pain of the overplus being confiscated. The College has subordinate courts, called Courts of Mines, in every district, with supervising officers of various ranks. All iron sent to a port of shipment must be landed at the public weigh-houses, the superintendent of which is a delegate of the College; and his duty is to register all that arrives, and transmit a quarterly report thereof to the college, so that it is impossible for an iron master to send more iron to market than his licence authorises. Many, however, sell iron to inland consumers at a forge, of which no returns are ever made out, and in so far the licenses are exceeded; but we do not suppose that the quantity so disposed of exceeds 2,000 or 3,000 tons a year. Every furnace and forge pays a certain annual duty to the Crown. Its amount is fixed by the College when the licence is granted; and care is taken not to grant a licence to any one, unless he has the command of a quantity equal to the required supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the supply of this material required

As the existing forges in the neighbourhood. As the supply of pig iron is limited, the quantity licenced to be made being never exceeded, the College, in granting new licences to bar iron works, always takes into consideration how far this may be done without creating a scarcity of pig iron. Hence, the erection of new forges depends—1st, on having a supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the forests which supply your neighbours; and 2dly, on the quantity of pig iron which the College knows to be disposable. The courts of the mines decide all disputes that arise among the iron masters regarding the exceeding of their licences, encroachments, &c.; an appeal to the College lying from their decision, and ultimately to the king in council, or to the supreme court of the kingdom. In 1834, the mines produced 850 tons of copper, 50 tons of brass, 40 tons of lead, 1,700 tons of alum, 45,029 lbs. of cobalt, 3,000 lbs. of silver; and of late years several mines of manganese have been worked, the produce of which may be from 300 to 400 tons.*

STOCKINGS, as every one knows, are coverings for the legs. They are formed of only 1 thread entwined, so as to form a species of tissue, extremely elastic, and readily adapting itself to the figure of the part it is employed to cover. This tissue cannot be called cloth, for it has neither warp nor woof, but it approaches closely to it; and for the purposes to which it is applied, it is very superior.

1. Historical Sketch of the Stocking Manufacture.—It is well known that the Romans and other ancient nations had no particular clothing for the legs. During the middle ages, however, hose or *leggings*, made of cloth, began to be used; and at a later period, the art of knitting stockings was discovered. Unluckily, nothing certain is known as to the individual by whom, the place where, or the time when, this important invention was made. Howell, in his *History of the World* (vol. iii. p. 222.), says, that Henry VIII. wore none but cloth hose, except there came from Spain by great chance a pair of silk stockings; that Sir Thomas Gresham, the famous merchant, presented Edward VI. with a pair of long silk stockings from Spain, and that the present was much taken notice of; and he adds, that Queen Elizabeth was presented, in the third year of her reign, with a pair of black knit silk stockings, and that from that time she ceased to wear cloth hose. It would appear from this circumstantial account, that the art of knitting stockings, or at least that the first specimens of knit stockings, had been introduced into England from Spain about the middle of the 16th century; and such seems to have been the general opinion, till an allusion to the practice of knitting, in the pretended poems of Rowley, forged by Chatterton, caused the subject to be more strictly investigated. The result of this investigation showed clearly that the practice of knitting was well known in England, and had been referred to in acts of parliament, a good many years previously to the period mentioned by Howell. But it had then, most probably, been applied only to the manufacture of woollen stockings; and the general use of cloth hose shows that even these had not been numerous. There is no evidence to show whether the art is native to England, or has been imported.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Knitting Nets and Stockings*.)

It is singular that the stocking frame, which, even in its rudest form, is a very complex and ingenious machine, that could not be discovered accidentally, but must have been the result of deep combination and profound sagacity, should have been discovered so early as 1589, before, in fact, the business of knitting was generally introduced. The inventor of this admirable machine was Mr. William Lee, of Woodborough, in Nottinghamshire. He attempted to set up an establishment at Calverton, near Nottingham, for the manufacture of stockings, but met with no success. In this situation he applied to the queen for assistance; but, instead of meeting with that remuneration to which his genius and inventions so well entitled him, he was discouraged and discountenanced! It need not, therefore, excite surprise that Lee accepted the invitation of Henry IV. of France, who, having heard of the invention promised him a magnificent reward if he would carry it to France. Henry kept his word, and Lee introduced the stocking frame at Rouen with distinguished success; but after the assassination of the king, the concern got into difficulties, and Lee died in poverty at Paris. A knowledge of the machine was brought back from France to England by some of the workmen who had emigrated with Lee, and who established themselves in Nottinghamshire, which still continues the principal seat of the manufacture.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. pp. 313—324.; and *Letters on the Utility and Policy of Machines*, Lond. 1780.)

During the first century after the invention of the stocking frame, few improvements were made upon it, and 2 men were usually employed to work 1 frame. But in the course of last century, the machine was very greatly improved. The late ingenious Mr. Jedediah Strutt, of Derby, was the first individual who succeeded in adapting it to the manufacture of *ribbed* stockings.

Statistical View of the Stocking Trade.—We subjoin, from a paper by Mr. Felkin, of Nottingham, who is very advantageously known by his statistical researches, the following view of the present state of the British hosiery trade.

* We do not mean that the manufacture of pig iron is limited; for any one can get a licence to smelt, who can prove he has a sufficiency of charcoal at his disposal; but the quantity licenced is never exceeded, but is often less.

in 1833.

Wool	15,000
Wool	12,000
Wool	41,200
Wool	504,300

from, and imported into,

Wares	Official Value
Wool, flour, dials, fire	1,064,165
Wool	160,378
Wool, fruit, &c.	110,000
Wool, wine, rum, spices, manufactures, &c.	1,155,412
Wool, hops	392,520
Wool, machinery, manufactures, wine, cognac, rum, earthenware, &c.	1,745,931
Wool, silk, wool, spices, fruit, hides, cork, &c.	387,473
Wool	300,302
Wool, sugar, hides, rices, dyo	905,547
Wool	1,547,170
Wool	5,234,471
Wool, lead, &c.	154,543
Wool	31,590
Wool, co, hides, horns, &c.	1,263,698
Wool, sheep, tallow, soap	1,598,303
Wool, Hindostani banco	12,202,652

Foreign places—

France	2,262 = 77,879 lbs.
France	1,718 = 75,608 —
France	2,570 = 74,171 —
France	1,470 = 66,288 —
France	4,071 = 136,610 lbs.
France	4,085 = 136,444 —
France	4,047 = 145,747 —
France	5,558 = 192,953 —

per, which we have received
shows the nature of the substruc-
tural. They appear to us to be in-
tentions to prevent the waste
to produce as much iron as be-
are surprised that so intelli-
epostrophe regulations.
duce annually from 50,000 to
cent. Is allowed for waste;
is from 63,000 to 65,000 tons,
forges (earthths). The annual
49,568 tons; of which was,

Wool	10,000 tons.
Wool	20,000 —
Wool	15,000 —
Wool	4,568 —
Total	49,568

quantities, some being so low
bar iron works have licenced
t, which has a control over all
returns of their manufactures,
the exceeding being confiscated,
strict, with supervising officers
at the public weigh-house, the
register all that arrives, and
to be for iron master to send
iron to inland consumers and the
are exceeded, but we do not
ac. Every furnace and forge
the College when the licence of
has the command of forests
ply of this material required

It is, therefore, of the greatest importance accurately to define what shall be deemed stranding. But this is no easy matter; and much diversity of opinion has been entertained with respect to it. It would, however, appear that merely striking against a rock, bank, or shore, is not a stranding; and that, to constitute it, the ship must be upon the rock, &c. for some time (how long?).—Mr. Justice Park has the following observations on this subject:—"It is not every touching or striking upon a fixed body in the sea or river that will constitute a stranding. Thus, Lord Ellenborough held, that in order to establish a stranding, the ship must be stationary; for that merely striking on a rock, and remaining there a short time (as in the case at the bar, about a minute and a half), and then passing on, though the vessel may have received some injury, is not a stranding. Lord Ellenborough's language is important.—*Ex vi termini* stranding means lying on the shore, or something analogous to that. To use a vulgar phrase, which has been applied to this subject, if it be touch and go with the ship, there is no stranding. It cannot be enough that the ship lie for a few moments on her beam ends. Every striking must necessarily produce a retardation of the ship's motion. If by the force of the elements she is run aground, and becomes stationary, it is immaterial whether this be on piles, on the muddy bank of a river, or on rocks on the sea shore; but a mere striking will not do, wherever that may happen. I cannot look to the consequences, without considering the *causa causans*. There has been a curiosity in the cases about stranding not creditable to the law. A little common sense may dispose of them more satisfactorily.

This is the clearest and most satisfactory statement we have met with on this subject; still, however, it is very vague. Lord Ellenborough and Mr. Justice Park hold, that to constitute a stranding, the ship must be stationary; but they also hold, that if she merely remain upon a rock, &c. for a short time, she is not to be considered as having been stationary. Hence every thing turns upon what shall be considered as a short time. And we cannot help thinking that it would be better, in order to put to rest all doubts upon the subject, to decide either that every striking against a rock, the shore, &c. by which damage is done to the ship, should be considered a stranding; or that no striking against a rock, &c. should be considered as such, provided the ship be got off within a specified time. Perhaps a tide would be the most proper period that could be fixed.

The insurance companies exclude the words, "or the ship be stranded," from the memorandum.—(See INSURANCE, MARINE.)

STURGEON FISHERY. The sturgeon is a large, variable, and well known fish, of which there are several species, viz. the sturgeon, properly so called, or *Acipenser sturio*, the beluga, or *Acipenser huso*, the sevruga, or *Acipenser stellatus*, &c. The sturgeon annually ascends our rivers, but in no great number, and is taken by accident in the salmon nets. It is plentiful in the North American rivers, and on the southern shores of the Baltic; and is met with in the Mediterranean, &c. But it is found in the greatest abundance on the northern shores of the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural; and there its fishery employs a great number of hands, and is an important object of national industry. Owing to the length and strictness of the Lents in the Greek Church, the consumption of fish in Russia is immense; and from its central position, and the facilities afforded for their conveyance by the Wolga, the products of the Caspian fishery, and those of its tributary streams, are easily distributed over a vast extent of country. Besides the pickled carcases of the fish, caviar is prepared from the roes; and isinglass, of the best quality, from the sounds. The caviar made by the Ural Cossacks is reckoned superior to any other; and both it and isinglass are exported in considerable quantities. The belugas are sometimes of a very large size, weighing from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs., and yield a good deal of oil. The seal fishery is also pretty extensively prosecuted in the Caspian. The reader will find a detailed account of the mode in which the fishery is carried on in the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural, in *Tooke's Russia*, vol. iii. pp. 49—72. We subjoin the following official statement of the produce of the Russian fisheries of the Caspian and its tributary streams in 1823 and 1829:—

Year.	Number of Persons employed.		Number of Fish taken.					Products of Sturgeon.		
	In Fishing.	In hauling Seals.	Sturgeon.	Sevruga.	Beluga.	Sassus (Carp).	Seals.	Caviar.	Fish Carriage.	Isinglass.
1823	2,887	254	43,035	830,164	23,069	8,333	98,584	Pounds, lbs. 34,250 1	1,207 35	1,245 27
1829	2,769	257	67,225	697,716	20,391	5,940	69,872	Pounds, lbs. 27,120 7	1,171 2 1/2	1,082 23

SUCCORY, or CHICCORY, the wild endive, or *Cichorium Intybus* of Linnaeus. This plant is found growing wild on calcareous soils in England, and in most countries of Europe. In its natural state the stem rises from 1 to 3 feet high, but when cultivated it shoots to the height of 5 or 6 feet. The root runs deep into the ground, and is white, fleshy, and yields a milky juice. It is cultivated to some extent in this country as an herbage plant, its excellence in this respect having been strongly insisted upon by the late Arthur Young. But in Germany, and in some parts of the Netherlands and France, it is extensively cultivated for

what shall be deemed
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 against a rock, bank, or
 upon the rock, &c. for
 vations on this subject:—
 or river that will consti-
 establish a stranding, the
 remaining there a short
 en passing on, through the
 Ellenborough's language
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 object, if it be touch and gra-
 ship lie for a few moments
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and well known fish, of
 led, or *Accipenser sturio*;
 itus, &c. The sturgeon
 by accident in the salmon
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 and Ural; and there its
 ject of national industry,
 rch, the consumption of
 facilities afforded for their
 and those of its tributary
 des the pickled carcasses
 me best quality, from the
 or to any other; and both
 as are sometimes of a very
 of oil. The seal fishery
 ill find a detailed account
 in the rivers Volga and
 owing official statement
 tributary streams in 1828

Products of Sturgeon.

Car.	Fish Cartidge.	Weight.
10	1,200	1,250
20	1,120	1,090

Silybus of Linnaeus. This
 most countries of Europe,
 cultivated it shoots to the
 white, fleshy, and yields
 herbage plant, its credit
 Arthur Young. But in
 extensively cultivated for

the sake of its root, which is used as a substitute for coffee; and it is this circumstance only that has induced us to mention it. When prepared on a large scale, the roots are partially dried, and sold to the manufacturers of the article, who wash them, cut them in pieces, dry them, and grind them between fluted rollers into a powder, which is packed up in papers containing from 2 oz. to 3 or 4 lbs. The powder has a striking resemblance to dark ground coffee, and a strong odour of liquorice. It has been extensively used in Prussia, Brunswick, and other parts of Germany, for several years; but as it wants the essential oil and the rich aromatic flavour of coffee, it has little in common with the latter except its colour, and has nothing to recommend it except its cheapness. It is only lately that succory powder began to be used in England; but, within the last 3 years, considerable quantities have been imported from Hamburgh, Antwerp, &c. We believe, too, that a small quantity has been produced in the Isle of Thanet.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture; Rees's Cyclopaedia; and private information.*)

Succory, when first imported, being an unenumerated article, was charged with a duty of 20 per cent *ad valorem*. But the average price of British plantation coffee may be taken at 80s. per cwt. in bond; and the duty, being 55s. per cwt., is equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of about 70 per cent; so that coffee was taxed more than three times as much as *succary*. Had coffee been always sold unground, this distinction in the duties would have been less objectionable; but as the lower classes do not use the great consumers of coffee, have no facilities for roasting and grinding it at home, they uniformly buy it in the shape of powder; hence it is plain that the discriminating duty in favour of succory must have acted as a premium upon, and an incentive to the adulteration of coffee by its intermixture. We are, therefore, glad to have to state that it has been abolished, and that succory is now subjected to a duty of 6d. per lb. The imposition of different duties upon convertible articles is quite subversive of every sound principle; and, whether it be so intended or not, is calculated only to promote adulteration and fraud.

SUGAR (Fr. *Sucre*; Ger. *Zucker*; It. *Zucchero*; Russ. *Sachar*; Sp. *Azucar*; Arab. *Sakbir*; Malay, *Soola*; Sans. *Sarkarā*), a sweet granulated substance, too well known to require any particular description. It is every where in extensive use; and in this country ranks rather among the indispensable necessaries of life, than among luxuries. In point of commercial importance, it is second to very few articles. It is chiefly prepared from the expressed juice of the *arundo saccharifera*, or sugar cane; but it is also prepared from an immense variety of other plants, as maple, beet root, birch, parsnep, &c.

Species of Sugar.—The sugar met with in commerce is usually of 4 sorts;—brown, or muscovado sugar; clayed sugar; refined, or loaf sugar; and sugar candy. The difference between one sort of sugar and another depends altogether on the different modes in which they are prepared.

1. **Brown, or Muscovado Sugar.**—The plants or canes being crushed in a mill, the juice, having passed through a strainer, is collected in the clarifier, where it is first exposed to the action of a gentle fire, after being “tempered” (mixed with alkali), for the purpose of facilitating the separation of the liquor from its impurities. It is then conveyed into the large evaporating copper, and successively into two others, each of smaller size; the superintending boiler freeing it, during the process, from the scum and feculent matters which rise to the surface. The syrup then reaches the last copper vessel, called the “striking tache,” where it is boiled till sufficiently concentrated to be capable of granulating in the cooler, whence it is transferred with the least possible delay, to prevent charring. Here it soon ceases to be a liquid; and when fully crystallised, is put into hogsheds (called “potting”), placed on their ends in the curing-house, with several apertures in their bottoms, through which the molasses drains into a cistern below. In this state they remain till properly cured, when the casks are filled up, and prepared for shipment.

2. **Clayed Sugar** is prepared by taking the juice, as in the case of muscovado sugar, when boiled to a proper consistency, and pouring it into conical pots with the apex downwards. These pots have a hole at the lower extremity, through which the molasses or syrup is allowed to drain. After this drain has continued for some time, a stratum of moistened clay is spread over the surface of the pots; the moisture of which percolating through the mass, is found to contribute powerfully to its purification.

3. **Refined Sugar** may be prepared from muscovado or clayed sugar, by redissolving the sugar in water, and, after boiling it with some purifying substances, pouring it, as before, into conical pots, which are again covered with moistened clay. A repetition of this process produces *double refined* sugar. But a variety of improved processes are now resorted to.

4. **Sugar Candy.**—Solutions of brown or clayed sugar, boiled till they become thick, and then removed into a hot room, form, upon sticks or strings put into the vessel for that purpose, into crystals, or candy.

II. **Historical Notice of Sugar.**—The history of sugar is involved in a good deal of obscurity. It was very imperfectly known by the Greeks and Romans. Theophrastus, who lived about 320 years before the Christian era, the first writer whose works have come down to us by whom it is mentioned, calls it a sort of “honey extracted from canes or reeds.” Strabo states, on the authority of Nearchus, Alexander's admiral, that “reeds in India yield honey without bees.” And Seneca, who was put to death in the 65th year of the Christian era, alludes (Epist. 81.) to the sugar cane, in a manner which shows that he knew next to

nothing of sugar, and absolutely nothing of the manner in which it is prepared and obtained from the cane.

Of the ancients, Dioscorides and Pliny have given the most precise description of sugar. The former says, it is "a sort of concreted honey, found upon canes, in India, and Arabia Felix; it is in consistence like salt, and is, like it, brittle between the teeth." And Pliny describes it as "honey collected from canes, like a gum, white and brittle between the teeth; the largest is of the size of a hazel nut: it is used in medicine only."—(*Saccharum et Arabum fruti, sed laudatius India; est autem mel in arundinibus collectum, gummius modo concretum, dentibus fragile, amplissimum nucis avellanae magnitudine, ad medicinas tantum usum.*—Lib. xii. c. 8.)

It is evident, from these statements, that the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans with respect to the mode of obtaining sugar was singularly imperfect. They appear to have thought that it was found adhering to the cane, or that it issued from it in the state of juice, and then concreted like gum. Indeed Lucan expressly alludes to Indians near the Ganges,

Quique bibunt tenerâ dulces ab arundine succos.—(Lib. iii. l. 237.)

But these statements are evidently without foundation. Sugar cannot be obtained from the cane without the aid of art. It is never found native. Instead of flowing from the plant, it must be forcibly expressed, and then subjected to a variety of processes.

Dr. Moseley conjectures, apparently with much probability, that the sugar described by Pliny and Dioscorides, as being made use of at Rome, was sugar candy obtained from China. This, indeed, is the only sort of sugar to which their description will at all apply. And it would seem that the mode of preparing sugar candy has been understood and practised in China from a very remote antiquity; and that large quantities of it have been in all ages exported to India, whence, it is most probable, small quantities found their way to Rome.—(*Treatise on Sugar*, 2d edit. pp. 66—71. This, as well as Dr. Moseley's *Treatise on Coffee*, is a very learned and able work.)

Europe seems to be indebted to the Saracens not only for the first considerable supplies of sugar, but for the earliest example of its manufacture. Having, in the course of the 9th century, conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, Sicily, and Crete, the Saracens introduced into them the sugar cane, with the cultivation and preparation of which they were familiar. It is mentioned by the Venetian historians, that their countrymen imported, in the 12th century, sugar from Sicily at a cheaper rate than they could import it from Egypt.—(*Essai de l'Histoire du Commerce de Venise*, p. 100.) The crusades tended to spread a taste for sugar throughout the Western world; but there can be no doubt that it was cultivated, as now stated, in modern Europe, antecedently to the era of the crusades; and that it was also previously imported by the Venetians, Amaliphitans, and others, who carried on a commercial intercourse, from a very remote epoch, with Alexandria and other cities in the Levant. It was certainly imported into Venice in 996.—(See the *Essai*, &c. p. 70.)

The art of refining sugar, and making what is called loaf-sugar, is a modern European invention, the discovery of a Venetian about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century.—(*Moseley*, p. 66.)

The Saracens introduced the cultivation of the sugar cane into Spain soon after they obtained a footing in that country. The first plantations were at Valencia; but they were afterwards extended to Granada and Murcia. Mr. Thomas Willoughby, who travelled over great part of Spain in 1664, has given an interesting account of the state of the Spanish sugar plantations, and of the mode of manufacturing the sugar.

Plants of the sugar cane were carried by the Spaniards and Portuguese to the Canary Islands and Madeira, in the early part of the 15th century; and it has been asserted by many, that these islands furnished the first plants of the sugar cane that ever grew in America.

But though it is sufficiently established, that the Spaniards early conveyed plants of the sugar cane to the New World, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding Humboldt seems to incline to the opposite opinion (*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 10.) that this was a work of supererogation, and that the cane was indigenous both to the American continent and islands. It was not for the plant itself, which flourished spontaneously in many parts when it was discovered by Columbus, but for the secret of making sugar from it, that the New World is indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese; and these to the nations of the East.—(See *Laflau, Mœurs des Sauvages*, tome ii. p. 150.; *Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 238.)

Barbadoes is the oldest settlement of the English in the West Indies. They took possession of it in 1627; and so early as 1648 began to export sugar. In 1670, the trade of Barbadoes is said to have attained its maximum, being then capable of employing 400 sail of vessels, averaging 150 tons burden.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage, and was first occupied by the Spaniards. It was wrested from them by an expedition sent against it by Cromwell, in 1656; and has since continued in our possession, forming by far the most valuable of our West Indian colonies. At the time when it was conquered, there were only 3 small sugar

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plantations upon it. But, in consequence of the influx of English settlers from Barbadoes and the mother country, fresh plantations were speedily formed, and continued rapidly to increase.

The sugar cane is said to have been first cultivated in St. Domingo, or Hayti, in 1506. It succeeded better there than in any other of the West Indian islands. Peter Martyr, in a work published in 1530, states that, in 1518, there were 28 sugar-works in St. Domingo established by the Spaniards. "It is marvellous," says he, "to consider how all things increase and prosper in the island. There are now 28 sugar presses, wherewith great plenty of sugar is made. The canes or reeds wherein the sugar groweth are bigger and higher than in any other place; and are as big as a man's wrist, and higher than the stature of a man by the half. This is more wonderful, that whereas in Valencia, in Spain, where a great quantity of sugar is made yearly, whensoever they apply themselves to the great increase thereof, yet doth every root bring forth not past 5 or 6, or at most 7 of these reeds; whereas in St. Domingo 1 root beareth 20, and oftentimes 30."—(Eng. trans. p. 172.)

Sugar from St. Domingo formed, for a very long period, the principal part of the European supplies. Previously to its devastation, in 1790, no fewer than 65,000 tons of sugar were exported from the French portion of the island.

iii. Sources whence the Supply of Sugar is derived.—The West Indies, Brazil, Surinam, Java, Mauritius, Bengal, Siam, the Isle de Bourbon, and the Philippines, are the principal sources whence the supplies required for the European and American markets are derived. The average quantities exported from these countries during each of the 3 years ending with 1833 were nearly as follows:—

	Tons.
British West Indies, including Demerara and Berbice	190,000
Mauritius	30,000
Bengal, Isle de Bourbon, Java, Siam, Philippines, &c.	60,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	110,000
French, Dutch, and Danish West Indies	95,000
Brazil	75,000

560,000 tons.

Use of lump sugar is unknown in the East, sugar candy being the only species of refined sugar that is made use of in India, China, &c. The manufacture of sugar candy is carried on in Hindostan, but the process is extremely rude and imperfect. In China, however, it is manufactured in a very superior manner and large quantities are exported. When of the best description, it is in large white crystals, and is a very beautiful article. Two sorts of sugar candy are met with at Canton, viz. Chinesew and Canton; the former being the produce of the province of Fokien, and the latter, as its name implies, of that of Canton. The Chinesew is by far the best, and is about 50 per cent. dearer than the other. Chinese sugar candy is consumed, to the almost total exclusion of any other species of sugar, by the Europeans at the different settlements throughout the East. There were exported from Canton, in 1831-32, by British ships, 32,279 piculs (38,427 cwt.) of sugar candy, valued at 212,000 dollars; and 60,627 piculs (72,175 cwt.) of clayed sugar, valued at 318,250 dollars; and during the previous year the exports were about 50 per cent. greater.—(See vol. i., pp. 302, 303.) The exports by the Americans are also considerable. At an average, the exports of sugar from Canton may be taken at from 4,000 to 10,000 tons; but of this only a small quantity finds its way to Europe. The exports from Siam and Cochinchina are estimated at about 12,500 tons.

Consumption of Sugar in Europe, &c.—Mr. Cook gives the following Table of the imports of sugar into France and the principal Continental ports in 1831, 1832, and 1833, and of the stocks on hand on the 31st of December of each of these years:—

	Imports.			Stocks, 31st of December.		
	1831.	1832.	1833.	1831.	1832.	1833.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
France	97,450	82,000	79,500	25,870	9,350	10,450
Trieste	17,950	22,400	13,800	6,900	11,900	6,840
Genoa	9,500	10,500	6,800	1,500	2,200	2,180
Antwerp	5,210	8,780	12,800	2,000	2,000	5,100
Rotterdam	10,700	11,600	8,650	1,800	3,900	3,350
Amsterdam	18,370	22,380	20,100	2,300	3,400	5,300
Hamburg	38,800	37,330	30,000	9,000	13,400	9,820
Bremen	12,380	12,500	7,350	3,230	5,800	3,550
Copenhagen	5,350	5,850	5,560	600	2,370	1,650
Petersburgh	11,170	23,100	18,500	8,840	11,000	15,000
	226,910	237,040	203,060	61,740	65,980	64,020

This Table does not, however, give the imports into any of the ports of the Peninsula, but the imports of Spain, only, has been estimated, apparently on good grounds, by Martevan (*Essai de Statistique sur les Colonies*, p. 92.), at 45,000,000 kilogrammes (41,050 tons.) This may appear large for a country in the situation of Spain; but the quantity is deduced from comparing the imports with the exports; and it is explained partly by the moderation of the duties, and partly by the large consumption of cocoa, and other articles that require a corresponding consumption of sugar. Mr. Cook's Table also omits the imports into Leghorn, Naples, Palermo, and other Italian ports. Neither does it give those into Stettin, Königsberg, Riga, Stockholm, Gottenburg, &c. It is, besides, very difficult, owing to transshipments from one place to another, accurately to estimate the real amount of the imports. On the whole, however, we believe that we shall be within the mark, if we estimate those for the whole Continent at from 255,000 to 310,000 tons, including what is sent from England.

The following Table, compiled from the best authorities, exhibits the total consumption of colonial and foreign sugars in France at different periods since 1788, with the population, and the average consumption of each individual.—(See *Montveran, Essai de Statistique*, p. 96., and the authorities there referred to.)

Years.	Consumption.	Population.	Individual Consumption.
	<i>Kilog.</i>		<i>Kilog.</i>
1788 - - - - -	21,300,000	23,600,000	966
1801 - - - - -	25,200,000	31,000,000	813
1812 - - - - -	16,000,000	43,000,000	372
1816 to 1819 average - - - - -	36,000,000	30,000,000	1200
1819 - 1822 - - - - -	47,000,000	30,833,000	1566
1823 - 1824 - - - - -	47,250,000	31,103,000	1513
1824 - 1825 - - - - -	65,750,000	31,280,000	2103
1825 - 1827 - - - - -	62,500,000	31,625,000	1976
1830 - - - - -	67,250,000	31,845,000	2116

This, however, is independent of the consumption of indigenous sugar—(see *post*), and of the sugar introduced by the contraband trade,—both of which are very considerable. The entire consumption of all sorts of sugar in France in 1832, including from 8,000,000 to 9,000,000 kilog. of beet-root sugar, and allowing for the quantity fraudulently introduced, may be estimated at about 88,000,000 kilog., or 193,000,000 lbs.; which, taking the population at 32,000,000, gives an average consumption of 6 lbs. to each individual, being about $\frac{1}{4}$ th part of the consumption of each individual in Great Britain! This extraordinary discrepancy is no doubt ascribable to various causes;—partly to the greater poverty of the mass of the French people; partly to their smaller consumption of tea, coffee, punch, and other articles that occasion a large consumption of sugar; and partly and principally, perhaps, to the oppressive duties with which foreign sugars are loaded on their being taken into France for home consumption.

The United States consume from 70,000 to 80,000 tons; but of these, from 30,000 to 40,000 tons are produced in Louisiana.

About 170,000 tons of sugar are retained for home consumption in Great Britain, and 17,000 tons in Ireland; exclusive of about 12,000 tons of bastard, or inferior sugar obtained by the boiling of molasses, and exclusive also of the refuse sugar and treacle remaining after the process of refining.

On the whole, therefore, we believe we may estimate the aggregate consumption of the Continent and of the British islands at about 500,000 tons a year; to which if we add the consumption of the United States, Turkey, &c., the aggregate will be nearly equivalent to the supply. The demand is rapidly increasing in most countries; but as the power to produce sugar is almost illimitable, no permanent rise of prices need be looked for.

Taking the price of sugar at the low rate of 1*l.* 4*s.* a cwt., or 24*l.* a ton, the prime cost of the article to the people of Europe will be 12,000,000*l.* sterling; to which adding 75 per cent. for duty, its total cost will be 21,000,000*l.*! This is sufficient to prove the paramount importance of the trade in this article. Exclusive, however, of sugar, the other products of the cane, as rum, molasses, treacle, &c., are of very great value. The revenue derived by the British treasury from rum, only, amounts to nearly 1,600,000*l.* a year.

Progressive Consumption of Sugar in Great Britain.—We are not aware that there are any authentic accounts with respect to the precise period when sugar first began to be used in England. It was, however, imported in small quantities by the Venetians and Genoese in the 14th and 15th centuries†, but honey was then, and long after, the principal ingredient employed in sweetening liquors and dishes. Even in the early part of the 17th century, the quantity of sugar imported was very inconsiderable; and it was made use of only in the houses of the rich and great. It was not till the latter part of the century, when coffee and tea began to be introduced, that sugar came into general demand. In 1700, the quantity consumed was about 10,000 tons, or 22,000,000 lbs.; at this moment the consumption has increased (bastards included) to above 180,000 tons, or more than 400,000,000 lbs.; so that sugar forms not only one of the principal articles of importation and sources of revenue, but an important necessary of life.

Great, however, as the increase in the use of sugar has certainly been, it may, we think, be easily shown, that the demand for it is still very far below its natural limit; and that, were the existing duties on this article reduced, and the trade placed on a proper footing, its consumption, and the revenue derived from it, would be greatly increased.

During the first half of last century, the consumption of sugar increased five-fold. It amounted, as already stated—

In 1700, to 10,000 tons -	or 22,000,000 lbs.	In 1754, to 53,370 tons	or 119,320,000 lbs.
1710, - 14,000 - - -	- 31,360,000 - -	1770-1775, 72,500 (average) -	162,500,000 - -
1731, - 42,000 - - -	- 94,080,000 - -	1786-1790, 81,000 - -	- 181,500,000 - -

* Continental system and empire.

† In Marin's *Storia del Commercio de' Veneziani* (vol. v. p. 306.), there is an account of a shipment made at Venice for England in 1310, of 100,000 lbs. of sugar, and 10,000 lbs. of sugar candy. The sugar is said to have been brought from the Levant.

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In the reign of Queen Anne, the duty on sugar amounted to 3s. 5d. per cwt. Small additions were made to it in the reign of George II.; but in 1780 it was only 6s. 8d. In 1781, a considerable addition was made to the previous duty; and in 1787 it was as high as 15s. 4d. In 1791 it was raised to 15s.; and while its extensive and increasing consumption pointed it out as an article well fitted to augment the public revenue, the pressure on the public finances, caused by the French war, occasioned its being loaded with duties, which, although they yielded a large return, would, there is good reason to think, have been more productive had they been lower. In 1797, the duty was raised to 17s. 6d.; 2 years after, it was raised to 20s.; and, by successive augmentations in 1803, 1804, and 1806, it was raised to 30s.: but in the last-mentioned year it was enacted, that, in the event of the market price of sugar in bond, or exclusive of the duty, being, for the 4 months previous to the 5th of January, the 5th of May, or the 5th of September, below 49s. a cwt., the Lords of the Treasury might remit 1s. a cwt. of the duty; that if the prices were below 48s., they might remit 2s.; and if below 47s., they might remit 3s., which was the greatest reduction that could be made. In 1826, the duty was declared to be constant at 27s., without regard to price; but it was reduced, in 1830, to 24s. on West India sugar, and to 32s. on East India sugar.

Account of the Quantity of Sugar retained for Home Consumption in GREAT BRITAIN, the Nett Revenue derived from it, and the Rates of Duty with which it was charged; and the Price, exclusive of the Duty, in each Year from 1789 to 1832, both inclusive.

Year.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Revenue.	Rates of Duty.				Price of Jamaica Brown or Muscovado Sugar in Bond, per Gazette Average.
			British Plantation Sugar.	East India Sugar, including Mauritius.		Per Cent. ad valorem.	
				Per Cwt.	£ s. d.		
1789	1,547,109	£ 862,639 11 11	0 12 4	-	-	37 10 3	
1790	1,536,232	908,954 17 4	-	-	-	-	
1791	1,403,211	1,074,903 16 5	0 15 0	0 2 8	-	37 10 3	
1792	1,361,592	1,012,536 12 1	-	-	-	-	
1793	1,677,097	1,316,502 14 3	-	-	-	-	
1794	1,389,392	1,031,492 4 2	-	-	-	-	
1795	1,336,230	949,961 16 1	-	-	-	-	
1796	1,554,902	1,225,213 7 5	-	-	-	-	
1797	1,273,723	1,299,744 0 7	0 17 6	0 6 9	37 10 3	-	
1798	1,476,552	1,794,990 15 9	0 19 0	0 6 9	40 16 3	-	
1799	2,773,438	2,321,935 16 5	1 0 0	0 2 6	42 10 3	-	
1800	1,506,921	1,835,112 11 1	-	-	-	-	
1801	2,773,795	2,782,222 18 1	-	0 3 2	42 16 3	-	
1802	2,250,311	2,210,801 6 11	1 4 0	1 6 4½	1 4 0	-	
1803	1,492,565	1,551,437 17 11	1 6 0	1 9 1½	1 0 0	-	
1804	2,144,369	2,453,124 18 3	1 6 0	1 9 1½	1 7 0	-	
1805	2,676,103	2,489,793 1 10	1 7 0	1 9 8¼	1 7 0	-	
1806	2,801,747	3,097,590 3 6	-	-	-	-	
1807	2,277,665	3,150,753 6 3	-	-	-	-	
1808	2,642,813	4,177,916 3 4	-	1 10 0	1 0 0	-	
1809	2,504,507	3,273,993 2 3	-	-	-	-	
1810	3,480,312	3,117,330 19 9	{ 1 9 0	1 12 0	1 0 0	-	
1811	3,226,757	3,339,218 4 3	{ 1 8 0	1 11 0	1 0 0	-	
1812	2,804,019	3,929,630 17 2	{ 1 7 0	1 10 0	1 0 0	-	
1813	2,906,063	3,447,560 4 6	1 10 0	1 13 0	1 0 0	-	
1814	1,997,999	3,276,513 6 6	-	-	Per Cwt. £1 10 0	3 13 4	
1815	1,898,965	2,957,403 2 4	-	-	1 11 0	3 1 10	
1816	2,228,156	3,166,851 18 0	1 7 0	2 0 0	1 10 0	2 8 7	
1817	2,960,704	3,967,154 5 0	-	-	1 17 0	2 0 6	
1818	1,457,707	2,331,472 3 5	1 10 0	2 0 0	2 0 0	2 10 0	
1819	2,474,739	3,507,844 11 0	{ 1 8 0	1 18 0	-	2 1 4	
1820	3,281,256	3,477,770 11 4	{ 1 7 0	1 17 0	-	1 16 2	
1821	2,676,274	3,660,567 6 7	-	-	-	1 13 2	
1822	2,618,490	3,579,419 12 11	-	-	-	1 11 11	
1823	2,842,676	4,022,782 4 1	-	-	-	1 11 6	
1824	2,857,261	4,223,240 18 5	-	-	-	1 11 6	
1825	2,655,950	3,756,654 0 1	-	-	-	1 18 6	
1826	3,255,075	4,518,690 15 9	-	-	{ Duty on Mauritius }	1 10 7	
1827	3,091,191	4,218,628 6 7	-	-	{ sugar reduced to 27s. }	1 15 6	
1828	3,285,843	4,576,287 13 4	-	-	-	1 11 8	
1829	3,211,535	4,452,793 18 11	-	-	-	1 8 7	
1830	3,308,656	4,354,103 0 0	1 4 0	1 12 0	-	1 4 11	
1831	3,421,597	4,219,049 0 0	-	-	-	1 3 6	
1832	3,315,836†	3,986,519 0 0	-	-	-	-	

* Sugar used in the distilleries included in these years.

† Previously to 1829, the importation of East India sugar was comparatively trifling, and does not at this moment amount to above 190,000 cwt. The imports from the Mauritius have increased rapidly during the last 5 years, more especially since 1826, when the duty on sugar from that island was reduced to the same level as that on sugar from the West Indies.—(See ante, p. 327.)

‡ N.B.—These quantities include the sugar refined in Britain for exportation to Ireland.

the total consumption, 1788, with the population, Essai de Statistique, p.

Individual Consumption.
400
312
3729
1200
1566
1513
1782
1976
2136

sugar—(see post), and is very considerable. The quantity of sugar imported from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 lbs. annually introduced, may be taken the population of the island, being about 4th of his extraordinary disconcerted poverty of the mass of coffee, punch, and other articles principally, perhaps, to be taken into France

of these, from 30,000 to

on in Great Britain, and for inferior sugar obtained and treacle remaining after

rate consumption of the sugar to which if we add the quantity of sugar which is nearly equivalent to the quantity of sugar but as the power to produce for.

of a ton, the prime cost of sugar which adding 75 per cent to prove the paramount value of the other products of the revenue derived by the year.

not aware that there are other first began to be used Venetians and Genoese sugar, the principal ingredient of the 17th century, made use of only in the 18th century, when coffee and sugar. In 1700, the quantity of sugar the consumption has been 100,000,000 lbs.; so that the sources of revenue, but

been, it may, we think, natural limit; and that, on a proper footing, its consumption has increased five-fold. It

consumption or 110,000,000 lbs. (average) - 182,500,000 - 181,500,000 -

in account of a shipment of sugar candy. The sugar

II Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Sugar in the United Kingdom, and the Revenue derived therefrom, in each year from 1814 to 1835 inclusive, specifying the different Species of Sugar, and the Quantities of each consumed and exported, with the Gross and Net Amount of the Duty.—(Report of the West India Committee of 1832, p. 288.; and Parl. Papers.)

Years.	Imports.					Total of Imports.
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Cwt.	
1814	Cwt. 3,581,516		Cwt. 48,949		Cwt. 3,630,465	
1815	3,642,907		12,638		3,655,545	
1816	3,560,317		127,068		3,687,385	
1817	3,679,323		123,998		3,803,321	
1818	3,775,379		168,305		3,943,684	
1819	3,907,151		203,227		4,110,378	
1820	3,749,458		217,239		3,966,697	
1821	3,906,907		268,168		4,175,075	
1822	3,435,061		226,371		3,661,432	
1823	3,773,528		319,650		4,093,178	
1824	3,033,022		371,948		3,404,970	
1825	3,501,281	93,728	150,347		3,745,356	
1826	4,002,420	186,792	164,822		4,354,014	
1827	3,550,918	304,244	175,848		3,931,010	
1828	4,313,430	361,845	156,498		4,831,773	
1829	4,152,315	327,958	306,032		4,786,305	
1830	5,019,868	485,719	283,469		5,789,056	
1831	4,113,748	517,553	327,419		4,958,720	
1832	3,784,213	541,771	175,332		4,401,316	
1833	3,555,512	529,361	307,301		4,392,174	
1834	3,844,234	544,461	141,293		4,529,988	
1835	3,523,948	538,237	213,648		4,275,833	

Years.	Exports.					Consumption.
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Total of Raw Sugar.	
1814	Cwt. 450,817		Cwt. 41,083	Cwt. 459,990	Cwt. 951,860	Cwt. 897,247
1815	385,761		67,695	311,378	764,904	694,025
1816	324,989		101,561	180,190	646,740	553,314
1817	142,571		93,819	132,837	370,727	1,141,724
1818	285,522		109,368	177,151	571,041	1,174,233
1819	55,913		87,587	102,710	246,210	1,098,618
1820	77,057		185,068	138,298	400,423	1,098,618
1821	9,551		144,332	180,914	340,497	1,024,731
1822	16,837		8,277	137,107	245,611	561,308
1823	11,231		104,798	176,717	292,744	677,593
1824	8,336		146,318	213,890	369,174	640,054
1825	11,528	21,699	36,638	173,075	243,822	649,768
1826	102,297	45,334	46,639	105,801	300,301	586,172
1827	40,831	48,490	64,079	103,865	236,456	895,422
1828	60,989	17,885	42,546	167,329	371,448	775,624
1829	16,467	52,321	56,174	172,940	382,192	808,435
1830	13,355	48,383	83,415	166,310	311,461	1,034,888
1831	10,830	11,174	111,022	297,644	420,720	989,150
1832	5,398	12,148	92,149	220,301	328,095	774,939
1833	7,830	3,327	111,550	243,223	366,549	417,687
1834	12,313	4,860	80,867	500,714	594,749	681,755
1835	11,453	1,750	137,042	260,853	371,230	595,160

Years.	Gross Receipt of Duties.					Payments out of Gross Receipt.	
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantations (including Sugar of Martinique and Guadeloupe admitted for Home Consumption under Act 53 Geo. 3. c. 62.)	Total of Gross Receipt.	Drawback and Bounty allowed on exportation to Foreign Ports, and Repayment on Over-Duties, &c.	Net Produce of Duties.
1814	L. 4,577,910		L. 24,299	L. 232,229	L. 4,834,438	L. 1,147,990	L. 3,686,448
1815	4,740,771		35,998	65,578	4,842,347	1,126,026	3,716,321
1816	4,917,014		61,913	109,349	5,088,276	1,453,093	3,635,183
1817	5,895,345		60,812	6,034	6,025,191	1,591,265	4,433,926
1818	4,313,361		50,114	2,119	4,365,594	1,614,706	2,750,888
1819	4,984,578		134,014	524	5,119,116	1,141,273	3,977,843
1820	5,224,926		166,963	1,011	5,448,900	1,215,818	4,233,082
1821	5,362,130		222,438	1,075	5,585,643	1,366,695	4,218,948
1822	4,811,730		254,335	1,117	4,867,182	1,465,798	3,401,384
1823	5,135,419		180,783	770	5,316,972	519,532	4,797,440
1824	5,807,132		290,537	210	6,107,879	817,975	5,289,904
1825	4,651,593	106,205	199,322	89	4,958,111	770,496	4,187,615
1826	5,273,648	157,536	265,337	90	5,698,106	738,118	4,959,988
1827	5,569,308	230,046	172,408	80	5,971,870	811,678	5,160,192
1828	5,415,711	826,448	180,655	3,238	6,226,052	967,779	5,258,273
1829	5,340,218	324,768	223,029	8,745	5,596,760	1,003,515	4,593,245
1830	5,226,968	638,007	230,185	47,964	6,063,322	1,255,680	4,807,642
1831	4,386,562	547,855	189,699	104,358	5,128,414	1,127,294	4,001,120
1832	4,199,377	631,600	137,374	60	5,354,441	969,118	4,385,323
1833	4,167,862	608,353	157,265	184	4,934,084	519,794	4,414,290
1834	4,496,845	633,336	194,387	124	5,344,691	785,414	4,559,277
1835	4,920,792	709,788	157,964	88	5,397,632	729,759	4,667,873

N. B.—The rates of duty in this Table are the same as those in Table No. I.

* These quantities are exclusive of the coarse sugar and hards remaining from the process of refining; and they are also exclusive of the coarse sugar obtained by boiling molasses. The quantities of the latter taken for home consumption, in 1831, were 8,020 tons; in 1832, 11,450 do.; and in 1833, 13,970 do.—(Cook's Commerce of 1833, p. 6.)

SUGAR.

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The following Tables exhibit the sugar trade of 1835 more in detail:—

III. Account of the Quantity of Unrefined Sugar Imported into the United Kingdom, from the several British Colonies and Plantations, of the British Possessions in the East Indies, and from Foreign Countries, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836; distinguishing the several Sorts of Sugar, and the Colonies and Countries from which the same was imported.

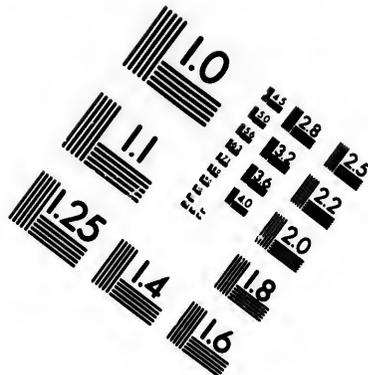
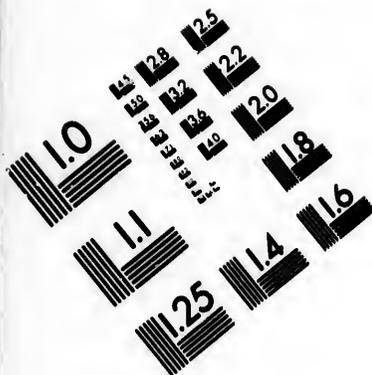
Whence imported.	Of the British Plantations.	Of Mauritius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Plantations.	Total Quantity imported.
British colonies and plantations in America, viz.—	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.
Antigua - - - - -	174,018 0 2	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	174,818 0 2
Bahabadoes - - - - -	344,689 1 0	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	344,689 1 0
Dominica - - - - -	25,013 2 5	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	25,013 2 5
Grenada - - - - -	170,280 0 14	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	170,280 0 14
Jamaica - - - - -	1,148,760 1 8	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	1,148,760 1 8
Montserrat - - - - -	16,361 2 2	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	16,361 2 2
Nevis - - - - -	39,637 0 98	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	39,637 0 98
St. Christopher - - - - -	86,754 0 22	- - - - -	- - - - -	859 3 1	87,613 3 9
St. Lucia - - - - -	54,731 3 22	- - - - -	- - - - -	11 3 4	54,743 2 26
St. Vincent - - - - -	195,056 2 24	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	195,056 2 24
Tobago - - - - -	77,259 3 22	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	77,259 3 22
Tortola - - - - -	13,821 1 21	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	13,821 1 21
Trinidad - - - - -	289,392 3 18	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	289,392 3 18
Demerara - - - - -	760,375 2 24	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	760,375 2 24
Barbice - - - - -	126,484 3 9	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	126,484 3 9
British North American colonies - - - - -	610 0 22	- - - - -	- - - - -	0 0 8	610 1 2
Serra Leone - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	4 0 7	4 0 7
Cape of Good Hope - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	0 1 18	- - - - -	0 1 18
Mauritius - - - - -	- - - - -	558,237 1 22	475 0 3	- - - - -	558,712 1 25
British possessions in the East Indies, viz.—	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
East India Company's territories, exclusive of Singapore - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	107,100 3 20	- - - - -	107,100 3 20
Singapore - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	30,874 3 10	- - - - -	30,874 3 10
Java - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	28,135 0 18	- - - - -	28,135 0 18
Philippine Islands - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	47,059 2 4	- - - - -	47,059 2 4
Foreign colonies in the West Indies, viz.—	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -
Cuba - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	58,692 2 26	58,692 2 26
Colombia - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	914 3 25	914 3 25
Peru - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	5,782 1 14	5,782 1 14
United States of America - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	3,717 3 22	3,717 3 22
Brazil - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	81,337 2 4	81,337 2 4
Europe - - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	1,104 3 15	1,104 3 15
Totals - - - - -	3,523,947 2 27	558,237 1 22	213,645 3 17	152,436 0 14	4,445,267 0 24

IV. Account of the Amount of Duties received on Sugar in the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836, distinguishing each Sort of Sugar; also, of the Amount of Drawbacks and Bounties allowed upon the Exportation thereof, and of the Nett Produce of the Duties, in such Year.

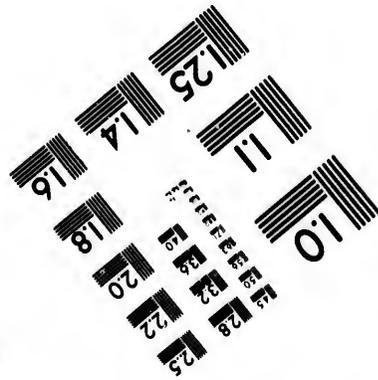
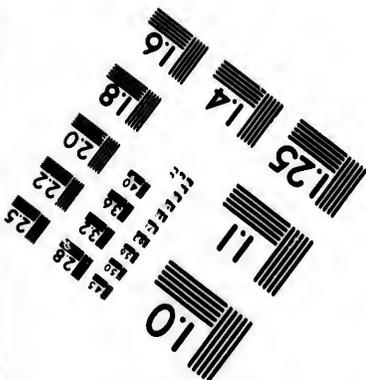
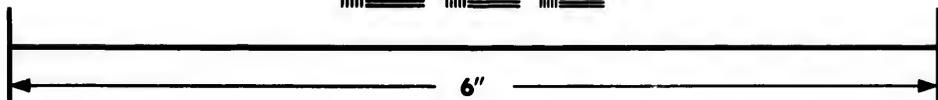
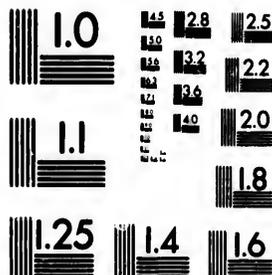
Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Gross Receipt of Duties on Sugar.				Total.
	Of the British Plantations.	Of Mauritius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Plantations, and Foreign Refined Sugar.	
Great Britain - - - - -	£ 4,128,676	£ 704,410	£ 157,897	£ 48	£ 4,991,031
Ireland - - - - -	401,116	5,378	67	40	406,601
United Kingdom	4,529,792	709,788	157,964	88	5,397,632

Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Payments out of the Gross Receipt of Duties on Sugar.			Nett Produce of the Duties on sugar.
	Bounties paid on British Refined sugar exported.	Repayments on Over-Boittes, Damages, &c.	Total.	
Great Britain - - - - -	£ 700,015	£ 19,323	£ 728,337	£ 4,262,694
Ireland - - - - -	306	1,023	1,419	405,182
United Kingdom	700,411	20,345	729,756	4,667,876





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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V. Account of the Quantity of Raw and Refined Sugar exported from the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836; reducing the Quantity of Refined into its Proportion of Raw; distinguishing the several Sorts of Sugar, and the Countries to which the same was exported.—(N.B.—Losses omitted in the Columns, but allowed for in the Totals.)

Countries to which exported.	Raw Sugar.					Refined Sugar.		Total (said in Column Raw Sugar.)
	Of the British Plantations.	Of Mauritius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Plantations.	Total of Raw Sugar.	Actual Weight exported.	The same stated as Raw Sugar in the Proportion of 84 Cwt. of Raw to 50 Cwt. of Refined.	
<i>From Great Britain.</i>								
Russia			5,843 1	38,918 3	36,426 0			
Sweden			1,918 8	1,779 8	3,898 0			
Norway			108 8	1,198 8	1,299 0			
Denmark	1 8			10,877 1	11,776 3	180 9	207 0	2,828 0
Prussia			23,079 1	81,052 1	44,118 8	38,823 2	65,869 0	107,778 0
Germany	607 0	400 0	13,524 0	11,999 0	25,429 1	66,010 0	110,208 0	135,628 0
The Netherlands	274 0				85,490 0	177,744 8	3,240 3	338,960 0
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira	26 0		181 8	848 8	839 8	2,843 3	5,004 1	5,428 0
Spain and the Canaries			568 3	1,514 1	8,061 1	8,551 8	5,001 1	13,552 9
Gibraltar		1 2	19 0		30 9	298 8	4,608 8	4,909 7
Italy	1 8	72 1	16,368 0	81,877 3	37,830 0	182,183 0	228,172 0	307,477 1
Malta			8,834 8	8,218 3	6,532 8	10,223 3	17,278 2	24,811 2
The Ionian Islands			1,043 3	878 8	1,421 8	19,480 8	17,278 2	36,759 0
Turkey and Continental Greece			3,005 2	688 8	8,819 0	30,387 0	6,474 3	44,371 0
Norwa and Greek Islands			1,872 1	528 8	1,881 0	5,475 1	4,386 3	6,182 3
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	3,135 0	989 1	288 3		181 8	9,105 0	4,473 1	13,778 2
Total from Great Britain	9,045 8	1,359 0	166,000 0	300,898 3	366,188 0	318,898 2	541,794 0	907,978 1
Cape of Good Hope		1 1			108 1			1,089 1
Other parts of Africa	43 8	148 8	478 3		135 1	1,324 3	1,884 3	4,168 1
East India and China	7 8	8 0	46 1		2 2	66 0	965 0	1,046 8
New South Wales, Swan River, and Van Diemen's Land								
British North American Colonies	3 1	180 1		60 0	172 3	4,671 1	7,771 1	1,544 9
British West Indies	2,363 1	141 8	1,401 1	61 0	3,946 0	18,617 9	31,400 0	38,681 8
Foreign West Indies				4 0		4,372 2	5,001 1	1,627 9
United States of America				1 9		1 9	56 0	57 9
Mexico			0 3	2 1	3 1	313 3	688 1	694 3
Colombia						17 2	80 1	97 3
Brazil						58 8	81 0	110 8
States of the Rio de la Plata			16 8	16 0	34 9	31 8	54 0	86 7
Chili			8 3		3 3	170 0	288 0	300 0
Peru			4 8		4 0	11 0	19 0	23 1
Total from Ireland	1,458 0	1,750 0	167,041 8	300,888 0	371,327 9	348,187 1	608,618 1	964,641 1
<i>From Ireland.</i>								
British North American Colonies	1 3				1 3		1 3	1 3
British West Indies						183 9	311 3	312 6
Total from Ireland	1 3				1 3	183 9	311 6	313 9
Total Quantity exported from the United Kingdom	11,458 0	1,750 0	167,041 8	300,888 0	371,329 3	348,371 0	608,929 7	965,162 0

The duty on foreign sugars is a prohibitory one of 63s. a cwt. Sugar from the Mauritius is, however, by a special provision, allowed to be imported at the same duty as West India sugar.

Influences of the Duties.—The price of sugar, exclusive of the duty, may be taken, at an average of the last few years, at from 24s. to 25s. a cwt. But to lay a tax of 24s. on a necessary of life costing from 24s. to 35s., including 8s. per cwt. freight and charges, is obviously a most oppressive proceeding. Indeed, there does not seem to be much room for doubting that the consumption, and consequently also the revenue, would be very greatly increased by reducing the duty to 12s. or 18s. This may be pretty confidently inferred from the increase of consumption that has invariably followed every fall in the price of sugar. During the 3 years ending with 1808, when the price of brown or muscovado sugar, inclusive of the duty, was about 66s. a cwt., there were, at an average, 3,640,741 cwt. retained for home consumption. During the 3 years ending with 1816, the price was about 93s., and the same quantity retained for home consumption fell off to 2,038,373 cwt. But during the 3 years ending with 1824, the price having fallen to about 57s., the average quantity retained for home consumption rose to 3,267,581 cwt.; being an increase of more than fifty per cent. upon the quantity consumed during the previous period!

It will be observed that the duty was either the same, or very nearly the same, in those 3 periods; but had it been imposed on an *ad valorem* principle, or made to vary directly as the price, the reduction in the last-mentioned period would have been proportionately greater, and there would, consequently, have been a still greater increase of consumption.

The reduction of 3s. a cwt. from the duty, in 1830, was too trifling to have much effect; and it is difficult to say what portion of the increased consumption that has since taken place is to be ascribed to it, and what to other things. But if, instead of reducing the duty from 27s. to 24s., it had been reduced from 27s. to 16s., or 18s., the reduction would have had a powerful influence; and would certainly have occasioned a great increase in the consumption of the lower priced sugars, particularly in Ireland.

The quantity of sugar consumed in Great Britain is, at present, allowing for the quantity sent to Ireland, more than double what it was in 1790. But had the duty continued at 12s. 4d., as enacted in 1790, there cannot, we think, be much doubt that the consumption would have been quadrupled. During the intervening period, the population has been little less than doubled; and the proportion which the middle classes now bear to the whole population has been decidedly augmented. The consumption of coffee—an article in the preparation of which a great deal of sugar is used in this country, by all who can afford it—is more than 23 times as great now as in 1790; that is, it has increased from under 1,000,000 lbs. to above 23,000,000 lbs. The consumption of tea has about doubled; and there has been a vast increase in the use of home-made wines, preserved and baked fruits, &c. In short, therefore, of having done little more than increase proportionally to the increase of the population, it may be fairly presumed that the consumption of sugar would, had there not been some powerful coun-

the United Kingdom, in the Year
proportion of Raw distinguished
was exported.—(N. B.—Lis. are

	Refined Sugar.	The same stated as Raw Sugar in the Proportion of 84 Cwt. to 90 Cwt. of Refined.	Total (Total in Cwt.) of Raw Sugar.
1878	3,000,000	3,571,429	6,571,429
1879	2,800,000	3,333,333	6,133,333
1880	2,600,000	3,095,238	5,695,238
1881	2,400,000	2,857,143	5,257,143
1882	2,200,000	2,619,048	4,819,048
1883	2,000,000	2,380,953	4,380,953
1884	1,800,000	2,142,858	3,942,858
1885	1,600,000	1,904,763	3,504,763
1886	1,400,000	1,666,668	3,066,668
1887	1,200,000	1,428,573	2,628,573
1888	1,000,000	1,190,478	2,190,478
1889	900,000	1,071,429	1,971,429
1890	800,000	952,380	1,752,380
1891	700,000	833,331	1,533,331
1892	600,000	714,282	1,314,282
1893	500,000	595,233	1,095,233
1894	400,000	476,184	876,184
1895	300,000	357,135	657,135
1896	200,000	238,086	438,086
1897	100,000	119,037	219,037
1898	100,000	119,037	219,037
1899	100,000	119,037	219,037
1900	100,000	119,037	219,037

increasing cause in operation, have increased in a far greater degree. Instead of amounting to little more than 3,000,000, it might have amounted to 8,000,000 cwt.

Taking the aggregate consumption of Great Britain at 400,000,000 lbs., and the population at 30,000,000, the average consumption of each individual will be about 24 lbs. This, though a far greater average than that of France, or any of the Continental states, is small compared with what it might be were sugar supplied under a more liberal system. In workhouses, the customary annual allowance for each individual is, we believe, 34 lbs.; and in private families, the smallest separate allowance for domestic is 1 lb. a week, or 52 lbs. a year. These facts strongly corroborate what we have already stated as to the extent to which the consumption of sugar may be increased; and others may be referred to, that are, if possible, still more conclusive. Mr. Huskisson stated, in his place in the House of Commons, on Mr. Grant's motion for a reduction of the sugar duties, 25th of May, 1830, that "in consequence of the present enormous duty on sugar, the poor working-man with a large family, to whom sugar was a serious consideration, was denied the use of that commodity; and he believed it did not go too far when he stated, that two-thirds of the poorer consumers of coffee drank that beverage without sugar. If, then, the price of sugar were reduced, it would become an article of his consumption, like many other articles—woolens, for example, which are now used from their cheapness—which he was formerly unable to purchase."—(Speeches, vol. III. p. 455.) There are no grounds for thinking that this statement is in any degree exaggerated; and it strikingly shows the very great extent to which the consumption of sugar might be increased, were it brought fully under the command of the labouring classes.

In Ireland, however, that we should anticipate the greatest and most salutary effects from a reduction of the duties on sugar. The direct importations into Ireland do not exceed 15,000 tons; and if we add to these 6,000 tons for the second-hand importations from Great Britain, which, we believe, is quite as much or more than they amount to, the entire consumption of that country will be 21,000 tons, or 87,000,000 lbs., which, taking the population of Ireland at 8,000,000, gives about 8 lbs. to each individual; or about 1-4th part of the average consumption of each individual in Great Britain. So singular a result must, we believe, be ascribed, in a considerable degree, to the comparative poverty of the Irish; but there can be no doubt that it is partly, if not principally, owing to over-taxation. The direct imports of sugar into Ireland were twice as great 30 years ago as they are at this moment; and there is no reason for thinking that the increase in the second-hand imports has been equivalent to the decrease in the population. Hence, in order to diffuse a taste for so necessary an article as sugar among the population of Ireland, it would be very desirable, if possible, to reduce the duties even as low as 1s. a cwt.; and we are well convinced that such reduction, though it might occasion an immediate loss, would, in the end, be productive of a great increase of revenue, besides being attended with other and still more beneficial consequences. The "one thing needful" in Ireland is to inspire the population with a taste for the conveniences and enjoyments of civilized life; but how is it possible to do this while these conveniences are burdened with oppressive duties, that form an insuperable obstacle to their being used by any but the richest classes? Hence, the first step towards supplying what is confessedly the grand desideratum in the case of Ireland, is to reduce the duties on articles of convenience and luxury, so that they may become attainable by the mass of the people. If this be done, we may rest assured that the desire inherent in all individuals of improving their condition, will impel them to exert themselves to obtain them. A taste for the articles in question will be gradually diffused amongst all ranks; and, ultimately, it will be thought discreditable to be without them.—(Pol. Paper, No. 97. Sess. 1831.)

We have already seen that the imports of sugar from the British West Indies and the Mauritius may be estimated at 216,500 tons, and the consumption of Great Britain and Ireland at above 184,000 tons, exclusive of the East India Company's duty; but of this quantity, about 6,000 tons is Bengal sugar,—making the net consumption of West India and Mauritius sugar 178,000 tons, leaving 38,000 tons of the latter for exportation, exclusive of the surplus of Bengal sugar.

The duty on East India sugar ought to be reduced to the same level as that on West India sugar. It is difficult to imagine that there can be any good reason why all the productions of the different dependencies of the empire should not be allowed to come into the home market on paying the same duty. The admission of Mauritius sugar at a duty of 9s. is, indeed, a full concession of the principle; for there is not a single argument that could be alleged in favour of admitting Mauritius sugar at the same duty as West India sugar, that will not equally apply to Bengal sugar. However, we do not think that this point is of so much practical importance as is generally supposed. East India sugar has no sale, made any way in the Continental markets, most of which are open to it on the same terms as other sugars; and unless its quality be materially improved, or its price considerably reduced, there is but little prospect of its being able to come into competition with the sugars of Jamaica, Brazil, and Cuba.

Bounty on the Exportation of Refined Sugar.—The business of refining sugar for exportation has been carried on to a considerable extent in this country; but it may be doubted whether its prosecution has ever been productive of any material national advantage. It had long been suspected,—and the fact seems now sufficiently established,—that the drawback allowed on the exportation of refined sugar has been greater than the duty charged on the raw sugar used in its manufacture; the excess being, in fact, a bounty paid to those engaged in the trade. Previously to 1826, the drawback on double refined sugar was 4s. a cwt. It was then reduced to 4s., but there is reason to think that it is still considerably above the mark. The average price of sugar in bond in this country, for several years past, has been from 5s. to 6s. a cwt. above what sugar of the same quality has brought on the Continent; a difference which, as we export sugar, could not have been maintained, had it not been for the bounty. The same conclusion has been established by the trials made under the superintendence of Dr. Ure at a sugar house taken for the purpose by government. It is said to be the intention of ministers to reduce the drawback to what may be supposed to be the fair equivalent of the duties paid on the raw sugar; a measure of which no doubt can be entertained. It has been the practice, in making up returns to parliament, to reduce the refined sugar exported into raw sugar, by allowing 34 cwt. of the latter to 90 of the former. But the export of sugar in this mode to appear greater than it really is; for though 34 cwt. of raw may be required to produce 20 cwt. of refined sugar, the whole of the molasses and harkards that remain (about 13 cwt.) are consumed at home. We subjoin those clauses of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 58, which refer to the allowing of a bounty on refined sugar.

Regulations upon the Exportation of Refined Sugar.—So long as the duties which are now payable upon the importation of sugar until the 25th of April, 1834, shall be continued, there shall be allowed upon the exportation of refined sugar made in the United Kingdom the several bounties set forth in the Table herein-after contained; (that is to say)

Refined sugar, viz.—	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Double refined sugar, or refined loaf sugar broken in pieces, or being crushed or powdered sugar, or such sugar as may be used for confectionery, or for the manufacture of sugar candy, or for any other purpose, when exported in a British ship, for every cwt.	1 4 0	1 10 0
When exported in a ship not British, for every cwt.	1 8 0	1 15 0
When refined sugar in loaf, crushed, and white, or in pieces, or in any other form, is exported in a British ship, having been perfectly clarified and then roughly dried in the stove, and being of a uniform whiteness throughout, or such sugar powdered, crushed, or broken, and sugar candy,		1 10 0
When exported in a British ship, for every cwt.		1 15 0
When exported in a ship not British, for every cwt.		1 15 0
Double refined sugar, and sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, additional bounty for every cwt. 0 8 4		0 8 4

Sugar from the Mauritius
the same duty as West India

may be taken, at an average of 100 lbs. a cwt. as a necessary of life costing 10s. a cwt. and the consumption, and consequently to 10s. or 15s. This may be invariably followed every fall by a crop of brown or muscovado sugar, 2,040,741 cwt. retained for home use, and the average quantity of the 3 years ending with 1888, for home consumption will be 1,000,000 cwt. The quantity consumed during the same, in those 3 periods, directly as the price, the retailer, and there would, consequently, have much effect; and if it were taken place is to be sacrificed from 37s. to 34s., it had been a great influence; and would certainly have a powerful effect, particularly in the quantity sent to the Continent, and it would have been quadrupled. Denied; and the proportion which it augmented. The consumption of sugar is used in this country, that is, it has increased from 100,000 to 1,000,000 lbs. has about doubled, and there are baked fruits, &c. Instead of the increase of the population, it has not been some powerful count-

Bond to be given for the due Exportation.—The exporter of goods in respect of which any bounty is claimed under this act, or the person in whose name the same are entered outwards, shall, at the time of entry and before cocks, be granted, give security by bond in double the value of the goods, with a sufficient surety, that the same shall be duly exported to the place for which they are entered, or be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs, and shall not be re-landed in the United Kingdom, or landed in the Isle of Man, unless expressly entered to be exported there.

Candy in Packages of ½ Cwt.—No bounty shall be given upon the exportation of any refined sugar called candy, unless it be properly refined and manufactured, and free from dirt and acids, and packed in packages, each of which shall contain ½ cwt. of such candy at the least.—4.

Sugar crushed for Exportation.—If any sugar in lumps or loaves is to be pounded, crushed, or broken before the same be exported, for the bounty payable thereon, such lumps or loaves shall, after due entry thereof, be lodged in some warehouse provided by the exporter, and proved by the commissioners of the customs for such purpose, to be then first examined by the officers of customs while in such lumps or loaves, as if for immediate shipment, and afterwards to be there pounded, crushed, or broken, and packed for exportation, in the presence of such officers and at the expense of the exporter; and such sugar shall be kept in such warehouse, and be removed thence for shipment, and be shipped under the care and in the charge of the searchers, that the shipment and exportation thereof may be duly certified by them, upon the debenture, according to the quality ascertained by them of the same while in such lumps or loaves.—5.

Different Sorts of washed Sugar to be kept separate.—The different sorts of such sugar shall be kept apart from each other in such manner and in such distinct rooms or divisions of such warehouse as shall be directed and appointed by the commissioners of the customs; and if any sort of such sugar shall be found in any part of such warehouse appointed for the keeping of sugar of a sort superior in quality thereto; the same shall be forfeited; and if any sort of such sugar shall be brought to such warehouse to be pounded, crushed, or broken, which shall be of a quality inferior to the sort of sugar expressed in the entry for the same, such sugar shall be forfeited.—6.

Sugar Refiners to provide Sample Loaves of Double Refined Sugar.—There shall be provided by and at the expense of the committee of sugar refiners in London, and by and at the expense of the committee of merchants in Dublin, as many loaves of double refined sugar, prepared in manner hereinafter directed, as the commissioners of customs shall think necessary; which loaves, when approved of by the said commissioners, shall be deemed and taken to be standard samples; 1 of which loaves shall be lodged with the said committees respectively, and 1 other with such person or persons as the said commissioners shall direct, for the purpose of comparing therewith double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, entered for exportation for the bounty; and fresh standard samples shall be again furnished by such committees, whenever it may be deemed expedient by the commissioners: provided always, that no loaf of sugar shall be deemed to be a proper sample loaf of double refined sugar, if it be of greater weight than 14 lbs., nor unless it be a loaf complete and whole, nor unless the same shall have been made by a distinct second process of refinement from a quantity of single refined sugar, every part of which had first been perfectly clarified and duly refined, and had been made into loaves or lumps, which were of a uniform whiteness throughout, and had been thoroughly dried in the stove.—7.

Sugar entered not equal to the Standard shall be forfeited.—In case any sugar which shall be entered in order to obtain the bounty on double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, shall, on examination by the proper officer, be found to be of a quality not equal to such standard sample, all sugar so entered shall be forfeited and may be seized.—8.

Refining in Bond.—If any further proof, in addition to what has been stated above, were required to show that the trade of refining in this country has been at all times mainly dependent on the bounty, it would be found in the circumstances that have occurred under the late act authorizing refining in bond. In 1828, 1829, 1830, and down to July, 1831, foreign sugars were allowed to be refined on the same terms as British sugars—that is, they paid the same duty and were entitled to the same drawback. The quantity of foreign sugar so refined amounted, in 1830, to 2,105 tons, and in the first half of 1831, when the privilege ceased, to about 4,500 tons. The renewal of this system was strongly advocated in 1831 and 1833; but it was successfully opposed by the West India merchants, who considered the scheme injurious to their interests. Last year (1833), however, the refiners having pressed upon parliament the expediency of allowing them to refine foreign sugars in bond, which excluded, of course, the possibility of the revenue losing any thing by the drawback exceeding the duty, their request was complied with. The result, however, has shown that the trade had formerly been mainly artificial, or that it had depended principally on the drawback being above the duty. Out of 65 houses in London, 4 only have availed themselves of the permission to refine in bond; and of these 4, 3 are now about to give up working; and the total quantity that has been used is 100 tons Siam, 100 tons Havana, and 470 tons Brazil: in all, but 670 tons. A statement has, also, been recently put forth, which shows that, notwithstanding the aid of a bounty, the export had declined from 611,000 cwt. in 1818, to 344,000 in 1828; and although it has since fluctuated between these quantities, it has amounted during the first 3 quarters of the present year (1833) to 195,271 cwt. only, against 289,479 cwt. in the same period of the last year, and 482,222 cwt. in the preceding one, notwithstanding there has been abundance of foreign sugar to be had at low prices, and the powers of chemical science have been at work to improve the process of refining.—(Cobden's *Commerce of Great Britain* for 1833.)

This unfavourable state of things is owing, not to the concurrence of causes; but principally, we believe, to the exaggerated opinions entertained by most foreign nations as to the importance of the sugar refining business. We have no wish, certainly, to undervalue it; but every unprejudiced person must admit that, compared with most other businesses carried on in a great country, it is of very inferior consideration. Instead, however, of regarding it in this point of view, most foreign governments seem to look upon it as of the highest value; and have endeavoured to extend the business, not merely by excluding foreign refined sugars from their markets, but by granting the most lavish bounties on the exportation of sugar refined at home. In France, this sort of policy, if we may so call it, was carried so far, that out of a gross revenue of about 40,000,000 francs (1,570,000*l.*) paid into the treasury on account of the sugar duties in 1832, about 19,000,000 (760,000*l.*) were returned as drawback on the export of refined sugar! As the French government could not afford to lose the sugar duties, which would very speedily have been swallowed up by the drawback, necessarily has compelled them to modify their system, by making the allowance to the exporter more nearly correspond with the duty. This will, no doubt, diminish the exportation of refined sugar from France; a change by which it is reasonable to suppose our refiners will in some degree be benefited.

Prussia, and most parts of Germany, to which we formerly exported large quantities of refined sugar, no longer admit it except at a high duty. And even in those Continental markets that are still open for its importation under moderate duties, we have formidable competitors in the Dutch and Belgian refiners, whose governments continue to allow pretty high bounties.

On the whole, therefore, we are afraid that the refining business in this country is in a rather precarious state. Improvements in the process seem to be the only notice of relief to which the refiners need look with much hope of advantage. The idea of attempting to bolster up the business by the aid of bounties is not one that can be any longer entertained.

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Vol. II

We join the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61., allowing sugar to be refined in bond.
Act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61., FOR ADMITTING SUGAR TO BE REFINED FOR EXPORTATION WITHOUT PAYMENT OF DUTY.

Commissioners of Customs may approve Premises for Bonded Sugar Houses.—Upon application to the commissioners of customs of any person actually carrying on the business of a sugar refiner in the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Greenock, or Glasgow, or any other port approved by any 3 Lords of the Treasury, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to approve of such premises as bonded sugar houses for the refining of sugar for exportation only, on it being made appear to the satisfaction of said commissioners that the said premises are fit in every respect for receiving such sugars, and wherein the same may be safely deposited.—2 1.

Officers of Customs empowered to deliver Sugars Duty-free, to be there refined for Exportation only.—On the approval of any premises as bonded sugar houses, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at the ports where such premises are situated, to deliver, without payment of duty, to the party so applying as aforesaid, on entry with the proper officer of customs, any quantity of foreign sugar, or sugar the produce of any British possession, for the purpose of being there refined, under the locks of the Crown, for exportation only; and all sugars so delivered shall be lodged and secured in such premises, under such conditions, regulations, and restrictions as the said commissioners shall from time to time direct: provided, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners to revoke or alter any order of approval of any such premises.—2 2.

Refiner to give Bond that Sugar received be refined and exported, or delivered into Bonded Warehouse.—Upon the entry of sugar to be refined in any premises approved of under the authority of this act, the refiner on whose premises the same is to be refined shall give bond, to the satisfaction of the officers of the customs, in the penalty of double the amount of the duty payable upon a like quantity of sugar of the British plantations, with a condition that the whole of such sugar shall be actually subjected to the process of refinement upon the said premises, and that within 4 months from the date of such bond the whole of the refined sugar and treacle produced by such process shall be either duly exported from the said premises, or delivered into an approved bonded warehouse, under the locks of the crown, for the purpose of being eventually exported to foreign parts.—2 3.

Regulations as to Importation, &c. of Sugar.—No allowance to be made for damage or increase of weight by water, on sugars; unless special permission.
 Duty on British plantation sugar:—
 Under 1 cwt. — 14 per cent.
 1 cwt. and under 12 — 1 cwt. each cask.
 12 — 16 — 1 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. each cask.
 16 — 17 — 1 — 3 0
 17 and upwards — 1 — 3 0

Certificates of Growth are required before any sugar can be entered as the produce of a British possession in America, or of the Mauritius; and before it can be entered as the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter.—(See the clauses in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 62. ante, p. 5.)

BETTER BEET SUGAR.—The manufacture of sugar from beet root is carried on to a very considerable extent in several parts of the Continent, particularly in France, where the annual produce of the sugar from this source may at present be estimated at about 8,000 tons. This branch of industry began during the exclusion of colonial products from France in the reign of Napoleon. It received a severe check at the return of peace, by the admission of West India sugars at a reasonable duty: and would, it is most probable, have been entirely extinguished, but for the oppressive additions made to the duties on colonial sugars in 1820 and 1822. It is opposed by some, that at no distant period the manufacture of sugar from beet root will be so much improved, that it may be able to stand a competition with colonial sugar at the same duty; but we have no idea that this supposition will ever be realised. It is of importance, however, to bear in mind, that were the culture of beet root sugar to be extensively carried on at home, it would be quite impossible to collect a duty upon it; so that the large amount of revenue that may be advantageously derived from a moderate duty on imported sugar, would be almost entirely lost.—(For an account of the beet root cultivation in France, see the article on the *French Commercial System*, in the *Edinburgh Review*, No. 99.)

We understand that a few small parcels of beet root sugar have recently been produced in this country; and with the present enormous duty on colonial sugar, we are not sure that the manufacture may not succeed. But, as the preservation of the revenue from sugar is of infinitely more importance than the introduction of this spurious business, the foundations of which must entirely rest on the miserable machinery of Custom-house regulations, sound policy would seem to dictate that the precedent established in the case of tobacco should be followed in this instance, and that the beet root sugar manufacture should be abolished. Inasmuch, too, as it is better to check an evil at the outset, than to grapple with it afterwards, we trust that no time may be lost in taking vigorous measures, should there be any appearance of the business extending.

MAPLE SUGAR.—A species of maple (*Acer saccharinum* Lin.) yields a considerable quantity of sugar. It grows plentifully in the United States and in Canada; and in some districts furnishes the inhabitants with most of the sugar they make use of. Though inferior both in gain and strength to that which is produced from the cane, maple sugar granulates better than that of the beet root, or any other vegetable, the cane excepted. It is produced from the sap, which is obtained by perforating the tree in the spring, to the depth of about 2 inches, and setting a vessel for its reception. The quantity afforded varies with the tree and the season. From 2 to 3 gallons may be about the daily average yield of a single tree; but some trees have yielded more than 20 gallons in a day, and others not more than a pint. The process of boiling the juice does not differ materially from what is followed with the cane juices in the West Indies. It is necessary that it should be boiled as soon after it is drawn from the tree as possible. If it be allowed to stand above 24 hours, it is apt to undergo the vinous and acetous fermentation, by which its saccharine quality is destroyed.—(*Bouchette's British America*, vol. i. p. 371, *Timber Trees and Fruits*; *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*.)

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Prices of Sugar.—The following statement of the prices of sugar in the London market, on the 19th of December, 1884, is taken from *Prince's Price Current* of that date:—

Sugar.	Price per Cwt.		Duty per Cwt.	Sugar.	Price per Cwt.		Duty per Cwt.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.			L. s. d.	L. s. d.	
Raw.				Raw.			
W. I. Jamaica, good and fine	2 3 0	to 2 8 0	1 4 0	East India—southwest.			
St. Vincent, good and fine	2 18 0	to 2 8 0	—	Bengal, yel. & med. white	0 18 0	to 1 10 0	1 14 0
St. Kitts, middling	2 10 0	to 2 17 0	—	Java, white	1 1 0	to 1 10 0	—
Dominica, fine	2 1 0	to 2 4 6	—	Manilla	1 1 0	to 1 10 0	—
Trinidad, middling	2 16 0	to 2 17 0	—	Java	1 1 0	to 1 13 0	—
Tobago, good brown	2 6 0	to 2 12 0	—	Madras single, large leaves	0 10 0	to 0 9 0	Shewby No. 1
St. Lucia, brown	2 12 0	to 2 12 4	—	small ditto	0 10 0	to 0 9 0	Shewby No. 2
Burbon, fine	2 5 0	to 2 6 0	—	single leaves	0 11 0	to 0 10 0	Shewby No. 3
middling	2 5 0	to 2 4 8	—	twelve ditto	0 11 0	to 0 10 0	Shewby No. 4
Mauritius, brown	2 4 0	to 2 10 0	—	French double leaves	0 11 0	to 0 10 0	Double No. 1
yellow	2 10 0	to 2 8 0	—	Hamburg ditto	0 10 0	to 0 9 0	Double No. 2
fine	2 5 0	to 2 8 0	—	Prussian (single)	0 10 0	to 0 9 0	Double No. 3
Havana, white	2 0 0	to 2 0 0	2 5 0	crushed (no board)	0 12 0	to 0 11 0	Double No. 4
brown and yellow	1 7 0	to 1 10 0	—	Dutch, crushed	0 14 0	to 0 14 0	Double No. 5
Brazil, white	1 8 0	to 1 15 0	—	Barbados, green	0 18 0	to 0 18 0	Double No. 6
brown and yellow	1 9 0	to 1 7 0	—	Madras, British	1 7 0	to 1 7 0	Double No. 7
East India.				Patent	1 7 0	to 1 7 0	Double No. 8
Bengal, good and fine white	1 11 0	to 1 14 0	1 14 0	B. P. West India	1 7 0	to 1 7 0	Duty No.

ACCOUNTS OF SALES OF SUGAR.—Subjoined are *pro forma* accounts of sales of sugar from Jamaica, Brazil, Bengal, Mauritius, &c. These accounts are interesting, inasmuch as they exhibit the various charges affecting this necessary article, from the time it is shipped in the colonies till it finds its way into the hands of the grocer; and our readers may rely on their authenticity. It will be observed, that the duties are very much greater than the sums received by the planters.

Pro Forma Sales of 100 Hogsheads Jamaica Sugar, per "Jean," Captain Yates, by Order and for Account of Thomas & Co.

1884.	100 hhd. (weighing each 14 cwt. Cust. gr. lbs. 1,400 0 0)	Average market rate	Cust. gr. lbs. 1 3 9 each	L. s. d.
Feb. 18.	151 8 4 tare and draft.	Draft	0 0 2	
	1,248 0 24 nett		at 11. 10s. per cwt.	2,805 0 0
		Charges.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
	Warehousing entry		0 4 0	0 4 0
	Sea insurance, valuing at 20% per hhd. 8s. per cent. on 2,000L.		60 0 0	60 0 0
	Policy 5s. per cent., 6s. Commission 1-2 per cent., 10.		15 0 0	15 0 0
	Insurance from fire, 3 months, at 2s. 3d. per cent. on 2,000L.			65 0 0
	Customs duty on 1,350 cwt. at 2s. per cwt. and entries			3 5 0
	Freight on 1,350 cwt., at 4s. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.		281 5 0	1,408 0 0
	Primage at 6d. each, 2s. 10s. Storage at 4 1/2d., 1s. 17s. 6d.		4 7 8	
	Consolidated rate on 1,350 cwt. at 2s. per cwt. 0			285 12 8
	Laying over at 6d. each			41 15 4
	Interest on freight, 35 days, 14s. 8d.; on duty, 70 days, 11s. 10s. 3d.; on charges, 70 days, 8s. 4d.			9 11 8
	Brokerage 1-2 per cent.			19 12 0
	Del. orders 1 per cent.			54 15 0
	Commission 2 1-2 per cent.			97 7 8
				2,850 12 8
		Errors excepted.	Cash, 24 of May	L. 1,441 2 8

London, 26th of February, 1884.
 * This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 6d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

Pro Forma Sales of 100 Chests Bahia Sugar, per "Mary," Captain Smith, by Order and for Account of William Henry & Co.

1884.	Average weight of each chest about 16 cwt. gross. Revenue term 12 per cent., and draft 5 lbs. per chest, allowed to buyers.	Cust. gr. lbs. 260 0 0 gross. 0 5 4 draft.	L. s. d.	
Feb. 18.	30 chests white			
	30 do. yellow			
	34 do. brown			
	100 chests			
	227 1 24	267 1 24	629 0 0	
	81 0 24	61 0 24	500 10 0	
	406 1 0 nett	406 1 0 nett	400 11 0	
			1,678 10 0	
		Discount 2 1-2 per cent.	41 12 8	
			1,636 10 0	
		Charges.	L. s. d.	
	Warehousing entry		0 4 0	
	Sea insurance on 1,700L. at 7s. 6d. per cent.		40 7 6	
	Policy 5s. per cent., 4s. Commission 1-2 per cent., 10s.		12 15 0	
	Insurance from fire on 1,700L. at 2s. 3d. per cent.		53 0 0	
	Freight on 1,400 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. at 2s. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.		245 0 11	
	Primage 5s. per cent., 12s. 6s. Storage at 0 1/2d. per ton, 1s. 6s. 6d.		12 5 6	
	Consolidated rate on 1,400 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. at 7d. per cwt. 0		250 8 4	
	Laying over at 6d. each		40 18 10	
	Interest on freight, 35 days, 14s. 1d.; on each charge, 35 days, 8s. 4d.		0 18 4	
	Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of rooms, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		3 1 8	
	Brokerage 1 per cent.		16 15 0	
	Commission, 2 1-2 per cent.		41 19 0	
			419 11 0	
		Errors excepted.	Cash, 22d of March	L. 1,217 2 4

London, 26th of February, 1884.
 * This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 6d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

(*State of the Sugar Trade.*—The sugar trade is at this moment in a very singular and perplexing state. In consequence of the efforts made by the abolitionists in this country, the apprenticeship system, which was to have continued till 1840, ceased in August last (1838); and the blacks in the different sugar islands belonging to Great Britain are now as free, and as much entitled to the free disposal of their labour, as the workmen in England. It would be premature to speculate as to the ultimate influence of this great change. Even as respects the present state of the islands, the accounts are contradictory, and little to be relied on. Certainly, however, we have little doubt, whatever may be the result in the long run, that in the first instance the emancipation of the blacks will be productive of a great decline in the growth and exportation of sugar. It would, indeed, be extraordinary were it otherwise. Labour in sugar plantations has hitherto been associated in the minds of the blacks with all that is most revolting to the feelings; and it is not rational to suppose, now that they are free, that they should apply themselves to what has been the badge and test of their degradation, with the energy that the lash used formerly to inspire. It should further be recollected, that the wants of the blacks are comparatively few, and that they may be partially or fully met by labouring on grounds where sugar is not raised, and where the work is much lighter. The circumstances now stated may not, indeed, have the influence that one should naturally expect; and they may be partially counterbalanced by others. But after every abatement, our conviction is, that a very great falling-off may be anticipated. It will be seen from the subjoined account, that the export of sugar from Jamaica has declined from 1,556,991 cwt. in 1833, to 903,933 cwt. in 1837! And taking the entire produce of the West Indian colonies, and of the Mauritius, in 1838, at 180,000 tons, Mr. Cook estimates the probable deficiency in the supply of the current year at no less than 30,000 tons.

The equalisation of the duties on East and West India sugars judiciously effected by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 26., has, by occasioning a considerably increased exportation of East India sugar, contributed in so far to counteract the influence of the decreasing imports from the West Indies. But it is doubtful whether this resource will be sufficient under the new state of things, and whether it will not be necessary to open our ports to the importation of foreign sugars, under such regulations as may appear to be necessary to secure the rights and interests of all parties. We believe that such a measure would be of signal importance, and that it would not merely contribute to reduce the cost of one of the principal necessities of life, but would greatly extend our trade with Brazil, and other countries rapidly rising in commercial importance, sugar being the principal article they have to offer in exchange for foreign products.

An Account of the Sugars imported into the United Kingdom from the Colonies and Settlements in the West Indies and the Mauritius during the Four Years ending with 1837: distinguishing each Year, and each Colony or Settlement.

Colonies and Settlements.	Plantation Sugar imported into the United Kingdom.				
	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>cwt.</i>
Antigua - - - -	129,519	257,178	174,918	135,482	62,170
Barbadoes - - - -	384,971	394,527	344,699	373,423	445,713
Dominica - - - -	47,372	54,876	25,014	35,213	33,721
Grenada - - - -	301,074	194,542	170,280	156,310	161,922
Jamaica - - - -	1,556,991	1,256,353	1,148,760	1,054,042	903,933
Montserrat - - - -	15,347	26,630	12,322	12,152	5,683
Nevis - - - -	42,337	59,748	39,637	33,093	24,369
St. Christopher - - - -	80,300	105,355	80,754	61,418	73,270
St. Lucia - - - -	46,548	63,306	64,732	88,085	51,420
St. Vincent - - - -	194,889	213,016	195,057	186,482	201,191
Tobago - - - -	56,527	79,019	77,260	117,643	90,802
Tortola - - - -	14,969	21,926	13,821	13,510	13,534
Trinidad - - - -	386,301	350,615	289,392	312,141	325,387
Dem. rara - - - -	752,474	685,568	760,376	854,134	792,852
Berbice - - - -	101,736	90,699	121,465	213,714	150,536
Mauritius - - - -	516,077	553,890	558,237	497,302	537,455
Total - - - -	4,168,573	4,397,145	4,061,575	4,697,084	3,843,863

The Imports of East India Sugar increased from 374,306 cwt. in 1837, to 609,979 cwt. in 1838. Account of Sugar entered for Home Consumption in the Year ending the 5th of January, 1840; with the Amount of Duty received thereon.

Sugar of the British Possessions in America Mauritius British Possessions in the East Indies of all other Sorts	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.		Gross Amount of Duty received.
	Cwt.	lb.	
	2,790,284	489,346	£ 3,247,286
	418,002	80	575,681
Total	3,208,286	569,426	£ 3,822,967
Deduct payments out of the gross receipt on account of bounty paid on the exports of refined sugar, also, payments for damaged, and overcharged duty on sugar, &c.			41,445
Gross Receipt on Sugar			£ 4,835,355
Nett Receipt on do.			4,596,910

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The consumption of sugar is rapidly increasing on the continent and in America. But the increase in the former is to a great extent met by the culture of beet-root sugar. The entire consumption of sugar in France is estimated to amount at present to 120,000 tons; but of this amount no fewer than 80,000 tons are said to have been supplied in 1838 by the beet-root plantations. In 1833, beet-root sugar did not exceed 10,000 or 12,000 tons; and the remaining increase in the interval has been owing to the circumstance of colonial sugar having been loaded in France with a duty of about 18s. a cwt.; whereas, till last year, beet-root sugar was exempted from all duty. It now, however, pays a duty of 9s. a cwt.; and it remains to be seen whether it will continue to advance under this duty, which still leaves it in a very advantageous situation as compared with colonial sugar; if it do, the manufacture may be looked upon as firmly established, and able to maintain its ground against the competition of the French colonists.

But the production of beet-root sugar is not confined to France. On the contrary, it is rapidly extending in Belgium, Germany, Prussia, and even Russia. Nor is this to be wondered at, as it everywhere enjoys an exemption from duty; and comes into competition with a foreign article loaded with a heavy duty. But were the sugars of Cuba, Brazil, and Java allowed to come into the continental markets on the same terms as beet-root sugar, we are inclined to think that we should not hear much more of the progress of the latter.

The consumption of sugar in America, Australia, and, indeed, in all civilized countries, and in all countries emerging from barbarism, is augmenting every day. But, independent even of the novel and important resource of beet-root sugar, the production of the article is extending so very rapidly in Brazil, Cuba, Java, the Philippines, &c., that there is no reason to fear any great increase of price, even though the worst anticipations should be realised as to its production in the British West Indies.—(Sup.)

[What follows is extracted from a memorial of the Legislature of Louisiana to Congress, in 1840. It will be found to contain an interesting account of the condition of the sugar-growing interest of the United States.]

That from 1816 to 1828 the annual production increased from 15,000 hhd. of 1,000 to 45,000 hhd. That in 1828, the capital invested and the power used, in this branch of industry, was estimated as follows:

38 estates, - - - - - \$34,000,000 | Animal power, about - 12,000 horses and oxen.
Manual power, about - - - 21,000 hands. | Mechanical, about - 1,640 horse power.
That from 1828 to 1830, 363 new estates were undertaken, which required a further outlay of about \$10,000,000; making a total outlay for 391 estates of about \$50,000,000.

That under the tariff of 1816, Louisiana was already supplying one half of the sugars required for the consumption of the United States, and was bidding fair soon to meet the entire consumption.

That before these 363 estates could be brought into full operation, the tariff of 1834 was adopted; that 155 estates have already been compelled to abandon their sugar works, under the effect of this act; that its further action cannot fail to annihilate this important branch of national industry.

That the sugar estates yet in operation, number 525.
That the power used thereupon is estimated as follows:
Manual, about - - - 40,000 hands. | Mechanical - - - - 10,000 horses.

That the annual expenses of a well-regulated plantation are computed at \$50 per hand.
That these estates, with their increased machinery, have required, at a low valuation, a cash investment of at least \$52,000,000.

That the annual average crops do not exceed 70,000 hhd. or 70 millions of pounds of sugar, and 25,000 gallons of molasses.

That the product of such a crop, at 6 cents for sugar and 20 cents for molasses, would be \$4,900,000.
That deducting expenses therefrom, say \$50 per hand, \$2,000,000.

There would remain nett, \$2,900,000, or 5 57-100 per cent. on the capital invested.
That the nett product of the same crop, at 5 1/2 cents, and 18, would be \$2,480,000, or 4 76-100 per cent.

That the nett product, at 5 and 17, would be \$2,095,000, or 4 per cent.
That the nett product, at 4 and 18, would be \$1,460,000, or about 2 50-100 per cent.

From which it is evident that Louisiana, with its uncertain climate and expensive operations, cannot produce sugar under 5 1/2 cents; while in the West India Islands, with their genial climate and cheap operations, muscovadoes can be produced, so as to yield a fair remuneration, at 2 1/2 a 3 cents.

That under these circumstances the enormous investments of capital in the cultivation of sugar since 1816, would not have taken place, had not a continuation of the revenue tax, then laid upon foreign sugar, been implicitly relied upon.

That during the last 10 years, prices in Havanna, for muscovadoes, have ruled as follows:

April,	1830	6 a 3	reals per arroba,	3 a 4	cents.
—	1831	5 a 0	—	2 a 3	—
—	1832	6 1/2 a 7 1/2	—	2 a 3	—
—	1833	4 1/2 a 6	—	2 37-7 a 3	—
—	1834	5 1/2 a 7 1/2	—	2 87-7 a 3 1/2	—
—	1835	8 a 9 1/2	—	4 a 4 62-7	—
—	1836	12 1/2 a 14	—	6 1/2 a 7	—
—	1837	5 a 6	—	2 1/2 a 4	—
—	1838	7 a 8 1/2	—	3 1/2 a 4 1/2	—
—	1839	6 1/2 a 8	—	2 1/2 a 4	—

That owing to an early winter, the crop of Louisiana for 1835-6 was reduced to 25,000 hhd., and prices advanced to 11 cents.

That the crop of the West India Islands and Cuba had been at that period as large as usual; that yet muscovadoes advanced in Havanna to 6 1/2 a 7 cents, or nearly cent. per cent. That the Louisiana crop for 1836 and '37 was an average one, and prices receded in Havanna to 3 1/2 a 4 cents, and in New Orleans to 5 1/2 a 6 cents.—(Am. Ed.)

* The French government recently published a very complete and useful work on the colonies of France, entitled *Notices Statistiques sur les Colonies Françaises*. 2 tomes, 8vo. Paris, 1837.

† For further particulars respecting the sugar trade, the reader is referred to the able statement recently issued by Mr. Cook, of Milning Lane.

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Colonies and Settlements in
1837: distinguishing each

United Kingdom.	
1836.	1837.
cwt.	cwt.
135,482	62,170
373,488	445,713
25,213	32,721
156,310	181,922
1,054,042	903,333
13,152	5,695
32,028	24,569
61,416	73,279
35,083	51,658
186,482	201,191
117,043	90,292
13,510	13,534
312,141	205,367
864,134	792,832
213,714	150,536
497,302	557,453
4,697,064	3,848,563

609,979 cwt. in 1835.
th of January, 1840; with

Year for importation.	Gross Amount of Duty received.
34	£ 3,347,256
35	3,071,228
36	573,811
37	180
38	4,625,355
	41,448
4,825,355	
4,558,310	

to a want of attention at first, the streets of Sydney were laid out and the houses built, according to the views of individuals, without any fixed or regular plan. But latterly this defect has been to a considerable degree remedied in the old streets; and the new ones are systematically laid out. The town covers a great extent of land; almost every house having a considerable piece of ground attached to it. There are different joint stock banks at Sydney; and there is also a savings' bank. Schools for the instruction of poor children have been established; and there are, besides, two establishments dignified with the pompous title of colleges, numerous seminaries, some of them said to be very well conducted, for the education of the middle and upper classes. There are several periodical publications.

Population, &c.—The British settlements in New South Wales were originally intended to serve penal establishments, to which convicts might be transported, and employed in public and private works; and are still used for this purpose. The first vessel with convicts arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788; but it having been found to be quite unsuitable as a site for a colony, the establishment was removed to Port Jackson. The progress of the colony has been much more rapid than might have been anticipated, considering the character and habits of the convicts annually landed upon its shores, the difficulties which the great distance from England interposes in the way of an emigration of voluntary settlers, and the inferiority of the soil. Owing to the circumstances of the great majority of the convicts and other emigrants being males, a great disproportion has always existed between the sexes in the colony, which has materially retarded its progress, and been, in other respects, productive of very pernicious results. Government, however, availing itself of the assistance of benevolent individuals at home, and in the colony, has within these few years endeavoured to lessen the disproportion referred to, by sending out considerable numbers of young unmarried females, free of expense. Much, it was obvious, of the influence of this measure, would depend on the discrimination with which the female emigrants were selected; and various precautions were taken by the regulation of committees, and otherwise, to exclude from amongst them all whose character was found not to be in any degree suspicious. It was not, however, to be expected that these precautions should be completely successful; and the most conflicting accounts have been received as to the conduct of the females on their landing, and the influence of their immigration on the colony. There can be no question, indeed, that the latter has, in many respects, fallen short of the anticipations of its promoters; and that, whether from want of due care in the selection, or from the force of circumstances, many of the emigrants have fallen into vicious courses. On the whole, however, we have no doubt that the measure has been decidedly advantageous; and that it will tend both to increase the population, and to improve the morals of the colony.

According to a census taken on the 2d of September, 1833, the population of the colony, exclusive of aborigines, was as follows:—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Free	82,799	18,448	101,247
Bond	81,948	2,606	84,554
	164,747	21,054	185,801

At the above date, the population of Sydney amounted to 16,333, and that of Parramatta to 4,537.

The immigration into the colony from the 1st of January, 1832, to the 31st of December, 1833, has been,

	1832.	1833.	1834.	1836.
Free	819	636	571	411
Women	706	1,146	556	610
Children	481	701	377	311
Men	2,857	3,658	3,704	3,483
Convicts	361	686	471	179
Total	5,274	6,811	4,785	5,154

The total population of the colony, on the 31st of December, 1833, was estimated at 90,000.

Climate.—The climate of such parts of New South Wales as have been explored by the English is particularly mild and salubrious. The high summer heat indicated by the thermometer has not the relaxing and enfeebling effect that a similar high temperature has in India and many other countries. Fearless of damps, and unmolested by noxious insects, the traveller may throw himself under the shade of the first tree that invites him to repose in safety. On the other hand, however, the climate has the serious defect of being too dry. It seems to be subject to the periodical recurrence of severe droughts. These prevail sometimes for 2, 3, or even 4 years together. The last "great drought" began in 1826, and did not terminate till 1829. Very little rain fell during the whole of this lengthened period, and for more than 6 months there was not a single shower! In consequence, the whole surface of the ground was so parched and withered, that all minor vegetation ceased; and even culinary vegetables were raised with much difficulty. It well nigh ruined many of the settlers; nor is the colony as yet quite recovered from its effects.—(Breton's Excursions in New South Wales, p. 336.) *Sturt's Southern Australia*, vol. 1, p. 2.) There was, also, a pretty severe drought in 1825. This, in fact, the great drawback upon the colony; and were it more populous, the droughts would expose it to still more serious difficulties.

Soil, Products, &c.—The fertility of the soil in most parts of New Holland that have been explored with any care is very far, indeed, from corresponding with the glowing descriptions of some of its casual visitors, whose imaginations seem to have been dazzled by the magnificence of its botanical productions, and the clearness and beauty of the climate. The truth is, that the bad land seems to bear a much greater proportion to the good in New Holland, than in almost any other country with which we are acquainted. Different theories have been framed to account for the fact; but the fact itself there seems no manner of doubt. Of course, it is not to be supposed but that in a country of such vast extent there must be some fertile districts; but along the east coast, with which we are best acquainted, these seem to be much more confined than might have been expected; and the little experience we have had on the west side, at Swan River and other places, does not seem to lead to any more favourable conclusions. It is true that only a comparatively small part of the interior has as yet been explored; and it is not improbable that in the hitherto undiscovered regions of this vast continent, land suitable for tillage may be found. At present, however, it would appear that the soil and climate, not of New South Wales only, but of New Holland generally, are much better fitted for pastoral than for agricultural pursuits. The colony is mainly indebted for the introduction of the sheep farming system to the example and exertions of John Macarthur, Esq. Its success has exceeded the expectations of the most sanguine. The growth and exports of wool have increased with a rapidity hitherto unexampled in the history of industry. In 1822, only 152,800 lbs. of wool were exported; in 1825, the exports amounted to 411,600 lbs.; in 1830, to 899,750 lbs.; and in 1835, to no fewer than 3,273,353 lbs.; being an increase of about 600 per cent. in the interval between 1822 and 1835! And considering the attention that is now universally paid to the improvement of the breed of sheep, the efforts made by the colonists to increase their numbers, and the still but boundless extent of pasture land over which they may be diffused, it is impossible to conjecture to what extent the production of wool may be carried. Under these circumstances, we need not wonder that some of the best informed individuals belonging to the colony are of opinion that the inhabitants would equally

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Consumption of Spirits.—We need not be surprised, considering how the population is made up, that drunkenness should be rather prevalent in New South Wales, and the consumption of spirits proportionally great. In 1833 there were entered for consumption in the colony as follows: viz, rum 234,785 proof gallons, brandy 30,438 do., gin 16,397 do., other foreign and British spirits 1,203 do., and spirits produced in the colony, 8,450 do., making in all 301,138 gallons; which, taking the population at 30,000, gives an average annual supply of 8 5/8th gallons to each individual. It has been proposed to lessen this consumption by increasing the customs duties on imported spirits, and prohibiting distillation in the colony. But the former are already high; and it is all but certain that their further an extensive smuggling trade, and be injurious to the revenue without being in other respects of any material service.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in sterling money; but Spanish dollars are most abundant. They pass current at 5s. each. The weights and measures are the same as those of England.

Rate of Agency, Commission, and Warehouse Rent, agreed to at a Meeting of the New South Wales Chamber of Commerce, 1832.

- Commission.**
1. On all sales or purchases of ships and other vessels, houses, or lands, where an advance on them has been made, 2 1/2 per cent.
 2. On all other sales, purchases, or shipments, 5 per cent.
 3. On goods consigned and afterwards withdrawn, or sent to public auction, if no advance on them has been made, 2 1/4 per cent.
 4. On giving orders for the provision of goods, 2 1/2 per cent.
 5. On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, or other engagements, 2 1/2 per cent.
 6. On the management of estates for others, 5 per cent.
 7. On procuring freight or charter, and on freight collected, 5 per cent.
 8. On insurances effected, 1 1/2 per cent.
 9. On settling losses, partial or general, 1 per cent.
 10. On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.

6. On the recovery of money, 2 1/2 per cent. If by law or arbitration, 5 per cent.
10. On collecting house rent, 5 per cent.
11. On attending the delivery of contract goods, 5 per cent.
12. On becoming security for contracts, 5 per cent.
13. On ships' disbursements, 5 per cent.
14. On obtaining money on promissories, 5 per cent.
15. On letters of credit granted, 2 1/2 per cent.
16. On purchasing, selling, receiving from any of the public offices, lodging in ditto, delivering up or exchanging government paper or other public securities, 1 1/2 per cent.
17. On all items on the debit or credit side of an account, on which a commission of 5 per cent. has not been previously charged in the same account, including government paper, 1 per cent.
18. On entering and clearing ships at the Custom house, each 1 guinea.
19. On the discount of foreign bills, exclusive of protest and other law expenses, a re-exchange of 50 per cent.

Warehouse Rent.

On all measurement goods, 1s. per ton of 40 cubic feet, per week. On liquids, 1s. 12d. per ton of 252 gallons (old measure) per week. On sugar, rice, salt, and similar articles, 6d. per ton per week. On grain, 4d. per bushel for first month, 1 1/2d. per bushel per month afterwards.

On iron, lead, &c., 4d. per ton per week.

Duties levied at Sydney under Acts of Parliament.

Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.	Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.
Spirits made or distilled from grain the produce of the colony	5s. per gallon.	Spirits of the plantations in N. America, imported direct from the U. K.	10s. 2 1/2d. per gal.
Ditto from sugar and molasses	10s. 2 1/2d. per do.	All other spirits	10s. 2 1/2d. per do.
Spirits, the produce and manufacture of the U. K., or of the plantations in the W. Indies, imported direct from the U. K.	7s. 6 1/2d.	Tobacco imported manufactured	1s. 6d. per lb.
		Ditto manufactured, and smelt	2s. per lb.
		Foreign goods imported	5 per cent. ad val.

Shipping Charges in Port Jackson, &c.

Pilotage Rates, payable to licensed pilots on ships and vessels from and to a distance of 2 leagues out to sea, into and out of any port or harbour in New South Wales, for which a pilot shall be appointed; vessels registered in Sydney, not exceeding 50 tons, or while

For every vessel drawing	L. s. d.	For every vessel drawing	L. s. d.
7 feet or under	4 0 0	14 feet and under	10 0 0
8 — and under 9 feet	4 5 0	15 — — — — —	15 0 0
9 — — — — —	5 0 0	16 — — — — —	16 0 0
10 — — — — —	5 5 0	17 — — — — —	17 0 0
11 — — — — —	6 0 0	18 — — — — —	18 0 0
12 — — — — —	6 5 0	19 — — — — —	19 0 0

employed in the coasting trade from one part of New South Wales to another, and steam vessels, while so employed, excepted, under the assistance of a pilot be required and received.

For every vessel of	L. s. d.	For every vessel of	L. s. d.
150 tons and under 200 tons	0 5 0	400 tons and under 500 tons	1 5 0
200 — — — — —	0 10 0	500 — — — — —	2 0 0

Harbour Dues and Charges, payable to the harbour master for repairing on board and appointing the place of anchorage of ships and vessels entering any port or harbour in New South Wales; or for the removal of the same from one place of anchorage or mooring

to another, not being for the purpose of leaving the port; vessels registered in Sydney, under 50 tons, or while employed in the coasting trade from one part of New South Wales to another, excepted.

For every vessel under

L. s. d.	For every vessel of	L. s. d.	
100 tons	0 5 0	300 tons	0 16 0
150 — — — — —	0 10 0	400 — — — — —	1 0 0

For every vessel of

L. s. d.	For every vessel of	L. s. d.	
400 tons and under 500 tons	1 5 0	500 — — — — —	2 0 0

Customs Charge payable to the collector or other officer of customs, for the entry inwards, or clearance outwards, of ships and vessels at any port or harbour of New South Wales, where an officer of customs is stationed; vessels under 50 tons, registered in Sydney, excepted; viz.

For every other ship or vessel - - - - - 0 16 0 0 15 0

Entry.	Clearance.
L. s. d.	L. s. d.
For every steam vessel employed in the coasting trade, from one port of New South Wales to another	0 1 3 0 1 8
For every vessel registered in Sydney, and so employed, if above 50 and not exceeding 100 tons	0 4 0 0 4 0
For every vessel so employed, if above 100 tons	0 10 0 0 10 0

For every other ship or vessel, the ton register measurement - - - - - 0 0 2 0 0 4

On every other ship or vessel, the ton register measurement - - - - - 0 0 2

Wharfage Rates, payable to the collector of customs, on articles landed at the King's Wharf, Sydney —

Double and triple tables to be charged proportionally to the above rates. Letters the weight of an ounce to be charged 1/2 times the rate of postage of a single letter.

Postage of Newspapers, printed Press Copy, or other periodical Publications, imported or imported, to be charged 1/2 per cent. at the rate of 1d. for every 4 ounces of their weight.

	L. s. d.
For every	0 0 0
Tun or butt	0 0 0
Pipe or cask	0 1 0
Head	0 0 0
Barrel	0 0 0
Cask or keg of smaller size	0 0 3
Crate, case, or case of hardware, earthenware, or ironmongery	0 0 9
Box, case, or box, not exceeding 1 1/2 ton measurement	0 0 6
Ditto, exceeding 1 1/2 ton	0 1 0
Chest of tea	0 0 3
1 1/2 chest or box of tea	0 0 11 3
Bag of sugar	0 1 1 3
Bag of coffee	0 0 11 3
Package of rice	0 0 11 3
Bag of tobacco	0 0 3
Box of hops	0 1 0
Pocket of hops	0 0 6
Busket of grain	0 0 6
1/2 bush of corn	0 0 2
100 deals	0 0 8
4 staves	0 1 0

Postage of Single Letters from Sydney.

To	L. s. d.
To Parramatta	0 2 4
To Murrumbidgee (Parramatta)	0 7
Windsor	0 7
Liverpool	0 6
Campbell Town	0 7
Newcastle	0 11
Port Macquarie	0 4
Bathurst	0 9

And at corresponding rates from other places.

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Tailors, 6s. to 7s per day.—In demand. Piece-work one-third higher than in England.

Turkeys.—A few might work profitably on their own account. Vine dressers, 10s. to 10s. or upwards per annum, according to qualifications.—Gardeners always in demand. The vine begins to be extensively cultivated, and proper and skillful vine-dressers are likely to find encouragement.

Prices.—A knowledge of the prices of the principal articles of subsistence is as necessary to enable any one to form a correct estimate of the advantages likely to be realised by emigrating, as a knowledge of the wages of labour. Provisions at Sydney are, generally speaking, cheap except in seasons of drought; but as these are unfortunately of frequent recurrence, the labourer is exposed to considerable vicissitudes. We give below an account of the average prices of the principal articles of provision at Sydney during the alternate months of 1835. It must, however, be remembered that that was a season of rather severe drought, which has a powerful influence over prices. In ordinary seasons, butcher's meat, at Sydney, does not exceed from 1d. to 2d. per lb., and bread (loaf of 4 lbs.) 5d.

The prices of the principal articles of provision in the market of Sydney, in January, 1833, a plentiful season, were as follows:—

Articles.	Prices.		Articles.	Prices.	
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.		L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Beef, per lb. per quarter	0 0 4	0 0 3	Game	-	-
Do. joint, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 3	Fresh butter, per lb.	0 0 0	0 0 0
Veal do.	0 0 2	0 0 3	Salt do. do.	0 0 0	0 0 0
Mutton do.	0 0 2	0 0 3	Chesse	0 0 0	0 0 0
Do. carcass	0 0 1	0 0 2	Wheat, per bushel	0 0 4	0 0 0
Fork, joint	0 0 4	0 0 5	Maize	0 0 3	0 0 0
Do. carcass	0 0 1	0 0 2	Barley	0 0 3	0 0 0
Couple of fowls	0 1 2	0 2 3	Oats	0 0 0	0 0 0
Do. of ducks	0 2 0	0 4 0	Hay, per ton, from English seed	8 0 0	0 0 0
Turkey	0 6 0	0 8 2	Do. do. colonial	4 0 0	0 0 0

Rations for Convicts.—The weekly rations of the convicts are 12 lbs. of wheat, or 9 lbs. of flour, or 3 1/2 lbs. of maize and 9 lbs. of wheat, or 7 lbs. of 3d flour; 7 lbs. of beef or mutton, or 4 1/2 lbs. of salt pork; 2 oz. of salt; 2 oz. of soap.

Insurance.—Different joint stock insurance companies have been established at Sydney, for the insurance of ships, houses, and lives. The Australian Marine Insurance Company divided 16 per cent. net profit for the year ending 31st December, 1835. The customary premium on vessels engaged in the whale fishery, is from 8 to 10 guineas for 12 months, or from 8 to 16 guineas for the voyage.

Banking would seem to be one of the most profitable modes in which capital can be invested in New South Wales. Four joint stock banking companies were carrying on business at Sydney in December, 1835. Of these, the bank of New South Wales, established in 1818, is the most ancient. All of them issue notes payable on demand; and their profits vary from 15 to 22 per cent. on the paid up capital. They allow from 4 to 5 per cent. interest on deposits. Subjoined is a state of the affairs of the Bank of New South Wales on the 31st December, 1835:—

Wheelwrights, 5s. to 6s. per day, or 1s. to 2s. per week, and rations.—General workmen always find employment in the colony.

The above embraces all those departments of mechanical and common labour for which there is at present any adequate demand in the colony.

The clothing to which they are entitled consists of 8 frocks or jackets; 2 pair of shoes, of stout and durable leather; 2 shirts; 2 pair of trousers; 1 hat or cap.

Debtor.		Creditor.	
L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Capital paid up	£3,920 0 0	Coin and bullion	£5,159 6 6
Notes out	0 0 29,000 0 0	Bills	182,166 6 7
Deposits	122,008 2 3	Mortgages	2,966 2 1
Profit	8,330 0 6	Charges	3 0 0
Unclaimed div.	214 13 6		
Total	245,601 15 2	Total	245,601 15 2

Dividend 10 1/2 per cent. for the half year, being 21 per cent. per annum.

Average Prices of the undermentioned Articles of Market Produce at Sydney during the Year 1835.

Articles.	January.		March.		May.		July.		September.		November.		December.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Wheat - per bush.	5 10	to 0 0	5 9	to 0 0	5 0	to 0 0	5 0	to 0 0	5 0	to 0 0	5 0	to 0 0	5 0	to 0 0
Maize	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0
Barley	3 6	to 4 6	3 6	to 4 0	3 0	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0
Potatoes - per cwt.	8 0	to 2 0	9 0	to 10 0	11 0	to 18 0	10 0	to 13 0	10 0	to 14 0	16 0	to 20 0	13 0	to 14 0
Butter (fresh) per lb.	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4	1 4	to 1 4
Do. (salt)	1 0	to 0 0	1 0	to 1 2	1 4	to 0 0	1 0	to 1 0	1 2	to 2 3	1 10	to 2 3	1 10	to 2 3
Chesse	0 6	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0	0 5	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0
Bread - 4 lb. loaf	0 7	to 0 0	0 7	to 0 0	0 9	to 0 0	0 7	to 0 0	0 7	to 0 0	1 0	to 1 7	1 1	to 0 0
Beef (joint) per lb.	0 3	to 0 3	0 2	to 0 3	0 3	to 0 0	0 3	to 0 0	0 3	to 0 0	0 5	to 0 0	0 5	to 0 0
Mutton do.	0 3	to 0 4	0 3	to 0 4	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0
Veal do.	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 4	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0
Pork do.	8 0	to 0 0	8 0	to 0 0	0 6	to 0 0	8 0	to 0 0	8 0	to 0 0	8 0	to 0 0	8 0	to 0 0
Hay - per cwt.	8 6	to 10 0	8 6	to 10 0	7 0	to 8 0	8 0	to 11 0	11 0	to 20 0	13 0	to 14 0	12 0	to 14 0
Straw - per load	15 0	to 18 0	15 0	to 18 0	16 0	to 19 0	16 0	to 18 0	20 0	to 25 0	25 0	to 30 0	24 0	to 28 0
Game - each	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 5 0	3 6	to 5 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0	3 6	to 4 0
Ducks	2 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	1 4	to 1 8	1 6	to 2 0	1 8	to 2 3	2 0	to 3 0	2 0	to 3 0
Fowls	1 6	to 2 0	1 6	to 2 0	1 0	to 1 8	1 8	to 0 0	1 6	to 1 8	1 8	to 2 6	2 3	to 0 0
Turkeys	3 6	to 4 0	3 0	to 4 0	4 0	to 5 4	4 0	to 5 6	5 6	to 7 0	6 8	to 7 8	8 0	to 8 0
Eggs	1 0	to 1 2	1 0	to 1 2	1 2	to 2 3	1 10	to 2 3	1 10	to 2 3	1 8	to 2 3	2 0	to 2 3
Tea - per lb.	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0
Coffee	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0	2 0	to 0 0
Sugar (ref)	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0	3 0	to 0 0
Soap (colonial)	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0	0 4	to 0 0
Candles do. mould do.	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0	0 8	to 0 0

Granting of Land in Australia.—We have previously given (vol. i. p. 437.) a copy of the terms on which lands are now granted to emigrants to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. They are not very explicit. All land is to be sold by auction; the minimum or upset price is to be 5s. an acre; and government has a discretionary power of fixing a higher minimum price on superior lots, and of declining to sell them till that price be obtained. Even were there nothing to object to the principle of this plan, if any thing so very vague deserve that name, in its practical operation it can hardly fail to generate every species of abuse. The local government, having the power of limiting the quantity of land to be put up to auction, has it completely in its power to fix its price; for it may either increase the quantity of land so that it shall fetch no more than the upset price, or it may limit it so that it shall fetch any greater sum. Such auctions must in reality be a mere farce; it is not possible that they can be conducted on a fair principle. The price must, in every instance, really depend on the pleasure of the sellers, and not on the competition of the buyers. Supposing the local authorities to be uniformly actuated by the sincerest desire to deal fairly by every one, by what test are they to discover the probable number of offerers at different periods, the amount of their funds, and the intensity of their desire to purchase? And yet

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without knowing all these things, they cannot decide upon the quantity of land to be put up, so as to have any thing like a fair sale. And supposing them to be influenced by the partialities and weaknesses incident to humanity, how easy, when they wish to oblige, will it be for them to increase the number of parcels put up, and conversely! Even when the regulations are *bona fide* carried into effect, the delay that compliance with them necessarily involves is found to be exceedingly injurious. According to the rule originally laid down by government, all parcels of land desired to be put up to sale were to be advertised for *three* months previously to the sale taking place. The period for advertising has now, however, been reduced to *one* month; but, notwithstanding this judicious abbreviation, the delays that have still to be undergone before completing a purchase are loudly and justly complained of. An emigrant, on arriving at New South Wales, has to fix his family at Sydney, where lodgings and living are usually very high. He has then to make inquiries as to the best place for fixing himself; and having at length succeeded in finding a location which he thinks suitable to his views, he applies to have it put up to auction. But here he has most likely to encounter new difficulties. Almost all the land in the vicinity of the settled districts is either occupied on payment of a small rent to government, under leases which determine the moment it is purchased, or by trespass, that is, by *squatting*, or forcible possession. Both classes of occupiers are in general very unwilling to quit; so that the chances are, that, when the sale comes on, the emigrant, unless he retire a great distance into the wilderness, will have powerful competitors to contend with, and may not be able to conclude a purchase; and should such be the case, he has nothing for it but to begin his operations anew! On the whole, we have been assured by undoubted authority that about *five* months may be taken as a fair average of the period that must elapse before an emigrant arriving in New South Wales can complete the purchase of a parcel of land from government; and as he has to keep his family all the while at Sydney, his means are either greatly narrowed or wholly exhausted; so that it not infrequently happens that the small capitalist, who left England in the expectation of becoming a proprietor and wool-grower in New South Wales, finds himself, about a year after, a pauper in the town of Sydney! Hence it is that the existing regulations, the high price demanded for land, and the difficulty of getting a location, have put an almost total stop to the immigration of the most valuable class of persons; that is, of small capitalists. They are by no means so unfavourable to speculators, and persons of large capital; and the former and paupers now constitute the principal part of the free emigrants to the colony.

To obviate the chances of abuse, and the practical difficulties now stated, the better way, as it appears to us, would be to get a *large tract* of country surveyed, and divided into lots, and to fix prices on these according to the estimate formed of their various advantages, assigning them in absolute property to the *first applicant* ready to pay down the price and to conform to the regulations as to occupancy, &c. To prevent persons on the spot monopolising the best lands, it might be enacted that no more than a certain number of acres should be assigned to one individual, and that under the condition of residence or occupancy. We confess, however, that we entertain serious doubts as to the soundness of the principle involved in this plan, even supposing it could be fairly and easily carried into effect; and these doubts have not been in any degree lessened by the extravagant eulogies lavished upon it. It would seem, indeed, to be supposed that all the evils incident to colonisation have resulted from the settlers getting land on too easy terms; and that all that was required for the establishment of a colony on the best possible foundation, was, to sell its land at a high price; in other words, to make it as like an old country as possible! It says little for the public discernment, that opinions of this sort should have obtained any currency. We conclude, indeed, that nothing can be more injurious to a colony than the making of large grants of land to individuals who either do not intend to settle upon them, or are unable to clear and bring any considerable portion of them into cultivation. But because such inconveniences have resulted from the injudicious granting of land, it does not, therefore, follow that it should be sold at a high price, or even at any price at all. In making grants of land, regard ought to be always had to the means and the intentions of the grantee; that is, the grant should depend partly on the probable amount of his available capital, and partly on the purposes to which he means to apply it. And it might be properly enough stipulated, that if, at the end of some fixed period, certain improvements were not made, buildings erected, &c., it should revert to the Crown. But the more we reflect on the subject, the greater are our doubts as to the policy of exacting any price for land, particularly in such a country as New South Wales. Considering the very inferior quality of most of the land in that colony, 5s. an acre seems quite extravagant as a minimum price; and, instead of being made the lowest point in the scale, it should rather have been made the highest. At all events, if an upper price of 5s. an acre be not a great deal above the mark in New Holland, it must be a great deal below it in Upper Canada. It would not really be more absurd to set about establishing a uniform rate by which to regulate the sale of land in Essex and the Hebrides, than it is to apply the same scale to all our colonial possessions. We have already seen that an emigrant may be conveyed to Quebec for 5*l.*, while it costs 10*l.* to convey him to Sydney; and

day, or 1*l.* to 2*l.* per acre, and always find employment.

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January, 1833, a plentiful

Prices.			
	L.	s.	d.
Wheat	0	4	0
Barley	0	4	0
Oats	0	4	0
Rye	0	4	0
Maize	0	4	0
Peas	0	4	0
Beans	0	4	0
Lentils	0	4	0
Flour	0	4	0
Butter	0	4	0
Cheese	0	4	0
Eggs	0	4	0
Wool	0	4	0
Woolen Cloth	0	4	0
Woolen Goods	0	4	0
Woolen Yarn	0	4	0
Woolen Hats	0	4	0
Woolen Shoes	0	4	0
Woolen Socks	0	4	0
Woolen Gloves	0	4	0
Woolen Mittens	0	4	0
Woolen Scarves	0	4	0
Woolen Handkerchiefs	0	4	0
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Woolen Hats	0	4	0
Woolen Mittens	0	4	0
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Woolen Hats	0	4	0
Woolen Mittens	0	4	0
Woolen Gloves	0	4	0
Woolen Socks	0	4	0
Woolen Shoes	0	4	0

supposing an emigrant's family to consist, servants included, of seven grown up persons, he would save 77l. on the mere expenses of the voyage by going to Canada rather than to New South Wales! It does appear to us that government should pay some regard to this circumstance in fixing the price of land in Australia. In our view of the matter, it would be both just and expedient to allow all emigrants to Australia who made purchases of land, a deduction from its price equivalent to the sum which the passage out costs them over and above what it would have cost them to go to America. This would be a great relief to small capitalists; and, even with this regulation, the balance would still incline, in the opinion of most persons, very much in favour of Canada.

But, however modified, the principle of the measure is, we apprehend, radically bad. If the Americans exacted the same price for their public lands that we do, something might be found to say in favour of extending the principle to Canada. They, however, do nothing of the sort; but sell much better land at a decidedly lower price. Hence, if this preposterous scheme do not discourage emigration, it will assuredly turn the tide from our own colonies to the United States. And though it had no such effect, it would still be highly objectionable; inasmuch as it cripples the resources of the colonist at the very moment when they are most indispensable, and deprives him of funds which he would have laid out better than it is easy to suppose, they can be laid out by government. The mode of letting land by lease, that is, by the receipt of a large sum of money on the tenant's entry to a farm,—the rent during the currency of the lease being proportionally small,—has been severely censured by all the best agricultural writers; and for the very sufficient reason, that it deprives the tenant, on entering into his farm, of the greater part of his capital, and disables him from undertaking any considerable improvements at the very time it is most essential he should set about making them. And yet we are loudly called upon to do the same thing by the settlers in a new colony,—who, for the most part, emigrate only because they have little or no capital,—that is so justly condemned at home. This precious project has actually been trumpeted forth as a signal discovery that was to be productive of the very greatest utility; and a society has been formed to promote colonisation, on the avowed principle of rendering it much more difficult than it has ever hitherto been for a colonist in the lower walks of life to acquire land and become independent! If slaves could be imported into a colony of this sort, there might be some chance of its succeeding. But while land of the very best quality may be had in the valley of the Mississippi for about a dollar an acre, or less, we think better of the common sense of our countrymen, than to suppose that any one able to carry himself across the Atlantic will resort to Australia under the auspices of any company of the sort now alluded to.

In compiling this article we have made use of the *Report of Mr. Biggs on the Agriculture and Trade of New South Wales*, being *Parl. Paper*, No. 136. *Session*, 1833; *Report of Commissioners of Inquiry*, *Parl. Paper*, No. 323. *Session*, 1831; *Papers laid before the Finance Committee*; the excellent *New South Wales Calendar and Directory for 1836*; the works of *Massey*, *Sturt*, *Bretton*, and others; the tract of *Mr. Carmichael*, &c.; but we are indebted for by far the most interesting portion of our information to exceedingly valuable private communications from the colony.

SYRA, the ancient Syros, one of the islands of the Greek Archipelago, in the group called the Northern Cyclades. It is from 7 to 8 miles long, and 4 broad. Though rugged, it is tolerably well cultivated, and produces corn, wine, cotton, olives, figs, &c. The population, in 1830, is set down by Mr. Urquhart at 4,500; but we have been assured that it is, at present, little if at all short of 7,000. Pherycides, one of the most celebrated of the ancient Greek philosophers, the disciple of Pittacus, and the master of Pythagoras, was a native of this island.

The port is on the east side of the island, in lat. 37° 26' 30" N., lon. 24° 55' E. It affords excellent anchorage for vessels of light draught, and is capable of accommodating a few even of the largest ships. In consequence partly of the advantages it enjoys through the possession of its port, but more of its central situation, Syra has recently become a considerable commercial *entrepôt*; and has attracted a good deal of the carrying trade that formerly centered at Smyrna, Constantinople, &c.

A few miles to the east of Syra, lies Delos. This island, regarded in antiquity with peculiar veneration, from its being the birthplace of Apollo and Diana, is no less celebrated in the commercial life in the religious history of ancient Greece. Its sacred character, by insuring its immunity from hostile attacks, and its central situation, made it a favourite mart for the products of the states of Greece, Asia Minor, Phœnicia, Egypt, &c. Religion, pleasure, and trade had all their votaries at its festivals, which were famous throughout the ancient world for the splendour of the rites and processions, and the magnitude of the business transacted. It were too much to expect that Syra should ever attain to equal importance, even as an *entrepôt*. But as she enjoys most of those advantages of position that contributed to render Delos one of the principal emporiums of antiquity, it may be hoped, now that there is a reasonable prospect of good order and freedom being again established in Greece, that she may also acquire some commercial celebrity. It may be worth while mentioning, as strikingly evincing the mutability of human affairs, that, at present, both the great and the little Delos are uninhabited. And Tournefort states, that the inhabitants of Mycone were, in the early part of last century, in the habit of holding the greater Delos for the purposes of pasturage, paying to the Grand Seigneur a rent of 20 crowns a year for that famous island!—(*Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, 4to ed. tome I. pp. 290—325. There is a good account of the religious rites celebrated at Delos, though but a very indifferent one of its commerce, in the *Travels of Anacharsis*.)

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TRADE, ETC. OF THE CASPIAN SEA.

Quantity and Value of the Articles Imported from Foreign Ports into the Russian Ports of the Caspian, in 1831.

Articles.			Articles.		
Quantities.	Value.		Quantities.	Value.	
Rice	36,975	Rubles.	Madder	10,143	Rubles.
Fish and caviar	23,091		Trey-stories		69,931
Fruit	60,383		Iron		56,361
Tobacco, spices, and sundry provisions	16,800		Cotton goods		34,711
Wines	8,154		Silk goods		94,931
Medicinal drugs	16,845	168,308	Woolen goods, shawls, girdles, &c.		181,544
Raw cotton	7,397	226,493	Furs		57,512
Cotton twist	1,471,700	1,471,700	Sundries		58,461
Raw silk	84	8,768	Total		3,915,041
Twisted silk					

Account of the Quantity and Value of the Articles exported from Russian Ports on the Caspian, to Foreign Ports on ditto, in 1831.

Articles.			Articles.		
Quantities.	Value.		Quantities.	Value.	
Brandy, and other spirits	3,131	Rubles.	Hemp and flaxen goods		40,025
Ball	45,400	26,900	Cotton goods		78,326
Sugar in town and candied	2,247	70,715	Silk goods		5,779
Tea	309	60,011	Woolens		7,564
Spices, fruit, butter, honey, and other provisions		132,540	Russian cloth	11,374	22,061
Drugs and dry-stories		187,584	Writing paper		12,758
Copper	10,112	210,650	Tallow candles	5,456	16,918
Iron	138,484	848,896	Gold and silver articles		16,540
Other metals		48,390	Handware		18,208
Tanned leather (young)		20,730	Earthenware		30,514
Leather manufactured goods	68,708	65,705	Trunks and suitcases		26,311
Raw hides	779	4,160	Looking glasses		5,139
Colouring materials		181,412	Wooden ware		4,380
Cotton twist	150	18,700	Sundry manufactures		22,055
Raw silk	682	185,494	Furs		41,025
Feathers, wax, teeth, ingots, &c.		12,171	Sundries		1,768
Linen		23,988	Total		3,711,000

Shipping.—Arrivals at, and Departures from, the Russian Ports of the Caspian, in 1831.

Arrived.				Departed.			
At what Port.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.	From what Place.	From what Port.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.	To what Place.
Astrakhan	18	4,192	From Russian ports	Astrakhan	84	9,150	To Russian ports
Baku	88			Baku	84		
Astrakhan	88			From Persian ports	Astrakhan		
Baku	93	1,440	From Mangishlak	Baku	98	3,544	To Persian ports
Astrakhan	10			Astrakhan	18		
Total	175	12,550		Total	191	14,450	

N. B.—Of the vessels here described, only 1 Persian arrived, and 1 ditto departed, of burden unknown.

Magnitude of the Caspian Sea. Ports, &c.—The Caspian Sea, or rather lake (the *Mare Hyrcanum* of the ancients), extends lengthwise from N. to S. about 740 miles, varying in breadth from 112 to 275 miles. In some parts, particularly on the southern shores, it is so very deep that a line of 450 fathoms will not reach the bottom; whereas, in the northern parts, and opposite to the mouths of the Wolga, it is comparatively shallow; and owing to the frequent occurrence of shoals, it is not safely navigated by vessels drawing more than 10 or 12 feet water. Its level had been variously estimated by Olivier and Lowitz, at from 64 to 53 feet below that of the Black Sea; but according to the recent observations of M. Humboldt, the difference of level between them is no less than 300 feet! We confess, however, that we are not without our doubts as to the perfect accuracy of this statement; and would not have been inclined to attach much weight to it had it proceeded from any inferior authority. The water of the Caspian is not salt, but brackish merely; it has no tides, but gales of wind raise a very heavy sea. It is extremely prolific of fish and seals. The value of the sturgeon caught in the Russian fisheries amounts to a very large sum. (See *Stronozes FISHERY*.) They proceed in shoals up the rivers, where they are captured without the least apparent diminution of their numbers. The salmon is remarkably fine; and herrings are in such abundance, that, after a storm, the shores of the Persian provinces of Ghilan and Mazanderan are nearly covered with them.—(*Kinnier's Memoir of the Persian Empire*, p. 6; *Memoir on the Caspian Sea, in Malte-Brun's Geography; Humboldt, Fragmens de Géologie, &c.*)

Astrakhan is situated on an island of the Wolga, more than 50 miles from the mouth of that river; and owing to the extensive command of internal navigation it possesses, it is a place of very considerable commercial importance. Baku, acquired by the Russians in 1801, is, however, the best port on the western side of the Caspian. It is situated on the southern shore of a peninsula that projects far into the sea, in lat. 40° 22' N., lon. 51° 10' E. The harbour is spacious and convenient; and its central and advanced position gives it superior advantages as a trading station. Prodigious quantities of naphtha are procured in the vicinity of Baku. It is drawn from wells, some of which yield from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs. a day. It is used as a substitute for lamp oil; and when ignited emits a clear light, with much smoke

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and a disagreeable smell. Large quantities are exported in skins to the Persian and Tartar ports on the south and east shores of the sea.

Vessels.—The largest class of vessels by which the Caspian Sea is navigated are called by the Russians *schuyts*, and belong wholly to Astrakhan and Baku; their burden varies from 90 to 180, and, in some instances, 300 tons. They are not built on any scientific principle, and are constructed of the worst materials, that is, of the timber of the barks that bring grain down the Volga to Astrakhan. There are supposed to be, in all, about 100 sail of these vessels. There is a second class of vessels employed in the trade of the Caspian, called *reuchies*. They carry from 70 to 140 tons, and sail better than the *schuyts*. Their number is estimated at about 50. Exclusive of the above, there are great numbers of small craft employed in the coasting trade, in the rivers, in the fisheries, and in acting as lighters to the *schuyts*. Steam boats have been introduced upon the Volga; and one has been launched on the Caspian itself. The masters and crews of the vessels employed on this sea are, for the most part, as ignorant as can well be imagined. They are generally quite incapable of making an observation, or of keeping a reckoning; so that accidents frequently occur, that might be avoided by the most ordinary acquaintance with the principles of navigation.—(These statements are made, partly upon official, and partly upon private authority; the latter may, however, be safely relied on.)

The trade of this great sea is entirely in the hands of the Russians; by whom it is carried on from the ports of Astrakhan and Baku, with the Persian ports of Astrabad, Balfooch, &c. on the south; and with the Tartar ports of Mangishlak, Baikan, &c. on the east. It is very insignificant, compared with what it ought to be. On the whole, however, a gradual improvement is taking place; and whatever objections may, on other grounds, be made to the encroachments of Russia in this quarter, there can be no manner of doubt that, by introducing comparative security and good order into the countries under her authority, she has materially improved their condition, and accelerated their progress to a more advanced state.

Account of the Value of the Foreign Trade of the Port of Baku, on the Caspian Sea, during the Eight Years ending with 1831.

Articles.	1824.		1825.		1826.		1827.		1828.		1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.	Roubles.
Imports.																
Iron ore	367,680	446,037	182,633	618,056	1,018,261	776,748	833,781	776,546								
Wool	36,280	10,970	2,360	18,407	118,558	85,790	101,729	48,367								
Cotton	86,662	85,905	1,860	87,816	186,305	31,476	6,733	7,026								
Spices	551,877	647,818	53,813	1,259,485	1,754,64	906,873	875,623	536,567								
Silk	84,832	38,423	84,100	181,328	148,346	123,590	97,369	85,878								
Shark, girdles, and other woolsens	5,785	18,646	7,877	11,548	84,808	42,513	68,382	7,810								
Tea, tobacco, salt, fruit, lodges, &c.	104,681	75,981	59,488	297,700	490,768	308,052	117,436	94,883								
Total value of imports - Rous.	1,260,578	1,160,837	841,063	8,734,754	8,687,867	9,184,668	7,000,516	1,702,460								
Exports.																
Shells	800,740	828,707	111,869	874,800	342,866	457,516	(no particulars)									
Salt	125,480	2,970	970	82,588	47,423	66,170	6,560	83,900								
Silk	609,876	970,960	2,360	248,670	104,037	81,279	(no particulars)									
Wool, gold thread, spices, writing paper, furs, &c.	98,078	138,880	108,820	688,304	378,320	442,262	(no particulars)									
Total value of exports - Rous.	1,223,584	846,817	228,789	1,248,262	768,748	1,047,173	886,527	684,018								

TALC, a species of fossil nearly allied to mica. It is soft, smooth, greasy to the feel, and may be split into fine plates or leaves, which are flexible, but not elastic. It has a greenish, whitish, or silver-like lustre. The leaves are transparent, and are used in many parts of India and China, as they were used in ancient Rome—(*Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxvi. c. 22.)—in windows instead of glass. In Bengal, a seer of talc costs about 2 rupees, and will sometimes yield a dozen panes 12 inches by 9, or 10 by 10, according to the form of the mass, transparent enough to allow ordinary subjects to be seen at 20 or 30 yards' distance. It should be chosen of a beautiful pearl colour; but it has, in general, either a yellowish or faint blue tinge. Its pure translucent flakes are frequently used by the Indians, for ornamenting the baubles employed in their ceremonies. Talc is employed in the composition of *rouge végétal*. The Romans prepared with it a beautiful blue, by combining it with the colouring fluid of particular kinds of testaceous animals. Talc is met with in Aberdeenshire, Perthshire, and Banffshire in Scotland; and in various parts of the Continent, where rocks of serpentine and porphyry occur. The talc brought from the Tyrolean mountains is called in commerce Venetian talc. Several varieties are found in India and Ceylon.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Rees's Cyclopædia; Milburn's Orient. Com.; Ainslie's Mat. Indian.*)

TALLOW (Fr. *Suif*; Ger. *Talg*; It. *Sevo, Sego*; Rus. *Salo, toplenoe*; Sp. *Sebo*), animal fat melted and separated from the fibrous matter mixed with it. Its quality depends partly on the animal from which it has been prepared; but more, perhaps, on the care taken in its purification. It is firm, brittle, and has a peculiar heavy odour. When pure, it is white, tasteless, and nearly insipid; but the tallow of commerce has usually a yellowish tinge; and is divided, according to the degree of its purity and consistence, into candle and soap tallow.

Tallow is an article of great importance. It is manufactured into candles and soap; and

be extensively used in the dressing of leather, and in various processes of the arts. Besides our extensive supplies of native tallow, we annually import a very large quantity, principally from Russia. The exports of tallow from Peterburgh amount, at an average, to between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 poods, of which the largest portion by far is brought to England; the remainder being exported to Prussia, France, the Hanse Towns, Turkey, &c.

We borrow from the work of Mr. Borrison, on the Commerce of Peterburgh, the following details with respect to the tallow trade of that city:—

Tallow is divided into different sorts; namely, white and yellow *scandle tallow*, and common and Siberian *soap tallow*; although it is allowed that the same sort often differs in quality.

Tallow is brought to Peterburgh from the interior; and the best soap tallow from Siberia, by various rivers, to the lake Ladoga; and thence, by the canal of Schlüsselburg, to the Neva.

An *ambare*, or warehouse, is appropriated to the reception of tallow, where, on its arrival, it is selected and assorted (*bracketed*). The casks are then marked with three circular stamps, which state the quality of the tallow, the period of selecting, and the name of the selector (*bracket*).

The casks in which white tallow is brought have a singular appearance; their form being conical, and their diameter at one end about 3½ feet, and at the other only 1½ foot: the casks of yellow tallow are of the common shape. There are also others, denominated *3 casks*.

To calculate the tare, the tallow is removed from a certain number of casks, which are weighed, and an average tare is thence deducted for the whole lot. A cask weighs 84, 9, 10, or 11 per cent, but the average is generally about 10 per cent. of the entire weight of tallow and cask.

Yellow candle tallow, when good, should be clean, dry, hard when broken, and of a fine yellow colour throughout. The white candle tallow, when good, is white, brittle, hard, dry, and clean. The best white tallow is brought from Woronesch. As for soap tallow, the more greasy and yellow it is, the better the quality. That from Siberia is the purest, and commonly fetches a higher price than the other sorts.

Formerly the oil and tallow warehouses were the same; and this occasioned great difficulties in shipping, because all vessels or lighters taking in tallow or oil were obliged to haul down to the *ambare*, and wait in rotation for their cargoes. The consequence was, that when much business was doing, a vessel was often detained for several weeks at the *ambare* before she could get her cargo on board. Now the tallow and oil warehouses are separated, and every article has its own place. When a shipment of tallow is made, the agent is furnished by the selector (*bracket*) with a sample from each cask.

Captains, in order to obtain more freight, usually load some casks of tallow upon deck; but it is more for the interest of the owner to avoid this if possible, because the tallow loses, through the heat of the sun, considerably both in weight and quality.

One hundred and twenty poods of tallow, gross weight, make a Peterburgh last, and 63 poods an English ton.

Of 1,177,908 cwt. of tallow imported in 1829, 1,164,180 came from Russia, 6,143 from the United States, 2,790 from Turkey, 1,992 from France, and 1,626 from Sweden.

We subjoin an official account of the export of tallow from Russia in 1832.

Exports of Tallow from Russia in 1832.

From	Poods.	To	Poods.	To	Poods.
Peterburgh	3,717,426	Sweden	11,801	Austria	18,238
Riga	54,016	Prussia	300,839	Turkey	182,006
Archangel	99,980	Denmark	2,521	America	7,714
Olson	291,172	Elsinour	11,773	Caspian Sea	43
Tapiung	5,145	Hanse Towns	51,074	Ash	43
Nadiviloff	12,509	Holland	41,086	Georgia	33
Astrakhan	47	Great Britain	3,508,847	Sundry	5,865
Sundry	25,588	France	61,772		
Total	4,206,919	Spain, Portugal, and Italy	3	Total	4,206,919

The exports of tallow from Peterburgh, in 1833, amounted to above 4,100,000 poods (see *act. p. 292*), being the largest quantity ever shipped in 1 year. The shipments to Great Britain were about 3,600,000 poods. Supposing the tallow to have been worth, when delivered to the shipper, 3s. a ton, its total value will have been 2,306,150*l.* This statement shows the great importance of this trade.

The price of tallow fluctuated very much during the war. This was occasioned, principally, by the obstacles that were at different periods thrown in the way of supplies from Russia. The price of tallow is also affected by the state of the seasons. Some very extensive speculations have at various periods been attempted in tallow; but seldom, it is believed, with much advantage to the parties.

Account of the Price of Tallow in the London Market, in the Month of January each Year, from 1813.

Year.	Yellow Soap.	Peterburgh.	Year.	Yellow Soap.	Peterburgh.
1813	s. d. s. d.	s. d. s. d.	1824	s. d. s. d.	s. d. s. d.
1814	98 0 — 90 0	80 0 to 0 0	1825	31 0 to 34 0	34 0 to 0 0
1815	98 0 — 100 0	84 0 — 96 0	1826	None.	37 0 — 0 0
1816	98 0 — 0 0	80 0 — 0 0	1827	—	33 0 — 26 0
1817	59 0 — 0 0	65 0 — 0 0	1828	36 6 to 0 0	37 0 — 0 0
1818	54 0 — 54 8	52 0 — 0 0	1829	37 9 — 38 6	37 8 — 0 0
1819	77 0 — 78 0	74 0 — 75 0	1830	39 2 — 0 0	38 9 — 26 0
1820	78 0 — 0 0	74 0 — 0 0	1831	34 0 — 0 0	35 3 — 0 0
1821	56 0 — 56 9	51 0 — 52 0	1832	45 9 — 0 0	45 9 — 0 0
1822	61 0 — 0 0	47 0 — 0 0	1833	46 0 — 0 0	—
1823	44 0 — 0 0	39 0 — 0 0	1834	47 8 — 0 0	—
1824	37 0 — 37 8	35 0 — 0 0			

The following is a statement of the prices per cwt. of foreign and British tallow in the London market on the 24th of March, 1834:—

	s. d. s. d.		s. d. s. d.
Peterburgh <i>ac. duty</i> (3s. 2d.) paid, cwt.	44 0 to 44 2	Town tallow, cwt.	48 0 to 48 0
Delivery first 3 months, 1834	43 6 — 43 9	Russian candle	46 6 — 0 0
Free on board, 1833, ton	37 <i>l.</i> 10s. — 37 <i>l.</i> 15s.	Mixed stuff	31 0 — 0 0
Soap, cwt.	41 6 — 0 0	Brugh ditto	31 0 — 0 0
Wholesale	0 0 — 0 0	Whitechapel Market, above	2 3 — 0 0
Siberia	42 0 — 0 0	St. James's ditto	3 9 — 0 0
Peterburgh on board, ton	37 <i>l.</i> 10s. — 0 0	Average	2 8 — 0 0

* The ships, receive, at Elsinour, orders for their ultimate destination, and most of them are for Great Britain.

TALLY TRADE, the name given to a system of dealing carried on in London and other large towns, by which shopkeepers furnish certain articles on credit to their customers, the latter agreeing to pay the stipulated price by certain weekly or monthly instalments.

In the metropolis there are about 60 or 70 tally-shops of note; and from 500 to 800 on a smaller scale. They are also spread over the country to a considerable extent, particularly in the manufacturing districts. The customers of the tally-shops are mostly women; consisting, principally, of the wives of labourers, mechanics, porters, &c., servant girls, and females of lower character. Few only of the more respectable classes have been infatuated enough to resort to them. Drapery goods, wearing apparel, coals, household furniture, hardware, &c. are furnished; and even funerals are performed; but few or no articles of food, except tea, are sold upon the tally plan.

We believe that this is the very worst mode in which credit is afforded. The facility which it gives of obtaining an article when wanted, and the notion so apt to be entertained that the weekly or monthly instalments may be paid without difficulty, makes those who resort to the tally-shops overlook the exorbitant price, and usual bad quality, of the articles they obtain from them; and generate habits of improvidence that seldom fail to involve the parties in irretrievable ruin. It is not going too far to say that nine tenths of the articles supplied by tally-shops might be dispensed with. As already observed, women are the principal customers; and it is not easy to exaggerate the mischief that has been entailed on the families of many industrious labourers by their wives having got entangled with tally-shops. They buy goods without the knowledge of their husbands; and these are not unfrequently pawned, and the proceeds spent in gin. So destructive, indeed, is the operation of the system, that the establishment of a tally-shop in any district is almost certain to occasion an increase in the paupers belonging to it. Even the unmarried females, who do not pay are demoralised and ruined by the system; because, if a woman who buys three gowns, pays for the first, and runs away from the payment of the last, she gains nothing in point of saving, while she becomes indifferent to an act of dishonesty. As tally debts can only be collected whilst a supply of goods is kept up, as soon as that supply is stopped, the debtor either flies to another district, or awaits a summons. Where the wife has contracted the debt, she usually appears before the commissioners, who in general order the debt to be paid by weekly or monthly instalments. But it often occurs, from the wife not being able to keep up such payments, that execution issues, and the poor husband is frequently arrested and lodged in prison for a debt, of the existence of which he was entirely ignorant. In this way, numbers of the working classes are completely ruined; they lose their employment, and themselves and families are reduced to beggary. The intemperate keeper of Whitecross-street prison (Mr. Barrett) states, that from 150 to 200 persons are annually imprisoned there for tally-shop debts, in sums from 10s. to 5l., and that in one year 30 prisoners were at the suit of one tally-shop alone! Such imprisonments, however, are now much decreased, in consequence, as is believed, of the Court of Requests discouraging the tally system, by ordering claims of this kind to be paid by extremely small instalments, and these at very distant intervals; and also in consequence of no composition being allowed by the charities for the relief of poor prisoners with reference to such debts.

It is estimated that in London alone about 850,000l., or nearly 1,000,000l. sterling is annually returned in this trade. From his large profits (generally from 25 to 40 per cent.), it is obvious that in a few transactions the tally-shop keeper becomes independent of the existing debt; and with capital and good management, it is said that some have realised considerable sums of money in this business. According to the custom of the trade, Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, are the days set apart for collecting money from the customers. The tally-man sends round his collector through the different "walks," and the amount of a collection, which keeps the collector engaged from morning till night, even in a good tally concern, seldom exceeds 4l. a day. The payments are invariably made in shillings and pence—but the people seldom or never pay at the tally-shops; they rarely call there unless something else is wanted. The tally-shop keeper trusts one party on the recommendation of another; but guarantees are never required—certainly no written guarantees; and a verbal guarantee is, according to Lord Tenenden's act, not binding. It is part of the collector's business, besides getting money, to beat up for fresh customers in his walk. The greater number of the small tally concerns are kept by Scotchmen; it is a curious fact, that when a "Tally-walk" is to be sold, which is often the case, a Scotchman's walk will bring 15 per cent. more than an Englishman's! It is believed to contain a better description of customers. From the causes above mentioned, assisted, perhaps, by the salutary influence of Savings' Banks, this obnoxious trade is understood to be rather on the wane. It will never, however, be completely rooted out, except by adopting the plan we have previously suggested—(see CHAPTER.)—for placing all small debts beyond the pale of the law; and the fact, that the adoption of this plan would have so beneficial a result, is an additional and powerful recommendation in its favour. In cases where failures take place, the creditors of a tally shop

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143 from the United States,

To	Proch.
...	15,700
...	12,000
...	7,744
...	38
...	45
...	5,865
Total	4,305,910

100,000 goods (see vol. p.
to Great Britain were about
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importance of this trade,
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rom Russia. The price of
speculations have at various
vantage to the parties.

January each Year, from 1813.

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d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
0	34	0	0	0
0	37	0	0	0
0	35	0	0	0
0	37	0	0	0
0	37	0	0	0
0	35	0	0	0
0	35	0	0	0
0	46	0	0	0
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Market Letter Committee.			
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packed into real tare, customary tare, and average tare. The first is the actual weight of the package; the second, its supposed weight according to the practice among merchants; and the third is the medium tare, deduced from weighing a few packages, and taking it as the standard for the whole. In Amsterdam, and some other commercial cities, tares are generally fixed by custom; but in this country, the prevailing practice, as to all goods that can be unpacked without injury, both at the Custom-house and among merchants, is to ascertain the real tare. Sometimes, however, the buyer and seller make a particular agreement about it. We have, for the most part, specified the different tares allowed upon particular commodities, in the descriptions given of them in this work.—(For the tares at Amsterdam, Bordeaux, &c., see these articles; see also ALLOWANCES.)

TARE, VETCH, or FITCH, a plant (*Vicia sativa*, Lin.) that has been cultivated in this country from time immemorial; principally for its stem and leaves, which are used in the feeding of sheep, horses, and cattle; but partly, also, for its seed. Horses thrive better upon tares than upon clover and rye grass; and cows that are fed upon them give most milk. The seed is principally used in the feeding of pigeons and other poultry. In 1829, we imported 87,101 bushels of tares, principally from Denmark and Prussia.

TARIFF, a Table, alphabetically arranged, specifying the various duties, drawbacks, bounties, &c. charged and allowed on the importation and exportation of articles of foreign and domestic produce.

We intended at one time to have given the tariffs of some of the principal foreign states, and had some of them translated for that purpose; but, as the duties and regulations in them are perpetually changing, they would very soon have become obsolete, and would have tended more to mislead than to instruct. The circulars issued by foreign houses usually specify the duties on importation and exportation. But the reader will find under the articles DANZIG, HAMBURG, NEW YORK, TAINTE, &c., pretty full details as to the principal foreign tariffs. Subjoined is the British tariff.

TARIFF (BRITISH).—1st of January, 1834.

DUTIES OF CUSTOMS INWARDS.

Duties Inwards.—The first column of the following Table contains an account of the existing duties payable on the importation of foreign products into Great Britain for home use, as the same were fixed by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 56. The next column exhibits the duties payable on the same articles as they were fixed by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 53; and the third and last column exhibits the duties as they were fixed in 1767, by Mr. Pitt's Consolidation Act, the 27 Geo. 3. c. 13. The reader has, therefore, before him, and may compare together, the present customs duties with the duties as they stood at the end of the late war, and at its commencement. No table of the sort is to be met with in any other publication. We owe it to the kindness of Mr. J. D. Hume, of the Board of Trade, under whose direction it has been prepared. The duties are rated throughout in Imperial weights and measures.

Table of the Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise imported into the United Kingdom from Foreign Parts.

1st.—Goods on which duties are payable by measure of capacity, are rated according to the Imperial gallon and bushel.

Articles.	Duty, 1834.			Duty, 1813.			Duty, 1767.*		
	L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.
Indian and the Virginias.									
Tobacco, the Seed.									
Opium, or cambrin, for every 100L. value	10	0	0	30	0	0			27 10 0
do. for every 100L. value	30	0	0	60	0	0			
Alkali, not being barilla, viz.									
any article containing soda or mineral alkali whereof mineral alkali is the most valuable part, (such alkali not being otherwise particularly charged with duty,) viz.									
if not containing a greater proportion of such alkali than 20 per cent, per cwt.	0	11	4	0	11	4			1 8 0
if containing more than 20 per cent, and not exceeding 25 per cent, of such alkali, per cwt.	0	15	0	0	15	0			1 8 0
if containing more than 25 per cent, and not exceeding 30 per cent, of such alkali, per cwt.	0	18	4	0	18	4			1 8 0
if containing more than 30 per cent, and not exceeding 40 per cent, of such alkali per cwt.	1	8	4	1	8	4			1 8 0
if containing more than 40 per cent, of such alkali per cwt.	1	10	0	1	10	0			1 8 0
mineral alkali, imported from places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per cwt.	0	0	0	As above.					28 6 0 per cent.
Althaus root, per cwt.	0	0	0	4	12	4			1 3 2
Althaus root, for every 100L. of the value	0	0	0	0	0	0			27 10 0
Althaus, viz.									
Witer, cwt.	0	4	0	1	11	8			0 14 0
Jordan, per cwt.	0	2	0	4	15	0			2 6 3
of any other sort, per cwt.	1	0	0	3	7	6			1 3 3
linen, per lb.	0	0	8	0	2	6			0 1 8
the produce of, and imported from any British possession, per lb.	0	0	2	0	0	2			0 0 6
Alum, per cwt.	0	17	8	0	17	8			0 7 2
rock, per cwt.	0	11	8	0	11	8			0 3 0
lamb, rough, per lb.	0	0	8	0	1	8			0 1 8
manufactures of amber, not otherwise enumerated or described, per lb.	0	12	8	60	0	0	per cent.		27 10 0 per cent.
Isabergin, per oz.	0	0	6	0	5	0			0 3 0
Jacobina, per lb.	0	0	2	0	1	0			0 0 1 1 2
Asphex, per cwt.	0	4	0	4	13	4			0 18 8
Amato, per cwt.	0	1	0	3	6	8			
oil, per cwt.	0	4	0	5	12	0			Free.

* By act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13, and 29 Geo. 3. c. 27, certain goods were allowed to be imported from France and Holland, on payment of duty, until the 10th of May, 1800, although prohibited to be imported from other countries.

Articles.	Duty, 1834.		Duty, 1818.		Duty, 1797.	
	L.	S. d.	L.	S. d.	L.	S. d.
Iron—cast/rolled.						
old broken, and old cast iron, per ton	0	12 0	0	17 6	0	18 0
ore, per ton	0	5 0	0	5 0	0	5 0
Pig iron, per ton	0	10 0	0	17 6	0	18 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0	1 3	0	0 0	0	0 0
chromate of iron, per ton	0	6 0	0	0 0	0	0 0
rough, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value.	30	0 0	50	0 0	57	10 0 per cent.
Ingots, per cwt.	2	7 8	2	7 8	Prohibited.	
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0	18 10	0	18 10	0	0 5 1/2
Juice of lemons or oranges, per gallon	0	0 0 1/2	0	1 8	0	0 4
Junk, old. See Rags, old.	0	0 0	0	0 0	0	0 1/2
K.						
Kelp. See Alkali.						
L.						
Lac, vis. stick lac, per cwt.	0	1 0	1	0 0	Free.	0 17 8 per doz. yls.
Lace, vis. thread lace, for every 100l. value.	30	0 0	40	0 0		
Lacquered ware. See Japaned ware.						
Lapis. See Berzel.						
Lamp black, per cwt.	1	0 0	3	6 6	1	15 8
Lapis calaminaris, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	2 0	0	3 8
Lard, per cwt.	0	8 6	0	8 6	0	8 6
Latten, per cwt.	0	4 0	1	0 0	0	13 8
shaves, per cwt.	0	8 0	2	10 0	1	8 0
Lavender flowers, per lb.	0	0 10	0	0 10	0	0 4
Lead, vis.						
black, per cwt.	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	4 0
chromate of lead, per lb.	0	2 0	0	0 0	0	0 0
ore, per ton	1	6 0	30	0 0 per cent.	37	10 0 per cent.
plate, per ton	0	0 0	0	0 0	0	0 0
rod, per cwt.	0	8 0	30	0 0 per cent.	37	10 0 per cent.
white, per cwt.	0	7 0	0	8 4	0	8 8
Lead, vis.	0	8 0	0	10 4	0	9 4
Leather, vis. pieces of leather, or leather cut into shapes, or any article made of leather, or any manufacture whereof leather is the most valuable part, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value.	30	0 0	75	0 0	Prohibited.	
Leaves of gold, per 100 leaves	0	0 0	0	8 0	0	1 2
Leaves of roses, per lb.	0	0 0	0	0 10	0	0 3
Leeches, for every 100l. value.	0	0 0	20	0 0	0	10 0
Lemons. See Oranges.						
peel of, per lb.	0	0 8	0	0 0	0	0 0
preserved in sugar. See Succadon.						
Lentils, the bushel	0	0 10	0	0 10	0	0 0 1/2 per h.
Lignum, vis.						
quinia. See Quassia.						
vitæ, per ton	3	0 0	4	13 8	3	8 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0	10 0	0	11 2		
Linen, or lince and cotton, vis.						
cambrics, and lawns, commonly called French lawns, the piece not exceeding 8 yards in length, and not exceeding 2-8ths of a yard in breadth, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity						
plain	0	6 0	0	11 0	0	5 0
bordered handkerchiefs	0	5 0				
lawns of any other sort, not French, vis. not containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp, per square yard	0	0 8				
containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp, per square yard	0	1 0				
damasks and tanzak diaper, vis.						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	2 1 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	2 0				
drillings, ticks, and striped lince, vis.						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 5 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 8				
all cloths, per square yard	0	0 7 1/2				
plain lince, and diaper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and whether chequered or striped, with dyed yarn or not, vis.						
not containing more than 20 threads to the inch of warp, until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 2 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 2 1/2				
containing more than 20 threads, and not more than 24 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 5 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 3				
containing more than 24 threads, and not containing more than 30 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 4 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 4				
containing more than 30 threads, and not containing more than 40 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 6				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 4 1/2				
containing more than 40 threads, and not containing more than 50 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 8 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 8				
containing more than 50 threads, and not containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 10 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	0 10				
containing more than 60 threads, and not containing more than 80 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	1 0 1/2				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	1 0				
containing more than 80 threads to the inch of warp,						
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	1 7				
from 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0	1 6				
Note.—The duties were levied on the goods above mentioned by act 6 Geo. 4, c. 111, in proportion to which they were chargeable with duties according to their length and breadth						

Articles.	Duty, 1864.		Duty, 1818.		Duty, 1797.	
	L.	S. d.	L.	S. d.	L.	S. d.
Quicklime, per lb.	0	0 1	0	1 6	0	0 6
Quills, viz.						
goose quills, per 1,000	0	2 6	0	2 6	0	0 6
swan quills, per 1,000	0	15 0	0	15 0	0	0 6
Quinace, per 1,000	0	0 1	0	0 1	0	0 4
Quinine, sulphate of, per oz.	0	0 1	50	0 0	27	10 0 per cent.
R.						
Radix, viz.						
anagyris, per lb.	0	0 2	0	1 5	0	0 6
onon sibiricum, per cwt.	0	15 0	0	15 0	0	0 4
serpilla, per lb.	0	1 0	0	4 0	0	1 1
rhatania, per lb.	0	0 1	0	0 2	27	10 0 per cent.
extract or preparation of. See Extract.						
szechuan, per lb.	0	0 2	0	1 5	0	0 1
serpentina, or snake root, per lb.	0	0 2	0	1 5	0	0 6
Rags, viz.						
old rags, old rags or junk, or old fishing nets, fit only for making paper or pasteboard, per ton	0	0 0	1	0 0	Free.	
woollen rags, fit only for manure, per ton	0	1 0	0	15 0	27	10 0 per cent.
Raisins, viz.						
of the sun, per cwt.	2	2 6	2	2 6	0	16 8
of any other sort, per cwt.	1	0 0	1	0 0	As below.	
of all sorts, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0	10 0	0	1 0	As below.	
Smyrna, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	As above.	As above.	0	11 5
Lyon and Faro, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	As above.	As above.	0	8 0
Badrada, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	As above.	As above.	0	8 8
other sorts, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	As above.	As above.	0	7 1
Rape cakes, per cwt.	0	0 2	0	0 2	27	10 0 per cent.
Rape of grass, per ton	15	0 0	15	0 0	0	10 0
Ratafia. See Spirit.						
Red wood, or Galien wood, per ton	0	0 0	0	15 0	Free.	
Rhatany root. See Radix rhatania.						
Rhubarb, per lb.	0	1 0	0	4 0	0	1 6
imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0	1 0	0	2 6	0	1 6
Rice, viz.						
not being rough and in the husk, per cwt.	0	15 0	0	15 0	0	7 4 per cwt.
rough and in the husk, or paddy, per bushel	0	2 6	0	10 0	0	7 4 per cwt.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, viz. not being rough and in the husk, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	5 0	0	7 4 per cwt.
rough and in the husk, or paddy, per quarter	0	0 1	0	2 6	0	2 6 per cwt.
Rocom. See Anacard.						
Rosin, new, see Castore; old, see Rags; Colr, see Colr.						
Rosewood, per cwt.	0	10 0	0	1 0	25	0 0 per cent.
Rosin, or colophony, per cwt.	0	4 2	0	4 2	0	2 2
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0	2 2	0	2 2	0	1 6
Rubies. See Jewels.						
S.						
Saccharum Sativum, per lb.	0	0 10	0	0 10	0	0 3
Safflower, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	8 2	Free.	
Saffron, per lb.	0	1 0	0	7 6	0	2 2
Sago, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	2 4 5	0	1 0
Sails. See Linn.						
Salt, viz.						
ammoniac, per cwt.	0	1 0	2	6 0	Free.	
nitromus, per lb.	0	0 2	0	4 2	27	10 0 per cent.
prunella, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	15 0	0	12 0
Saltp, or Saltp, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	7 0	0	1 0
Salt.						
Saltpetre, per cwt.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	2 2
imported from the East Indies, per cwt.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	2 2
Sanguis draconis, per cwt.	0	4 0	0	6 6	0	3 4
Santa Maria wood, for every 100l. value	20	0 0	20	0 0	25	0 0 per cent.
Sassa wood, per ton	0	1 0	0	0 0	0	0 8
Sarsaparilla, per lb.	0	0 2	0	0 4	0	2 4
Sassafras, per cwt.	0	0 2	0	0 4	Free.	
Saunder, red, per ton	0	1 0	0	15 0	0	1 0
white or yellow, per cwt.	0	1 0	0	15 0	0	0 6
Sausages or puddings, per lb.	0	0 4	0	1 2	0	0 2
Scaleboards, per cwt.	0	2 6	0	2 6	0	1 0
Scammony, per lb.	0	2 6	0	6 4	0	0 6
Seed, viz.						
acorns, per bushel	0	1 0	20	0 0	27	10 0 per cent.
anisi or aniseed, per lb.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	1 2
almond, per cwt.	0	5 0	0	3 0	27	10 0 per cent.
burnt seed, per cwt.	1	0 0	50	0 0	27	10 0 per cent.
canary seed, per cwt.	0	0 0	0	0 0	0	0 0
caraway seed, per cwt.	0	1 10	0	1 0	0	0 1
carrot seed, per lb.	0	0 2	0	0 2	0	0 1
carcharias seed, per lb.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	0 2
castor seed. See Nuts.						
cervilla seed. See Sardinia seed.						
clover seed, per cwt.	1	0 0	1	0 0	0	0 8
cole seed, per quart	0	15 0	0	15 0	0	4 5
cumin seed, per cwt.	0	2 0	0	1 0	0	14 0
cumin seed, per cwt.	0	2 0	0	4 0	0	3 4
fenugreek seed, per cwt.	0	0 2	0	0 2	0	0 2
flax seed, per quarter	0	1 0	0	3 4	27	10 0 per cent.
foxtail seed, per lb.	0	0 6	25	0 0	27	10 0 per cent.
garden seed not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, per lb.	0	0 6	0	1 0	0	0 1
grass seed of all sorts, per cwt.	1	0 0	50	0 0	27	10 0 per cent.
hemp seed, per quarter	0	1 0	0	1 0	0	0 1
leek seed, per lb.	0	1 0	0	1 0	0	1 2
lettuce seed, per quarter	0	1 0	0	1 0	0	1 2
linseed, per quarter	1	0 0	0	12 0	0	3 0
luzerne seed, per cwt.	1	0 0	0	12 0	0	15 6
mwe seed, per cwt.	2	0 0	3	0 0	0	4 6
millet seed, per cwt.	0	11 0	0	11 0	0	3 3
mustard seed, per bushel	0	4 0	0	4 0	0	3 3
onion seed, per lb.	0	1 6	0	1 6	0	0 1
parsley seed, per lb.	0	0 1	0	0 1	0	0 1
plenty or peony seed, per lb.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	0 1
pistachio seed, per lb.	0	0 6	0	0 6	0	0 1

... of the sun, per cwt. ... of any other sort, per cwt. ... of all sorts, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt. ... Smyrna, per cwt. ... Lyon and Faro, per cwt. ... Badrada, per cwt. ... other sorts, per cwt. ... Rape cakes, per cwt. ... Rape of grass, per ton ... Ratafia. See Spirit. ... Red wood, or Galien wood, per ton ... Rhatany root. See Radix rhatania. ... Rhubarb, per lb. ... imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb. ... Rice, viz. ... not being rough and in the husk, per cwt. ... rough and in the husk, or paddy, per bushel ... the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, viz. not being rough and in the husk, per cwt. ... rough and in the husk, or paddy, per quarter ... Rosin, new, see Castore; old, see Rags; Colr, see Colr. ... Rosewood, per cwt. ... Rosin, or colophony, per cwt. ... the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt. ... Rubies. See Jewels. ... Saccharum Sativum, per lb. ... Safflower, per cwt. ... Saffron, per lb. ... Sago, per cwt. ... Sails. See Linn. ... Salt, viz. ... ammoniac, per cwt. ... nitromus, per lb. ... prunella, per cwt. ... Saltp, or Saltp, per cwt. ... Salt. ... Saltpetre, per cwt. ... imported from the East Indies, per cwt. ... Sanguis draconis, per cwt. ... Santa Maria wood, for every 100l. value ... Sassa wood, per ton ... Sarsaparilla, per lb. ... Sassafras, per cwt. ... Saunder, red, per ton ... white or yellow, per cwt. ... Sausages or puddings, per lb. ... Scaleboards, per cwt. ... Scammony, per lb. ... Seed, viz. ... acorns, per bushel ... anisi or aniseed, per lb. ... almond, per cwt. ... burnt seed, per cwt. ... canary seed, per cwt. ... caraway seed, per cwt. ... carrot seed, per lb. ... carcharias seed, per lb. ... castor seed. See Nuts. ... cervilla seed. See Sardinia seed. ... clover seed, per cwt. ... cole seed, per quart ... cumin seed, per cwt. ... cumin seed, per cwt. ... fenugreek seed, per cwt. ... flax seed, per quarter ... foxtail seed, per lb. ... garden seed not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, per lb. ... grass seed of all sorts, per cwt. ... hemp seed, per quarter ... leek seed, per lb. ... lettuce seed, per quarter ... linseed, per quarter ... luzerne seed, per cwt. ... mwe seed, per cwt. ... millet seed, per cwt. ... mustard seed, per bushel ... onion seed, per lb. ... parsley seed, per lb. ... plenty or peony seed, per lb. ... pistachio seed, per lb. ...

Duty, 1787.		Articles.	Duty, 1854. 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1858.	Duty, 1787.
L. s. d.		Wool—unwashed.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
0 0 0		raw wool, per quarter	0 1 0	0 15 0	0 15 0
0 0 0		wool in or carded in need, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 15 0 per cent.
0 0 0		wool or iron wool not otherwise enumerated, per lb.	0 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
0 18		wool used, per cwt.	1 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
27 10 0	per cent.	wool used, per cwt.	0 2 6	8 6 0	5 10 0
		all wools not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, commonly made use of for extracting oil therefrom, per quarter	0 1 0	0 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
		all other wools not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 1000, value	30 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
		Wool, See Tomacco, manufactured.	0 0 6	0 1 8	0 0 6
		Wool, for hats. See Fitting.			
		Wool to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture (gross value), viz.	50 0 0	80 0 0	5 10 0
		foreign ships or vessels, for every 1000, value			
		British ships, or vessels entitled to be registered as such, not having been built in the United Kingdom, for every 1000, value	16 0 0.	Free.	Free.
		Wool, See Flax.			
		Wool, per lb.	0 1 0	1 11 6	Free.
		Wool, for hats.	0 1 0	22 3 0	1 17 6
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 3 6	0 2 0
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 0 1	0 3 6	0 7 4
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 1 6	0 14 6	0 7 4
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 2 0	0 14 6	1 4 6
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 2 0	3 6 6	1 4 6
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 1 0	21 0 0	20 6 0 per cent.
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 0 1	0 4 0	0 2 0
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 0 1	0 6 6	0 2 0
		Wool, for hats, and waste silk, per lb.	0 11 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	25 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 16 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 17 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	1 7 6		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 16 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 13 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	1 8 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	1 7 6		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 17 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 10 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	1 4 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 1 4		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	20 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 15 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	8 10 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	40 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	30 0 0		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 0 6	0 1 8	0 0 7
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 6 8
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 2 0	0 2 8	0 0 8
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 0 8	0 0 8	0 0 8
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 1
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 4 8		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 2 4		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 8 4	calf skins, 0 2 0 per doz.	calf skins, 0 2 0 per doz.
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 2 4		
		or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 1000, value	0 1 8		

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1864.		Duty, 1818.		Duty, 1877.	
	L.	S. & d.	L.	S. & d.	L.	S. & d.
Skins—continued.						
kip, in the hair, not tanned, lawed, curried, or in any way dressed	As above.		0 6 0	p. doz. skins.	27 10 0	per cent.
doe, in the hair, not tanned, lawed, curried, or in any way dressed	0 0 0		0 1 0			
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 4		0 1 0			
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 1 2		0 1 0			
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 7		0 1 0			
tawed, curried, or in any way dressed (not being tanned hide), per lb.	0 1 0					
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 6					
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 1 6		75 0 0	per cent.	77 0 0	per cent.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 8					
cat, undressed, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 6		0 0 10	
Chinchilla, undressed, per skin	0 0 3		2 0 0	per cent.	27 10 0	per cent.
coony, undressed, per 100 skins	0 0 1		0 1 0		0 2 8	
deer, undressed, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 4			
undressed, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America, per 100 skins	0 0 2		0 16 8		0 0 9	per skin.
Indian, half-dressed, per skin	0 0 0		0 0 8		0 0 4	per lb.
deer, undressed or shaved, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 8		0 0 0	
dog, in the hair, not tanned, lawed, or in any way dressed, per dozen skins	0 0 2		0 0 10		0 0 6	
dog fish, undressed, per dozen skins	0 0 3		0 0 8		0 0 0	
undressed, of British taking, and imported direct from Newfoundland, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 8		0 0 0	
skin, in the hair, not tanned, lawed, curried, or in any way dressed, per skin	0 1 0		0 1 0		0 1 0	
ermine, undressed, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 8		0 0 25	
dressed, per skin	0 0 6		75 0 0	per cent.	77 0 0	per cent.
sheep, undressed, per skin	0 0 6		0 1 0			
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 8		0 1 4	
Sheep, undressed, per dozen skins	0 0 0		0 0 2		0 0 0	
fox, undressed, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 8		0 0 4	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 4		0 0 4		0 3 4	
tails, undressed, for every 100L. value	0 0 6		50 0 0		27 10 0	per cent.
grat, raw or undressed, per dozen skins	0 0 0		0 2 0		0 8 8	
tanned, per dozen skins	0 0 0		0 0 0		1 0 0	
hare, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0		0 0 0		0 0 0	
house, undressed, per skin	0 0 6		0 0 6		0 0 0	
kangaroo, raw and undressed, imported from any British possession, for every 100L. value	0 0 0		50 0 0		27 10 0	
kid, in the hair, undressed, per 100 skins	0 0 4		0 1 7		0 19 8	
dressed, per 100 skins	0 10 0		0 0 0		0 0 0	
dressed, and dyed or coloured, per 100 skins	0 15 0		0 0 0		1 4 8	
kip. See Calf skins.						
Kulnaki, undressed, per skin	0 0 2		20 0 0	per cent.	27 10 0	per cent.
lamb, undressed, in the wool, per 100 skins	0 0 4		20 0 0	per cent.	0 2 3	
tanned or lawed, per 100 skins	0 10 0		0 0 0		77 0 0	per cent.
tanned or lawed, and dyed or coloured, per 100 skins	0 15 0		0 0 0		0 0 0	per cent.
dressed in oil, per 100 skins	4 0 0		4 0 0		2 0 4	
leopard, undressed, per skin	0 2 6		7 3 0		0 6 11	
lion, undressed, per skin	0 1 0		0 1 0		0 0 0	
lynx, undressed, per skin	0 0 6		5 1 0	per cent.	27 10 0	per cent.
martens, undressed, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 8			
undressed, imported from any British possession, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 3		0 0 4	
tails, undressed, per 100 tails	0 0 4		0 16 8		0 0 4	
minx, undressed, per skin	0 0 0		0 0 4		0 0 6	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 2		0 0 8		0 0 0	
mole, undressed, per dozen skins	0 0 0		0 0 0		0 0 0	
musquash, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0		0 16 8		0 13 9	
nutria, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0		50 0 0	per cent.	27 10 0	per cent.
otter, undressed, per skin	0 1 6		0 1 6		0 1 6	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 1 0		0 1 0		0 1 5	
ounce, undressed, per skin	0 7 6		0 7 6		0 3 6	
panther, undressed, per skin	0 2 6		0 9 6		0 5 6	
pelts of goat, undressed, per dozen pelts	0 3 0		0 3 0		0 1 4	
dressed, per dozen pelts	0 8 0		0 8 0		0 8 9	
of all other sorts, undressed, per 100 pelts	0 17 0		0 17 0		0 6 8	
racoon, undressed, per skin	0 0 8		0 0 2		0 13 9	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 1		0 0 1	
sable, undressed, per skin	0 9 6		0 8 4		0 4 1	
tails or tips of sable, undressed, per piece	0 9 6		0 1 8		0 0 7	
seal, in the hair, not tanned, lawed, or in any way dressed, per skin	0 1 0		0 0 3		0 0 0	
of British taking, and imported from Newfoundland, per skin	0 0 1		0 0 3		0 0 2	
sheep, undressed, in the wool, per dozen skins	0 1 0		0 2 3		Free.	
tanned or lawed, per 100 skins	0 1 0		0 0 0		0 6 10	
dressed in oil, per 100 skins	4 0 0		4 0 0		1 19 7	
squirrel or Calabar, undressed, per 100 skins	0 11 0		0 11 6		0 4 7	
tawed, per 100 skins	0 17 6		0 17 6		0 6 4	
tails, undressed, for every 100L. value	20 0 0		20 0 0		27 10 0	per cent.
swan, undressed, per skin	0 1 0		0 2 3		0 0 11	
tiger, undressed, per skin	0 8 8		0 9 6		0 2 8	
wesach, undressed, per 100 skins	0 4 0		0 4 9		0 0 9	
wolf, undressed, per skin	0 0 0		0 2 0		0 0 4	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 3		0 1 0		0 8 4	
tawed, per skin	0 17 0		0 17 0		0 6 3	
wolverine, undressed, per skin	0 1 0		0 1 0		0 3 6	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 6		0 0 6		0 3 6	
skins and furs, or pieces of skins and furs, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100L. value	30 0 0		30 0 0		27 10 0	
skins and furs, or pieces of skins and furs, tanned, lawed, curried or in any way dressed, not particularly enumerated						

Articles.	Duty, 1894.			Duty, 1913.			Duty, 1917.		
	L.	S.	d.	L.	S.	d.	L.	S.	d.
Sponges, per lb.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
the produce of, and imported from any British posses., per lb.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Squalls, dried, per cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
not dried, per cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Starch, per cwt.	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	10	0
Staveacre, per cwt.	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Steel, wrought, prepared in, and imported from, any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, per ton	0	1	0	50	0	0	57	10	0
or any manufacture of steel not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100L. value	30	0	0	50	0	0	Prohibited.		
Stibium. See Antimony.									
Sticks, viz. walking sticks. See Canes.									
Stones, viz.									
burr for mill stones, per 100	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	11	0
dog stones, not exceeding 4 feet in diameter, above 8 and under 18 inches in thickness, per pair	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	17	0
cray stones, per ton	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	10	0
filtering stones, for every 100L. of the value	50	0	0	50	0	0	57	10	0
flint stones, for potteries	Free.			0	8	0	27	10	0
flint, for potteries	Free.			0	10	0	0	0	0
fulper, for potteries	Free.			30	0	0	37	10	0
gravestones of marble, viz.									
polished, each not containing more than 8 foot square, per foot square, superficial measure	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	0	0
unpolished, the foot square, superficial measure	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	12	0
gravestones not of marble, polished or unpolished, the foot square, superficial measure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
limestones	Free.			30	0	0	37	10	0
marble, rough, blocks or slabs	Free.			0	8	4	0	10	0
marble in any way manufactured (except gravestones and paving stones, each not containing more than 2 foot square), per cwt.	0	8	0	0	8	2	0	10	0
marble paving stones, each not containing more than 8 foot square, viz.									
polished, the foot square, superficial measure	0	10	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
rough, per foot square, superficial measure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
mill stones above 4 feet in diameter, or if 12 inches in thickness or upwards, per pair	11	0	0	11	0	0	8	4	0
paving stones, not of marble, per 100 foot square, superficial measure	0	10	0	0	12	0	0	4	2
pebble stones	Free.			0	15	0	0	8	0
polishing stones, for every 100L. value	0	0	0	30	0	0	37	10	0
pumice stones, per ton	0	5	0	1	3	4	0	3	0
quartz stones, viz. under 3 feet in diameter, and not exceeding 6 inches in thickness, per pair	0	8	0	0	17	0	0	3	3
3 feet in diameter, and not above 4 feet in diameter, and not exceeding 6 inches in thickness, per pair	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	8	7
slates not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100L. value	30	0	0	30	0	0	37	10	0
slates, in frames, per dozen	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
slate stones, per 100	0	1	0	0	4	0	0	3	4
stone, sculptured, or mosaic work, per cwt.	0	2	0	0	2	0	27	10	0
stone to be used for the purpose of lithography	Free.			1	0	0	37	10	0
whet stones, per 100	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	8	0
stones not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100L. value	30	0	0	66	10	0	37	10	0
Note.—If any statue, group of figures, or other stone or marble ornament, carved out of the same block, shall exceed 1 ton weight, the duty to be charged thereon shall be estimated at the rate payable for 1 ton weight, and no more.									
Storax, or Styrax. See Gum.									
Straw or grass for plaiting, per cwt.	0	0	1	20	0	0	27	10	0
Straw, per lb.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Succedanea, per lb.	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0
the produce of, and imported from, any British posses., per lb.	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0
Sugar, viz.									
brown or muscovado or clayed, not being refined, until 5 April, 1834, per cwt.	3	5	0	4	0	8	0	8	0
the growth, produce, or manufacture of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and imported from thence, per cwt.	1	12	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
the growth, produce, or manufacture of any British possession in America, and imported from thence, per cwt.	1	4	0	1	15	0	0	12	4
(Sugar was, by act 38 Geo. 3. c. 82, subject to the fluctuation of 3s. per cwt. less than the above duties, according to the average price of muscovado sugar, until the passing of 6 Geo. 4. c. 8.)									
melasses, per cwt.	1	3	0	1	5	0	0	11	0
the produce of, and imported from, any Brit. posses., per cwt.	0	9	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
refined, per cwt.	0	9	0	0	8	0	4	10	0
candy, brown, per cwt.	0	19	0	0	12	0	0	0	0
white, per cwt.	0	8	0	0	8	0	4	2	0
candy imported from the East Indies, viz.									
brown, per cwt.	0	18	0	0	12	0	4	10	0
white, per cwt.	0	12	0	0	12	0	7	8	0
Sulphur impressions, for every 100L. value	0	5	0	50	0	0	57	10	0
virginum. See Brimstone.									
Sweep-washers' dirt, containing bullion. See Bullion.									
Sweet wood, per ton	10	13	0	10	13	0	0	0	0
the produce of, and imported from, any British poss. per ton	0	18	5	0	16	3	0	0	0
See Note at the end of Wood.									
Tails, viz.—Buffalo, bull, cow, or ox tails, per 100	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	8	0
fox tails, marton tails, sable tails, squirrel, or Calabar tails. See Skins.									
Talc, per lb.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tallow, per cwt.	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0
imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, per cwt.	0	1	0	0	0	0	Free.		
Tanneries, per lb.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
the produce of, and imported from, any British poss., per lb.	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Tapioca, per cwt.	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Tar, the best, containing 18 barrels, each barrel not exceeding 31 1/2 gallons	0	15	0	1	5	0	0	14	0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, the last containing 18 such barrels	0	12	0	1	3	4	0	13	5
Barbadoes tar, per cwt.	0	8	0	0	8	0	0	0	0
Taraxacum, per quarter	0	10	0	50	0	0	57	10	0

Terms per bushel
 per cwt. per lb.
 from 21 April, 1834,
 to 31st Decr. 1834,
 1835, 1836, 1837,
 1838, 1839, 1840,
 1841, 1842, 1843,
 1844, 1845, 1846,
 1847, 1848, 1849,
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 1985, 1986, 1987,
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Articles.	Duty.		
	1 Jan. 1854.	1819.	1787.
Water—continued.			
mineral or natural water, per dozen bottles or flasks (each bottle or flask not exceeding 3 pints) strong water. See Spirits.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 1 10
Wax, viz.			
bees' wax, viz.			
unbleached, per cwt.	1 10 0	3 6 8	1 11 7
in any degree bleached, per cwt.	3 0 0	6 3 6	3 3 4
imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, viz.			
unbleached, per cwt.	0 10 0	3 6 0	1 11 7
in any degree bleached, per cwt.	1 0 0	6 3 0	3 3 4
myrtle wax, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 4
sealing wax, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	30 0 0	30 0 0	37 10 0
Wool, per cwt.	0 1 6	0 8 8	0 0 10
White fish, per ton	95 6 0	96 0 0	97 16 0
taken and caught by the crew of a British ship, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any British possession, in a British ship, per ton	1 0 0	2 7 8	2 16 0
Whipcord, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 2
Wine, viz.			
Cape, per tun	34 18 0	17 4 6	23 10 8
excise ditto		21 0 0	14 5 7
Madeira, per tun	69 8 0	52 18 6	25 10 4
excise ditto		63 0 0	14 5 7
Rhenish, Germany, and Hungary, per tun	69 8 0	73 7 7	40 8 6
excise ditto		63 0 0	35 5 7
French, per tun	69 8 0	79 7 7	31 8 5
excise ditto		98 17 8	23 10 4
other wines, per tun	69 8 0	83 0 0	14 5 7
excise ditto			
(The full duties on wine are drawn back upon exportation.)			
less, subject to the same duty as wine, but no drawback is allowed on the lees of wine exported.			
Wire, viz.			
brass or copper, per cwt.	2 10 0	5 14 0	2 12 2
gilt or plated, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	35 0 0	80 0 0	Prohibited.
iron, per cwt.	1 0 0	6 18 8	2 17 9
latens, per cwt.	1 0 0	8 8 8	2 18 3
silver, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	39 0 0	60 0 0	Prohibited.
steel, per lb.	0 1 10	0 1 10	0 0 10
Wood, per cwt.	0 1 6	0 6 6	0 1 7 1/2
Wood, viz.			
anchorstocks, per piece	0 8 4	0 6 4	0 2 3
imported from any British possession in America, per piece	0 10 0	0 10 0	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Balks, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	18 2 7	13 3 7	1 1 3
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	27 6 6	30 0 0 per cent.	2 16 0 per 120.
5 inches square, or upwards, are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
balks imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	2 8 0	0 16 5	Free.
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	4 17 9	0 16 3	Free.
5 inches square, or upwards, are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Battens imported into Great Britain, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not above 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	10 0 0	10 11 6 8 to 30 feet.	1 6 6 8 to 30 feet.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 91 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	11 10 0	21 8 0 above 30 feet.	2 15 0 above 30 feet.
exceeding 21 feet in length and not exceeding 45 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	20 0 0	21 8 0 above 30 feet.	2 15 0 above 30 feet.
exceeding 45 feet in length, or above 2 3/4 inches in thickness (not being timber 8 inches square), per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	21 3 0 above 30 feet.	2 15 0 above 30 feet.
and further, per 120	6 0 0		
battens of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
exceeding 18 feet in length, and not exceeding 81 feet in length, and not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 8 0	0 8 4	Free.
exceeding 81 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, or if exceeding 2 3/4 inches in thickness, per 120	0 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Battens imported into Ireland, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 12 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	5 6 3	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 12 feet in length and not exceeding 14 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	6 14 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 14 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	11 1 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	13 9 4	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 30 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	13 17 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 30 feet in length and not exceeding 45 feet in length, and not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	34 0 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 45 feet in length, or above 3 1/4 inches in thickness (not being timber 8 inches square), per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
and further per 120	6 0 0		

Articles.	Duty.		
	1 Jan. 1834.	1818.	1871.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Wood—continued.			
deal, above 7 inches wide, viz.			
8 feet to 20 feet long, not above 3 1/4 inches thick, per 120	• • •	• • •	£ 13 0
8 feet to 20 feet long, above 3 1/4 inches thick, per 120	• • •	• • •	£ 6 0 0
above 20 feet long, not above 4 inches thick, per 120	• • •	• • •	£ 10 0 0
above 20 feet long, above 4 inches thick, per 120	• • •	• • •	£ 11 10 0
above 45 feet in length, or above 3 1/4 inches in thickness (not being timber 8 inches square or upwards), the load, containing 50 cubic feet	£ 10 0	• • •	• • •
and further, per 120	£ 0 0	• • •	• • •
deal of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			No rate.
Above 7 inches in width, being 8 feet in length and not above 16 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	£ 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, above 16 feet in length and not above 21 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	£ 10 0	0 8 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, being 8 feet in length and not above 21 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	4 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, exceeding 21 feet in length, and not exceeding 4 inches in thickness, per 120	8 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, exceeding 31 feet in length, and exceeding 4 inches in thickness (not being timber 8 inches square or upwards), per 120	10 0 0	0 8 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
deal imported into Ireland, viz.			
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, viz.			
8 feet in length and not exceeding 12 feet in length, per 120	12 8 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 12 feet in length and not exceeding 14 feet in length, per 120	14 11 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 14 feet in length and not exceeding 16 feet in length, per 120	16 12 6	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 16 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, per 120	18 14 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	20 16 7	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, viz.			
8 feet in length and not exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	41 11 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and not exceeding 4 inches in thickness, and exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	81 8 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and exceeding 4 inches in thickness, and exceeding 80 feet in length, per 120	100 0 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
deal ends imported into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	8 0 0	7 1 8 under 6 feet.	0 17 8 under 6 feet.
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	18 0 0	13 14 9 under 6 feet.	1 15 4 under 6 feet.
deal ends of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	0 16 0	0 8 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 10 0	0 8 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
deal ends imported into Ireland, viz.			
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and under 6 feet in length, viz.			
not exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	7 1 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 3 1/4 inches in thickness, per 120	13 14 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
deal and deal ends, viz.			
of all sorts, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Ireland, per 120	0 8 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
and further, on all deals and deal ends, imported into Ireland, of the aforesaid lengths and thicknesses, but of the following widths, the additional duties following, viz.			
If exceeding 12 inches in width and not exceeding 18 inches in width, 25 per cent., or 1-4 of the aforesaid rates.			
If exceeding 18 inches in width and not exceeding 18 inches in width, 50 per cent., or 1-2 of the aforesaid rates.			
If exceeding 18 inches in width and not exceeding 21 inches in width, 75 per cent., or 3-4 of the aforesaid rates.			
If exceeding 21 inches in width, 100 per cent., or an additional duty of equal to the aforesaid rates, respectively.			
drawn out flat or proper to be used other than as such, viz.			
the fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 8 8
imported from any British possession in America, the fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 0 10	0 0 10	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
fir quarters, viz.			
under 8 inches square and under 24 feet in length, per 120	12 8 7	16 8 7	1 1 8
under 5 inches square and 24 feet in length or upwards, per 120	27 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	9 18 0 per 120.
8 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
fir quarters of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
under 8 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	8 0 0	0 16 8	Free.
under 8 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	4 17 8	0 16 8	Free.
8 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			

Articles.	Duty 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Wood—continued.			
<i>See Timber.</i>			
boards, viz.			
under 7 feet in length, per 120	8 0 0	8 7 6	0 6 8
7 feet in length or upwards, per 120	4 0 0	4 15 0	0 13 4
boards imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 7 feet in length, per 120	0 8 8	0 2 2	Free.
7 feet in length or upwards, per 120	0 8 0	0 4 8	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
boards of oak, viz.			
under 5 inches square, per 120	0 10 0	0 19 0	0 8 4
5 inches square and under 8 inches square, per 120	4 0 0	2 17 8	1 13 0
8 inches square or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	1 6 0	1 11 0	0 9 11
boards of oak imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 5 inches square, per 120	0 2 0	0 3 4	Free.
5 inches square and under 8 inches square, per 120	0 15 0	0 3 4	Free.
8 inches square or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 5 0	0 5 8	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
timber, viz.			
in pieces under 5 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	4 8 0	4 17 6	0 19 3
in pieces 5 feet in length and under 8 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	6 18 0	7 5 0	0 19 10
8 feet in length and under 12 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	10 4 0	7 8 0	0 19 10
12 feet long or upwards, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	13 18 0	7 8 0	0 19 10
timber imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
in pieces under 5 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 15 0	0 6 0	Free.
in pieces 5 feet in length or upwards, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	1 5 0	0 6 0	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
masts, yards, or bowsprits, viz.			
6 inches in diameter and under 8 inches, each	0 8 0	0 9 8	0 1 14
8 inches in diameter and under 12 inches, each	1 2 0	1 5 2	0 5 4
12 inches in diameter or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	2 16 0	3 5 0	0 6 8
masts, yards, or bowsprits, imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
6 inches in diameter and under 8 inches, each	0 1 8	0 2 2	0 1 14
8 inches in diameter and under 12 inches, each	0 4 8	0 3 4	0 3 4
12 inches in diameter or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	1 10 0	0 6 8
masts, yards, or bowsprits, imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
2 inches in thickness or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	4 0 0	5 18 6	0 19 10
oak plank of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
8 inches in thickness or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 15 0	0 8 4 per 120.	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
oak timber. <i>See Timber.</i>			
oak, per 120	14 19 3	14 19 3	1 10 5
of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 18 6	0 18 6	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
oaks, viz.			
under 22 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	2 8 0	2 16 8	0 8 6
22 feet in length or upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	4 8 0	4 17 6	0 11 0
4 inches in diameter and under 6 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	8 0 0	10 11 6	1 4 8
of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
under 22 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	0 8 0	0 18 2	Free.
22 feet in length or upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	8 16 0	8 18 2	Free.
4 inches in diameter and under 6 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	1 18 0	0 16 3	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
oaks for wheels, viz.			
not exceeding 8 feet in length, per 1,000	8 7 4	8 7 4	0 18 10
exceeding 8 feet in length, per 1,000	8 14 8	8 14 8	0 18 10
of all sorts, of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 1,000	0 6 4	0 6 4	Free.
<i>See Note at the end of Wood.</i>			
staves, viz.			
not exceeding 36 inches in length, not above 8 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	1 8 8	1 8 8	0 4 0
above 36 inches in length and not exceeding 50 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	2 6 0	2 9 8	0 7 6
above 50 inches in length and not exceeding 60 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	3 0 0	3 5 0	0 10 0
above 60 inches in length and not exceeding 72 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	4 4 0	4 15 10	0 15 0
above 72 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	4 16 0	5 9 0	0 17 6
above 3 inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and not exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed clap boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
above 3 inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed pipe boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
staves imported from any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
not exceeding 36 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 6 0	0 1 8	Free.

Articles.	Duty 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Woolens, viz. manufactures of wool not being goats' wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value -	15 0 0	50 0 0	} Prohibited.
articles of manufactures of wool (not being goats' wool) or of wool mixed with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value -	50 0 0	50 0 0	
Wool. See Derrilict.			
Y.			
Tex, viz. cable yarn, per cwt.	0 10 9	1 1 8	0 8 6
man or scolar yarn, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 7	0 0 7
new lines yarn, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	Free.
worsted yarn, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 7	0 0 10
Z.			
Lin, per cwt.	0 1 0	50 0 0 per cent.	57 10 0 per cent.
Iron wood, per ton	2 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	33 0 0 per cent.
Goods, wares, and merchandises, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor other- wise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value -	20 0 0	50 0 0	57 10 0
Goods, wares, and merchandises, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor other- wise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value -	5 0 0	50 0 0	57 10 0
<p><i>Note</i>—All goods, the produce or manufacture of the island of Martinique, are subject to the same duties as are imposed in the Table on the like goods, the produce or manufacture of the British possessions in the West Indies.</p> <p>All goods, the produce or manufacture of the Cape of Good Hope or the territories or dependencies thereof, are subject to the same duties as are imposed in this Table on the like goods, the produce or manufacture of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter, except when any other duty is expressly imposed thereon.</p>			

DUTIES OF CUSTOMS OUTWARDS.

Table of Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise exported from the United Kingdom to Foreign Parts.

	L. s. d.			L. s. d.	
Cash, not being small coals, exported to any place not being a British possession, viz. in a British ship, per ton	0	3 4	Cotton yarn or other cotton manufactures, Fals.		
in a ship not British, per ton	0	6 6	Linen, or linen with cotton mixed.		
Small coals, culm, and cinders exported to any place not being a British possession, viz. in a British ship, per ton	0	2 0	Malacca or treacle.		
in a ship not British, per ton	0	4 0	Military clothing, accoutrements, or appointments exported under the authority of the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, and sent to any of his Majesty's forces serving abroad.		
Horn skins and coney skins, per 100 skins	0	1 0	Military stores exported to India by the East India Company.		
Hare wool and coney wool, per cwt.	0	1 0	Salt.		
Sheep and lamb wool, per cwt.	0	1 0	Sugar, refined, of all sorts, and sugar candy.		
Woolens, mortings, shorthings, yarn, worsted, wool- locks, travels, cravettes, waddings, or other ma- nufactures or pretended manufactures, slightly wrought up, so as that the same may be reduced to and made use of as wool again, mattresses or beds wadded with combed wool or wool fit for combing or carding, per cwt.	0	1 0	Goods, wares, and merchandise exported to the Isle of Man by virtue of any licence which the com- missioners of his Majesty's customs may be em- powered to grant.		
Goods, wares, and merchandises of the growth, pro- duce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom (not being subject to other export duty, nor particularly taxed from export duty), for every 100 <i>l.</i> value Except the following articles, viz. Billion and coin.	0	10 0	Any sort of craft, food, victuals, clothing, or imple- ments or materials necessary for the British fisheries established in any of the British posses- sions in North America, and exported direct thereto.		
Corn, grain, meal, malt, flour, biscuit, bran, grits, peas barley, and Scotch barley.			Wool.		
			Woolen goods, or woolen and cotton mixed, or woollen and linen mixed, exported to any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter.		

INLAND DUTIES OF EXCISE.

	L. s. d.			L. s. d.	
Bricks, of exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 9 inches wide, per 1,000	0	5 10	Paper—continued.		
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0	10 0	glazed paper, millboard, and scoreboard, per cwt.	1	1 0
smoothed or polished 3 or more sides, not exceed- ing 10 inches long by 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0	12 10	pasteboard, made wholly of second class paper, per cwt.	0	14 0
not exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0	2 5	made wholly or in part of paper other than the second class, per cwt.	1	8 0
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0	4 10	printed, painted, or stained, per yard	0	0 18
Clay, s. flat, per lb.	0	0 5	Soap, viz. hard, per lb.	0	0 14
bricks, per cwt.	1	10 0	soft, per lb.	0	0 1
crucible, per cwt.	5	14 6	Spirits, made in England, per gallon	0	7 6
plates, in plates or sheets of not less than 8 in by 4 in, and not less than 1/8 in nor more than 5/8 of an inch in thickness, per cwt.	3	0 0	made in Scotland or Ireland, for home consump- tion, per gallon	0	3 4
other than in such plates or sheets, per cwt.	4	14 0	Imported from Scotland or Ireland into England, per gallon	0	7 6
common bottles, per cwt.	0	7 0	Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0	0 9
Hops, per lb.	0	0 2	Stone bottles, not exceeding 9 quarts measure, per cwt.	0	5 3
Malt, made from barley, per bushel	0	2 7	Sweets, or liquors made by infusion, fermentation, or otherwise, from fruit or sugar, or from fruit and sugar mixed with any other ingredients or materials whatsoever, commonly called sweets or made wines, per gallon	0	0 6
made from hear or bigg only, in Scotland or Ireland, per bushel	0	2 0	Vinegar, or acetic acid, or liquors prepared pre- paring for vinegar, or acetic acid, per gallon	0	0 3
Yeast, or mashing, per gallon	0	0 6			
Paper, first class, viz. all paper other than brown paper, made of rind reves or cordage only, per lb. second class, viz. all brown paper, made of rind reves and cordage only, per lb.	0	0 8			
	0	0 14			

CUSTOMS AND EXCISE DRAWSBACKS.

	L. s. d.		L. s. d.	
Beer, brewed by any entered brewer, for sale in the United Kingdom, and duty exported from any part of the same in foreign parts, as merchandise, per barrel of 36 gallons Imperial measure	0 5 0	Plate—continued.		
Bricks, not exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 5 10	stands or frames wares of silver not weighing 2 drams, silver or steel, but the exception not to include necks, tops, and collars for cravats, or on any wares appearing to be of such a nature as to be adapted to be used as ornaments, or solid silver studs, not having a bevelled edge soldered on; wrought nails, blank nails, bottle ticks, shoe clasps, patch boxes, salt spoons, salt ladles, tea spoons, tea strainers, caddy ladles, buckles, and pieces of various cabinets, or hair cases, tin chests, brushes, stands, or frames.—(35 Geo. 3. c. 15.)	0 10 0	
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0 12 10	Rice—Upon the exportation from the United Kingdom of any foreign rice or paddy, cleaned therein, and which have paid the duties on importation, a drawback shall be allowed & paid for every hundred weight thereof, equal in amount to the duty paid on every 4 lbs. of the rough rice, or paddy, from which the same shall have been cleaned, viz. per cwt.	0 2 5	
smoothed or polished on 1 or more sides, not exceeding 10 in. long by 5 in. wide, per 1,000	0 4 10	Silk goods manufactured in the United Kingdom, viz. for every pound of stuff or ribands of silk, composed of silk only, and being of the value of 14s. at least for every pound of stuff or ribands of silk and cotton mixed, whereof 1/3 at least shall be silk, and being of the value of 4s. 6d. at least for every pound of stuff or ribands of silk and worsted mixed, whereof 1/3 at least shall be silk, and being of the value of 2s. 6d. at least.	0 4 10	
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 10 0	Soap, viz. hard, per lb.	0 1 0	
Glass, vit. flint, per lb.	0 0 8	soft, per lb.	0 0 1	
broad, per cwt.	1 10 0	Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0 0 5	
crowns per cwt.	3 12 6	Stone bottles, not exceeding 2 quarts measure, per cwt.	0 0 12	
plates, in plates or sheets of not less than 6 in. by 4 in., and not less than 1/8th nor more than 3/16ths of an inch in thickness, per cwt.	3 0 0	Sugar (refined), viz.	0 17 0	
other than in such plates or sheets, per cwt.	4 10 0	beet sugar, or refined loaf sugar broken in pieces, or being ground or powdered sugar, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, exported in a British ship, or re-exported in a ship not British, per cwt.	0 10 0	
common bottles, per cwt.	0 7 0	other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or being daily refined, having been perfectly crystallized and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of a uniform whiteness throughout; or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, and sugar candy, exported in a British ship, or re-exported in a ship not British, per cwt.	1 4 0	
Hops, per lb.	0 0 6	double refined sugar, and sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, additional bounty; per cwt.	1 3 0	
Paper, first class, viz. all paper other than brown paper, made of old ropes or cordage only, per lb.	0 0 6	other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or being daily refined, having been perfectly crystallized and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of a uniform whiteness throughout; or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, and sugar candy, exported in a British ship, or re-exported in a ship not British, per cwt.	1 18 0	
second class, viz. all brown paper, made of old ropes and cordage only, per lb.	0 0 1 1/2	double refined sugar, and sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, additional bounty; per cwt.	1 15 0	
gilted paper, millboard, and scotchboard, per cwt.	1 1 0	Tobacco, manufactured in the United Kingdom, at or within 2 miles of any port into which tobacco may be imported, made into shag, roll, cut, or cut-rol tobacco, per lb.	0 6 4	
pasteboard, made wholly of second class paper, per cwt.	0 14 0	Wine, the produce of the Cape of Good Hope, or of the territories or dependencies thereof, and imported direct, per gallon	0 3 7 1/2	
made wholly or in part of paper other than the second class, per cwt.	1 2 0	French, Portuguese, Canary, Foyal, Madeira, Spanish, and other wines not enumerated, per gallon	0 2 0	
printed, painted, or stained, per yard	0 0 2		0 5 6	
Plate, of wrought gold, manufactured in Great Britain, and which shall or ought to be assayed and marked in Great Britain, viz.				
made since the 1st Dec. 1784, per oz.	0 8 0			
made since the 26th July, 1787, per oz.	0 10 0			
made since the 31st Aug. 1815, per oz.	0 12 0			
No drawback allowed on gold watch cases of any weight, nor shall any drawback be allowed on any articles of gold, not exceeding the weight of 3 ounces; and if any person shall export any manufacture of gold not duly marked, to denote the standard of 22 or 18 carats of fine gold in every lb. Troy, he shall forfeit 50l. Gold of the fineness of 18 carats to be marked with a "griffin and the figure 18."—(35 Geo. 3. c. 40, 36 Geo. 3. c. 128, and 1 Geo. 4. c. 14.)				
of wrought silver, manufactured in Great Britain, and which shall or ought to be assayed and marked in Great Britain, viz.				
made since the 1st Dec. 1784, per oz.	0 0 8			
made since the 5th July, 1797, per oz.	0 1 0			
made since the 10th Oct. 1804, per oz.	0 1 3			
made since the 31st Aug. 1815, per oz.	0 1 6			
No drawback allowed on silver watch cases, chains, necklaces, beads, lockets, filigree work, shirt buckles, or brooches, stamped medals, and spoons to china, stoneware, or earthenware teapots, whatever the weight; nor on tippings, awagars, or mounts, not weighing 100 vis. of silver each, and not being necks or collars for cravats, or cravats, or glasses, applicable to any article of				

COUNTERVAILING DUTIES.

Schedule of countervailing duties payable on the importation of certain articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland respectively; and of the drawback allowed on exportation from either country to the other. The following duties are payable on Irish articles brought for consumption into Great Britain, and the like amount is drawn back on the exportation of similar British articles to Ireland, except in the case of British hops sent to Ireland, on which no drawback is allowed.

	L. s. d.		L. s. d.
Bottles, of stone, not exceeding 2 quarts in measure, or the mouth or neck of which shall not exceed in diameter, in the narrowest part of the inside, 3 inches; or if made for blacking, and shall not exceed 1 pint in measure, and the mouth or neck of which shall not be less than 1 1/2 inch in diameter in the narrowest part of the inside, and which shall be permanently stamped with the words "blacking bottles," per cwt.	0 8 0	Plate, of wrought silver, per oz. Troy	0 0 6
Bricks, not exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 5 10	Soap, viz. hard soap, per lb.	0 0 1 1/2
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0 10 0	Spirits, made and extracted in Ireland, and warehoused there without payment of duty, and imported into England, for every 100 gallons Imperial measure, of spirits of the strength of proof, as denoted by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less degree of strength, or any greater or less quantity.—(9 Geo. 3. c. 50, & 17 Will. 4. c. 49.)	37 10 0
smoothed or polished on 1 or more sides, not exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 12 10	duty paid in Ireland, and imported into England, per gallon	0 4 9
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 4 10	Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0 0 5 1/2
Glass, vit. flint, per lb.	0 0 8	All other articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, to be drawn back from either country to the other without duty or drawback.	
broad, per cwt.	1 10 0		
crowns per cwt.	0 0 8		
plates, of wrought gold, per oz. Troy	0 12 0		

Remarks on Duties Inwards.—The Table of duties inwards previously laid before the reader, affords copious materials for reflection and comparison. Excepting a very few articles, such as silk, linens, gloves, &c., that were prohibited, the highest duties in 1787 seldom exceeded 27l. 10s. per cent. *ad valorem*. In the interval between 1787 and 1819 a good many changes were made in the mode of assessing the duties; several of those that were charged on the *ad valorem* principle at the former epoch, being changed into rated duties at the latter. The extraordinary rise of duties in the interval referred to is, however, the most striking circumstance. The fact, that in the arithmetic of the customs, 2 and 2, instead of always making 4, sometimes make only 1, was then totally forgotten. During the war, it does not seem to have once occurred to any of our finance ministers, that every increase of price necessarily lessens consumption; and that, were twice the quantity of a

	L.	s.	d.		L.	s.	d.
Maps or Charts, or parts thereof, viz.:-				Seal skins, of British taking, imported direct from the			
plain	each	0	0	fishery or from a British possession, the doz. skins	0	0	1
coloured	each	0	2	Seeds, viz.:-			
Marmalade, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign	the lb.	0	6	Poppy seed	the quarter	0	0
country				Sesuvilla seeds	the cwt.	0	0
Mats and matting, for every 100l. of the value	30	0	0	Shins, viz.:-			
imported from any British possession, for every 100l.				Goose skins, undressed	the skin	0	0
of the value	5	0	0	Speckled wood, the produce of, or imported from, any	0	16	0
Morphia and its salts	the lb.	0	16	foreign country	the ton	1	10
Nickel, viz. arseniate of Nickel, in lumps or powder, be-				Spices, viz.:-			
ing in an unrefined state, the 100l. of value	5	0	0	Cloves	the lb.	0	0
Nickel, metallic, refined, and oxide of nickel, the 100l. of				Mace	the lb.	0	2
value	20	0	0	Pepper	the lb.	0	8
Nuts, viz., castor nuts or seed	the ton	4	0	Pimento	the lb.	0	0
Nutmeg, viz.:-				Spirits, viz., liquors, the produce of and imported from			
wild nutmeg in the shell	the lb.	0	1	the British possessions in America, viz.:-			
Oil, viz. castor oil	the cwt.	0	1	not being of greater strength than the strength of			
Oil, viz. animal oil	the cwt.	0	5	proof by Sydenham's hydrometer	the gallon	0	0
Coconut oil	the cwt.	0	1	being of greater strength	the gallon	0	10
Olive oil	the ton	4	0	Spirits or strong waters, viz.:-			
the produce of or imported from any part of the				for every gallon of such spirits, or strong waters, of			
dominions of the King of the Two Sicilies, after				any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by			
31st of August, 1834	8	0	0	Sydenham's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any			
imported in a ship belonging to any of the subjects				greater or less strength than the strength of proof,			
of the King of the Two Sicilies, after 31st of Au-				and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon,			
gust, 1834	10	10	0	viz.:-			
not being spirits or strong waters the produce of any				British possession in America, or any British posses-			
sion within the limits of the East India Com-				sion within the limits of the East India Com-			
pany's charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or				pany's charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or			
spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree				spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree			
of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by				of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by			
such hydrometer	1	10	0	such hydrometer			
Spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British				Spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British			
possession in America, not being sweetened spirits,				possession in America, not being sweetened spirits,			
or spirits so mixed as aforesaid	0	0	1	or spirits so mixed as aforesaid			
Spirits, or strong waters, the produce of any British				Spirits, or strong waters, the produce of any British			
possession within the limits of the East India Com-				possession within the limits of the East India Com-			
pany's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spi-				pany's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spi-			
rits so mixed as aforesaid	0	15	0	rits so mixed as aforesaid			
Succedanea, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign				Succedanea, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign			
country	the lb.	0	0	country	the lb.	0	0
Sugar, the produce of British India	the cwt.	1	4	Sugar, the produce of British India	the cwt.	1	4
Sweet wood, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign				Sweet wood, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign			
country	the ton	2	10	country	the ton	2	10
Tails, viz. buffalo, bull, cow, or ox tails	the lb.	0	0	Tails, viz. buffalo, bull, cow, or ox tails	the lb.	0	0
Tea	the lb.	0	2	Tea	the lb.	0	2
Teak wood	the load	0	10	Teak wood	the load	0	10
Teak wood, imported from any British possession within				Teak wood, imported from any British possession within			
the limits of the East India Company's charter				the limits of the East India Company's charter			
Teeth, viz. elephant, sea-cow, sea-horse, or sea-ne-				Teeth, viz. elephant, sea-cow, sea-horse, or sea-ne-			
tles	the load	0	0	tles	the load	0	0
Tia	the cwt.	0	1	Tia	the cwt.	0	1
Tie one	the cwt.	0	15	Tie one	the cwt.	0	15
Tulip wood	the cwt.	0	10	Tulip wood	the cwt.	0	10
Turpentine	the ton	2	0	Turpentine	the ton	2	0
Verdigris	the lb.	0	0	Verdigris	the lb.	0	0
Water, viz. mineral water	the gallon	0	0	Water, viz. mineral water	the gallon	0	0
Wax, viz. bees' wax, unbleached, the produce of the				Wax, viz. bees' wax, unbleached, the produce of the			
west coast of Africa, and imported from thence	the cwt.	0	10	west coast of Africa, and imported from thence	the cwt.	0	10

TARIFF, (AUSTRIAN).—Subjoined is the tariff of the import, export, and transit duties charged in the Austrian empire on some of the most important articles of trade and consumption. It came into operation on the 27th of February, 1838.

The duties imposed by this tariff, though, in some instances, considerably lower than those formerly charged, are still, speaking generally, very heavy. The duty on cotton and woollen goods, for example, is 60 per cent. *ad valorem*; while that on coffee is 38s. the English cwt., and on raw sugar for consumption, 32s. the cwt., and so forth. There is, in fact, a singular contradiction in the commercial policy of Austria; in some respects it is as liberal as could be wished for, while in others it is selfish and illiberal in the extreme. In all that respects ports and shipping, the legislation of Austria may be advantageously contrasted with that of almost any other nation. All articles are freely admitted into Trieste and Venice, and may be consumed in them, or warehoused and re-exported without being liable to any duty, the port charges being at the same time very reasonable. But the moment that it is attempted to introduce any article from a free port into the interior, it is loaded with oppressive duties, and subjected to vexatious regulations. These have been imposed in the view of protecting and encouraging domestic industry; but it is, perhaps, unnecessary to say that their effect in Austria, as in all other countries, has been precisely the reverse. Instead of trusting to their own exertions, and bringing the inexhaustible resources of science and ingenuity to their aid, the native producers, deprived of the stimulus of competition, depend for success on the efforts of the customs' officers to exclude foreign products, and to secure them a monopoly. There is, consequently, but little improvement. Every thing has about it an air of languor and routine. Most part, also, of the foreign products to be met with in the interior, have found their way there through clandestine channels. The mischievous influence of such a system is, indeed, too obvious to be disputed by any one not interested in its support. The recent modifications of the tariff, and the commercial treaty negotiated with this country, may, we hope, be regarded as the forerunners of still greater changes. A reduction of the duty on most foreign articles to a third or a fourth part of its present amount, would do more than any thing else to promote the industry of the empire, to stimulate commerce, and to increase the customs' revenue. Now that the navigation of the Danube is being opened, a reduction of this sort is more than ever necessary. The introduction of a taste for the productions of foreigners is of all others the most likely means by which the long dormant

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the cwt.
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the strength of
the gallon
the gallon
of strong water,
of the strength of proof,
in proportion for any
in the strength of proof,
in quantity than a gallon,
the produce of any
of the East India Com-
being sweetened spirits,
the produce of any British
being sweetened spirits,
the produce of any British
being sweetened spirits, or spi-
imported from, any foreign
the lb.
the cwt.
imported from, any foreign
the ton.
the cwt.
the lb.
the lb.
British possession within
the Company's charter,
the head
sea-horse, or sea-moose
the cwt.
the cwt.
the lb.
the lb.
the gallon
the produce of the
the cwt.

export, and transit duties
Articles of trade and com-
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energies, and immense productive capacities of Hungary, Transylvania, and the other eastern provinces of the empire, may be stimulated and developed. Unluckily, however, the existing duties must either go far, by excluding foreign products, wholly to prevent the formation of such a taste in the countries referred to, or if they should be imported, it will only be in limited quantities, and through the agency of the smuggler. The latter derives employment and wealth from this vicious system; and were it intended for his advantage, it might be said to be well contrived, and the means judiciously adapted to bring about the desired end. But it is directly opposed to invention and industry; paralyzes the manufactures it was intended to protect; and either annihilates all commerce, or makes it redound to the advantage only of those who trample on the laws. No system can be more completely at variance with the paternal intentions of the Austrian government; and its downfall may be expected the moment they become fully aware of its real nature and practical influence.

The great drawback under which Austria labours, is the situation of by far the larger portion of her provinces in the central parts of Europe; and separated from the great markets for their produce, either by a wide tract of intervening country, or by high mountain ridges, Austria is naturally an agricultural country; and, unless compelled by circumstances to divert a portion of her energies to manufactures, will, no doubt, continue such for a lengthened period: and hence, as the products of agricultural industry are at once heavy and bulky in proportion to their value, the advantage of opening improved channels of communication with other countries. In this respect, the free navigation of the Danube is of much importance, though more stress has been laid upon it in this country than it probably deserves. The expense of carrying corn and timber from Hungary to the Black Sea, and thence to the ports of Western Europe, will, we apprehend, always be found too heavy to permit of England or France ever supplying themselves, at least to any considerable extent, with the corn, flax, or timber of Hungary or Transylvania. The cost of conveying produce from the interior of the continent to the nearest shipping ports, is a most important element, which is too generally lost sight of in this country. To show its influence, we may mention that, on the 28th of November, 1838, wheat sold at Lemberg, one of the principal markets of Galicia, for 15s. 2d. a quarter; when its price at Dantzic, on the 20th of the same month, was 41s. 6d.; the difference, amounting to 26s. 4d. a quarter, being occasioned by the difficulty and expense of conveying corn down the Vistula, from Lemberg to Dantzic. We may remark, by the way, that this fact sets in a very striking point of view the absurdity of the statements so frequently put forth in our newspapers, contrasting prices in this country with those in foreign markets, and ascribing their excess in England wholly to the influence of our corn laws.

The Austrian government and people have long been alive to the many advantages that would result from opening a communication between Hungary and Fiume, and other ports on the Adriatic. And notwithstanding the obstacles opposed by the interposition of the Julian Alps, and other mountain ridges, an excellent road has been carried from Carlsbad to Fiume. Still, however, the expenses of the carriage of bulky products are too great to make this route sufficiently available; and the advantage of further improving and cheapening the communication is too obvious to need being pointed out.

Taxs of Import, Export, and Transit Duties levied in the Austrian Empire on the following Articles, as modified by the late Imperial Ordinance in force from the 27th of February, 1838.

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Unit of charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.
Linen, flax, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	fl. 2 0 12	fl. 1 0 14	fl. 2 0 12	ad valorem	1 0 0	0 0 0	2 0 0
Wool, all kinds of butchers'	gross centner	0 60	0 11 4	0 9	123 1-3 lbs.	0 1 8	0 0 0	0 5 8
Wool, comb.	gross centner	8 68	0 61 4	0 8	---	0 4 11	0 0 0	0 5 8
Wool, fleecy	---	1 40	0 61 4	0 8	---	0 2 8	0 0 0	0 5 8
Wool, combed	---	0 48	0 1 0	0 2	---	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 5 8
Wool, fleecy, in packs or bampers	per bottle	5 0	0 8	0 8	per bottle.	0 10 0	0 0 2	0 4 5
Wool, fleecy, in packs or bampers	per bottle	0 8	0 0 1 4	0 8	per bottle.	0 0 2 8	0 0 0	0 11 10
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	net centner	0 10	---	---	123 1-3 lbs.	0 0 4	---	---
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	per 1 fl. value	0 38	0 0 1 4	0 8	ad valorem	80 0 0	0 0 0	0 11 10
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	net centner	8 20	0 61 4	0 8	123 1-3 lbs.	0 16 8	0 0 0	0 2 8
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	13 20	0 18 1 4	0 8	---	1 8 4	0 0 0	0 5
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	gross centner	60 0	0 25	0 8	---	8 0 0	0 0 0	0 10
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	gross centner	15 0	0 25	0 8	---	1 10 0	0 0 0	0 10
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	net centner	61 0	0 17 1 8	0 8	---	2 2 0	0 0 0	0 7 2
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	0 50	0 30	0 8	---	0 1 8	0 1 0	0 4 5
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	10 0	0 12 1 4	0 8	---	1 0 0	0 0 0	0 8
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	16 0	0 11 4	0 8	---	1 10 0	0 0 0	0 8
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	gross centner	0 22 1 8	0 1 4	0 8	---	0 0 9	0 0 0	0 2 5
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	0 15	0 0 3 4	0 8	---	0 0 8	0 0 0	0 3 8
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	0 17	0 0 8 4	0 8	---	0 0 8 4	0 0 0	0 3 8
Wool, fleecy, or other common wools	---	8 18	0 0 8 4	0 8	---	0 0 8 4	0 0 0	0 3 8

Tariff.—continued.

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Unit of charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.
Cotton manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	1-4 p. cent.	0 27	ad valorem	0 0	0 0	0 110
Wool manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	1-4 p. cent.	0 27	123 1-3 lbs.	1 10 0	0 1 0	0 64
Earthenware, common	gross centner	7 30	0 1-4	0 2	—	0 15 0	0 0	0 245
Porcelain, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 1-4	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0	0 210
Fire engines	net centner	10 0	0 35	0 5	120 1-4 lbs.	1 0 0	0 0	0 10
Fish: stockfish, codfish, herrings, &c., salted or cured	gross centner	2 0	0 5	0 5	—	0 4 0	0 0 8	—
Glass: flat and crown glass, wares, ordinary	—	0 60	0 4	0 2	—	0 12 0	0 0 10	0 63
cut, all kinds, plates for looking glasses	—	—	—	—	—	0 18 4	0 0 135	0 63
artificial brilliants	—	30 0	0 4	0 2	—	2 0 0	0 0 135	10 63
Hats, beaver, silk, whalebone and other stuffs, also straw and ladies' hats and bonnets	—	30 0	0 4	0 2	—	2 0 0	0 0 135	10 63
Indigo	each	1 0	0 1	0 27	each	0 2 0	0 0 23	10 63
gross centner	7 30	1 62 1-3	0 27	123 1-3 lbs.	0 15 0	0 3 0	—	10 63
Instrument, mathematical, astronomical, and optical	per 1 fl. value	0 6	0 1-4	0 2	ad valorem	10 0 0	0 0 110	0 63
musical	—	0 12	0 1-4	0 2	—	30 0 0	0 0 110	0 63
Iron, raw, in pigs	net centner	2 24	0 45	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 5 7 1-5	0 0 23	0 63
cut, wares of	—	0 54	0 1-2	0 2	—	0 12 0	0 0 1	0 63
hammered, in bars, rods, cast steel	—	0 0	0 1-2	0 2	—	0 12 0	0 0 1	0 63
hammered steel	—	2 30	0 3-4	0 2	—	0 7 0	0 0 245	0 63
sheet iron	—	12 12	0 4	0 2	—	0 14 4-45	0 0 135	0 63
tin	gross centner	3 36	0 4	0 2	—	0 14 4-45	0 0 135	0 63
steel and iron wire	net centner	12 0	0 1-8	0 2	—	1 11 22-5	0 0 245	0 63
Ironmongery, as tushors, hammered wares, ordnance raps, files, &c.	—	12 0	0 5	0 2	—	1 4 0	0 0 8	0 63
locksmiths', gunsmiths', and apparatus work, also carriage springs and hoops, common	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
locksmiths' &c. work, &c., and all the polished hardware	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 1-4	0 19	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 110	4 63
fine film, scales, grovers' tools, &c.	net lb.	0 12	0 1-4	0 12	net lb.	0 0 4	0 0 110	0 63
Lead, raw, in blocks	net centner	6 12	0 3-4	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 12 2 2-5	0 0 110	0 63
cast, as balls and shot	—	7 12	0 5	0 2	—	0 14 4-45	0 0 110	0 63
Leather, ox and cow hides, tanned	—	15 0	0 25	0 5	—	1 10 0	0 0 10	3
carriage skins, tanned and dressed	—	35 0	0 50	0 5	—	3 10 0	0 1 8	3
Linen, knit, as stockings, gloves, &c.	net lb.	6 0	0 1-4	0 27	net lb.	0 22 0	0 0 115	10 63
embroidered	—	6 0	0 1-4	0 27	—	0 12 0	0 0 115	10 63
ribbands, tapes, galoons, &c.	—	2 30	0 1-4	0 27	—	0 8 0	0 0 110	10 63
other fine woollen linens	—	20 1-4	0 1-4	0 27	—	0 8 8 1-5	0 0 110	10 63
Oil, olive	gross centner	4 0	0 10	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 2 0	0 4	0 63
hempseed oil	—	2 30	0 1-4	0 2	—	0 8 0	0 0 135	0 63
fish or train oil	—	0 18	0 7-8	0 2	—	0 0 245	—	0 63
pitch or tar oil	—	2 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 4 0	0 0 2	0 63
rosin	—	2 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 4 0	0 0 2	0 63
Serpentine	—	2 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 4 0	0 0 2	0 63
Palatine colours, raw prepared	—	0 25	0 0	0 2	—	0 10 0	0 0 2	0 63
—	—	3 20	0 0	0 2	—	0 5 8	0 0 2	0 63
Papers, all kinds, except worked into articles of luxury	net centner	3 30	0 4	0 2	—	0 8 8	0 0 151	4 63
Printed and the manufactures of plate: gold and silver	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 1-4	0 19	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 110	0 63
Playing cards	gross lb.	0 36	0 2	0 12	per lb.	0 0 5	0 0 115	0 63
Salt	per 100 lbs. gross	—	—	0 1	per 100 lbs. gross	0 1 12 5	free	0 23
Silk: wares silk	gross centner	prohibited	free	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	prohibited	free	0 63
Syringae and wax	net lb.	10	0 1 1-2	0 27	net lb.	0 0 0	0 0 23	10 63
Spirits, distilled, in casks	gross lb.	0 36	0 0-4	0 27	gross lb.	0 1 12 5	0 0 0-5	10 63
in bottles	—	10 0	0 12 1-2	0 12	—	1 8 22-5	0 0 23	4 63
Sugar, refined, all kinds	net centner	12 0	0 2	—	—	1 0 0	0 0 4	4 63
raw, powdered for the trade	—	15 0	0 2	—	—	1 10 0	0 0	—
raw, for the use of refiners	—	15 0	0 1-2	—	—	1 10 0	0 0	—
others, for refiners	—	7 30	0 1-2	—	—	0 15 0	0 0 8	3
Tobacco, in leaf	—	15 0	0 25	—	—	1 10 0	0 0 8	3
manufactured	—	40 0	0 5	0 5	—	4 0 0	0 0 2	2
Wine: cape wine, French, Spanish, and German	gross centner	15 0	0 2	0 2	—	1 0 0	0 0 645	0 63
in bottles	per bottle	0 30	0 0	0 2	per bottle.	0 1 0	—	0 63
Wool: dyewoods, in blocks or pieces	net centner	0 12 1-3	0 5	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 0 5	0 0	2 63
Woolen manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 1-4	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 110	10 63

One Vienna pound = 1.235 lb. avoirdupois, hence the centner of 100 Vienna pounds = 123.5 lb. avoirdupois.
 The Austrian florin of the standard of 20 to the Cologne mark, is almost exactly 2 shillings sterling.
 In the Lombardo Venetian kingdom, the centner of 100 kilogrammes is still the weight used in levying the duty, the difference between 100 kilogrammes = 78.8 lb. of Austria being allowed.

TARIFF (RUSSIAN).—By comparing the following important document with the late tariff, it will be seen that nearly 100 articles that were formerly prohibited are now admitted under payment of duties; and that the duties on several articles that were formerly admitted have been materially reduced. The publication of this tariff is evidence that sounder and more enlarged opinions on commercial affairs have made their way into the cabinet of Petersburg. The duties on many imported articles are still, no doubt, quite oppressive; but it

may be fair to present a means of doing business will do half of the value of the commercial trade; but attempts to industry to equal or surpass it is pretty other foreign the concessions history of it have ex far, in the of abusing to undertake figure us; instances, government whod to. have no reason one country of protection losses as to years of the Decree labor, in lump fine, on extrinsic side of public, still appears, and letters and cut- which to be w (class unen- prohibited. Annual trade - 5th books - 1st books - 2nd books - 3rd books - 4th books - 5th books - 6th books - 7th books - 8th books - 9th books - 10th books - 11th books - 12th books - 13th books - 14th books - 15th books - 16th books - 17th books - 18th books - 19th books - 20th books - 21st books - 22nd books - 23rd books - 24th books - 25th books - 26th books - 27th books - 28th books - 29th books - 30th books - 31st books - 32nd books - 33rd books - 34th books - 35th books - 36th books - 37th books - 38th books - 39th books - 40th books - 41st books - 42nd books - 43rd books - 44th books - 45th books - 46th books - 47th books - 48th books - 49th books - 50th books - 51st books - 52nd books - 53rd books - 54th books - 55th books - 56th books - 57th books - 58th books - 59th books - 60th books - 61st books - 62nd books - 63rd books - 64th books - 65th books - 66th books - 67th books - 68th books - 69th books - 70th books - 71st books - 72nd books - 73rd books - 74th books - 75th books - 76th books - 77th books - 78th books - 79th books - 80th books - 81st books - 82nd books - 83rd books - 84th books - 85th books - 86th books - 87th books - 88th books - 89th books - 90th books - 91st books - 92nd books - 93rd books - 94th books - 95th books - 96th books - 97th books - 98th books - 99th books - 100th books - 101st books - 102nd books - 103rd books - 104th books - 105th books - 106th books - 107th books - 108th books - 109th books - 110th books - 111th books - 112th books - 113th books - 114th books - 115th books - 116th books - 117th books - 118th books - 119th books - 120th books - 121st books - 122nd books - 123rd books - 124th books - 125th books - 126th books - 127th books - 128th books - 129th books - 130th books - 131st books - 132nd books - 133rd books - 134th books - 135th books - 136th books - 137th books - 138th books - 139th books - 140th books - 141st books - 142nd books - 143rd books - 144th books - 145th books - 146th books - 147th books - 148th books - 149th books - 150th books - 151st books - 152nd books - 153rd books - 154th books - 155th books - 156th books - 157th books - 158th books - 159th books - 160th books - 161st books - 162nd books - 163rd books - 164th books - 165th books - 166th books - 167th books - 168th books - 169th books - 170th books - 171st books - 172nd books - 173rd books - 174th books - 175th books - 176th books - 177th books - 178th books - 179th books - 180th books - 181st books - 182nd books - 183rd books - 184th books - 185th books - 186th books - 187th books - 188th books - 189th books - 190th books - 191st books - 192nd books - 193rd books - 194th books - 195th books - 196th books - 197th books - 198th books - 199th books - 200th books - 201st books - 202nd books - 203rd books - 204th books - 205th books - 206th books - 207th books - 208th books - 209th books - 210th books - 211st books - 212nd books - 213rd books - 214th books - 215th books - 216th books - 217th books - 218th books - 219th books - 220th books - 221st books - 222nd books - 223rd books - 224th books - 225th books - 226th books - 227th books - 228th books - 229th books - 230th books - 231st books - 232nd books - 233rd books - 234th books - 235th books - 236th books - 237th books - 238th books - 239th books - 240th books - 241st books - 242nd books - 243rd books - 244th books - 245th books - 246th books - 247th books - 248th books - 249th books - 250th books - 251st books - 252nd books - 253rd books - 254th books - 255th books - 256th books - 257th books - 258th books - 259th books - 260th books - 261st books - 262nd books - 263rd books - 264th books - 265th books - 266th books - 267th books - 268th books - 269th books - 270th books - 271st books - 272nd books - 273rd books - 274th books - 275th books - 276th books - 277th books - 278th books - 279th books - 280th books - 281st books - 282nd books - 283rd books - 284th books - 285th books - 286th books - 287th books - 288th books - 289th books - 290th books - 291st books - 292nd books - 293rd books - 294th books - 295th books - 296th books - 297th books - 298th books - 299th books - 300th books - 301st books - 302nd books - 303rd books - 304th books - 305th books - 306th books - 307th books - 308th books - 309th books - 310th books - 311st books - 312nd books - 313rd books - 314th books - 315th books - 316th books - 317th books - 318th books - 319th books - 320th books - 321st books - 322nd books - 323rd books - 324th books - 325th books - 326th books - 327th books - 328th books - 329th books - 330th books - 331st books - 332nd books - 333rd books - 334th books - 335th books - 336th books - 337th books - 338th books - 339th books - 340th books - 341st books - 342nd books - 343rd books - 344th books - 345th books - 346th books - 347th books - 348th books - 349th books - 350th books - 351st books - 352nd books - 353rd books - 354th books - 355th books - 356th books - 357th books - 358th books - 359th books - 360th books - 361st books - 362nd books - 363rd books - 364th books - 365th books - 366th books - 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439th books - 440th books - 441st books - 442nd books - 443rd books - 444th books - 445th books - 446th books - 447th books - 448th books - 449th books - 450th books - 451st books - 452nd books - 453rd books - 454th books - 455th books - 456th books - 457th books - 458th books - 459th books - 460th books - 461st books - 462nd books - 463rd books - 464th books - 465th books - 466th books - 467th books - 468th books - 469th books - 470th books - 471st books - 472nd books - 473rd books - 474th books - 475th books - 476th books - 477th books - 478th books - 479th books - 480th books - 481st books - 482nd books - 483rd books - 484th books - 485th books - 486th books - 487th books - 488th books - 489th books - 490th books - 491st books - 492nd books - 493rd books - 494th books - 495th books - 496th books - 497th books - 498th books - 499th books - 500th books - 501st books - 502nd books - 503rd books - 504th books - 505th books - 506th books - 507th books - 508th books - 509th books - 510th books - 511st books - 512nd books - 513rd books - 514th books - 515th books - 516th books - 517th books - 518th books - 519th books - 520th books - 521st books - 522nd books - 523rd books - 524th books - 525th books - 526th books - 527th books - 528th books - 529th books - 530th books - 531st books - 532nd books - 533rd books - 534th books - 535th books - 536th books - 537th books - 538th books - 539th books - 540th books - 541st books - 542nd books - 543rd books - 544th books - 545th books - 546th books - 547th books - 548th books - 549th books - 550th books - 551st books - 552nd books - 553rd books - 554th books - 555th books - 556th books - 557th books - 558th books - 559th books - 560th books - 561st books - 562nd books - 563rd books - 564th books - 565th books - 566th books - 567th books - 568th books - 569th books - 570th books - 571st books - 572nd books - 573rd books - 574th books - 575th books - 576th books - 577th books - 578th books - 579th books - 580th books - 581st books - 582nd books - 583rd books - 584th books - 585th books - 586th books - 587th books - 588th books - 589th books - 590th books - 591st books - 592nd books - 593rd books - 594th books - 595th books - 596th books - 597th books - 598th books - 599th books - 600th books - 601st books - 602nd books - 603rd books - 604th books - 605th books - 606th books - 607th books - 608th books - 609th books - 610th books - 611st books - 612nd books - 613rd books - 614th books - 615th books - 616th books - 617th books - 618th books - 619th books - 620th books - 621st books - 622nd books - 623rd books - 624th books - 625th books - 626th books - 627th books - 628th books - 629th books - 630th books - 631st books - 632nd books - 633rd books - 634th books - 635th books - 636th books - 637th books - 638th books - 639th books - 640th books - 641st books - 642nd books - 643rd books - 644th books - 645th books - 646th books - 647th books - 648th books - 649th books - 650th books - 651st books - 652nd books - 653rd books - 654th books - 655th books - 656th books - 657th books - 658th books - 659th books - 660th books - 661st books - 662nd books - 663rd books - 664th books - 665th books - 666th books - 667th books - 668th books - 669th books - 670th books - 671st books - 672nd books - 673rd books - 674th books - 675th books - 676th books - 677th books - 678th books - 679th books - 680th books - 681st books - 682nd books - 683rd books - 684th books - 685th books - 686th books - 687th books - 688th books - 689th books - 690th books - 691st books - 692nd books - 693rd books - 694th books - 695th books - 696th books - 697th books - 698th books - 699th books - 700th books - 701st books - 702nd books - 703rd books - 704th books - 705th books - 706th books - 707th books - 708th books - 709th books - 710th books - 711st books - 712nd books - 713rd books - 714th books - 715th books - 716th books - 717th books - 718th books - 719th books - 720th books - 721st books - 722nd books - 723rd books - 724th books - 725th books - 726th books - 727th books - 728th books - 729th books - 730th books - 731st books - 732nd books - 733rd books - 734th books - 735th books - 736th books - 737th books - 738th books - 739th books - 740th books - 741st books - 742nd books - 743rd books - 744th books - 745th books - 746th books - 747th books - 748th books - 749th books - 750th books - 751st books - 752nd books - 753rd books - 754th books - 755th books - 756th books - 757th books - 758th books - 759th books - 760th books - 761st books - 762nd books - 763rd books - 764th books - 765th books - 766th books - 767th books - 768th books - 769th books - 770th books - 771st books - 772nd books - 773rd books - 774th books - 775th books - 776th books - 777th books - 778th books - 779th books - 780th books - 781st books - 782nd books - 783rd books - 784th books - 785th books - 786th books - 787th books - 788th books - 789th books - 790th books - 791st books - 792nd books - 793rd books - 794th books - 795th books - 796th books - 797th books - 798th books - 799th books - 800th books - 801st books - 802nd books - 803rd books - 804th books - 805th books - 806th books - 807th books - 808th books - 809th books - 810th books - 811st books - 812nd books - 813rd books - 814th books - 815th books - 816th books - 817th books - 818th books - 819th books - 820th books - 821st books - 822nd books - 823rd books - 824th books - 825th books - 826th books - 827th books - 828th books - 829th books - 830th books - 831st books - 832nd books - 833rd books - 834th books - 835th books - 836th books - 837th books - 838th books - 839th books - 840th books - 841st books - 842nd books - 843rd books - 844th books - 845th books - 846th books - 847th books

TARIFF (AMERICAN).

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Until December 31, 1883.	Articles.	Until December 31, 1883.	Articles.	Until December 31, 1883.
not specified	pr. ct. 25	pr. ct. 25	Paper—continued.	pr. lb. 3
in part	pr. ct. 15	pr. ct. 25	which blue mancoons are generally	pr. ct. 40
in whole	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 15	imported	pr. ct. 25
part by roll	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	hooses	pr. ct. 25
in slabs, finished than	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	hoagings	pr. ct. 25
or advanced	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Parasols, of whatever materials made, and	pr. ct. 25
any, shall be	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	frames or sticks, for,	pr. ct. 25
ity, and pay	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Parachut	pr. ct. 25
of, manuf-	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Pencils, black lead,	pr. ct. 25
rt	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Pepper, Cayenne,	pr. lb. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Perfumes	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Pewter, all manufactures of, not otherwise	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	specified, or of which it is a component	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Material	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Piano-fortes	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Platinum	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Plated wares of all kinds, not otherwise	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	enumerated	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	wire	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Porcelain	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Porter, &c Beer,	pr. lb. 2
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Potatoes	pr. bush. 10
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Pracious stones, of all kinds, set or not set,	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	and all articles composed wholly or chiefly	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	of,	pr. ct. 12½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Prunella blue	pr. ct. 12½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Prunella of potato	pr. ct. 12½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Quills, prepared or manufactured	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Quinine, sulphate of,	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Raw-wool, except when imported by	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	any "state or incorporated company," in	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	pay duty as bar or bolt iron, of similar	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	manufactures.	pr. ct. 50
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Ready made clothing	pr. lb. 2
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Red lead	pr. lb. 1
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	ochre, dry	pr. lb. 1½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	do, ground in oil	pr. lb. 1½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Vendian, dry	pr. lb. 1½
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	do, ground in oil	pr. lb. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Rope, ear or sailor	pr. lb. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	made of bark or grass	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Rose wood, when sawed into planks 6	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	in 4 inches thick, and from 9 to 15 inches	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	in breadth	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Rums. See spirits from other materials than	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	grain.	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Saddles	pr. ct. 30
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Saddlery, common tanned, and japanned, of	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	all descriptions	pr. ct. 10
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	plated brass, and polished steel, of all	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	descriptions	pr. ct. 20
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Salt soda	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Salt per bushel of 65 lb.	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	all full and crude mineral	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Salts, Epsom,	pr. lb. 4
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Udaler	pr. lb. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Rochelle	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Salt-petre refined	pr. lb. 2
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Sealing, satin	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	straw, or patent straw	pr. ct. 20
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	silk	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Serges	pr. M. D. 50
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Serics, unwarped,	pr. lb. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Sheetings, No. Lines.	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Shets, willow	pr. ct. 20
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Shell boxes	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Shoes, children's, of all kinds,	pr. pair 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	leather	pr. pair 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	socks	pr. pair 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	No. 10, and under, children's,	pr. pair 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	prunella stuff, or senken	pr. pair 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Silks	pr. pair 20
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Silks, wire,	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Silk, all manufactures of, or of which silk	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	shall be the component material of	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	chief wares, coming from this side the	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	Cap of Good Hope, (except sewing	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	silk)	pr. ct. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	brud, from Europe, &c.	pr. ct. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	buttons, with frills, shanks, if silk be	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	the material of chief value	Free
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	cas	pr. ct. 50
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	cord	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	curis or frizets as millinery	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	drasses, made up, as "millinery of all	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	sorts"	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	handkerchiefs from Europe, &c.	pr. ct. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	from the East Indies	pr. ct. 10
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	hats for men	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	hats or caps for women, as millinery	pr. ct. 25
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	lacr, from Europe, &c.	pr. ct. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	raw	pr. ct. 15
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	sewing	pr. ct. 40
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	stocks, ready made	pr. ct. 50
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	stockings	pr. ct. 5
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	in ut	pr. ct. 40
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	and wrosten flannel	pr. ct. 10
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	and wrosten shawls	pr. ct. 10
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	other manufactures of	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	in articles composed of "silk, and two	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	or more other and different mate-	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	rials," to exempt the manufacture	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	from liability to duty, if the value	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	of the silk used exceed the aggre-	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	gate value of the other materials,	
	pr. ct. 30	pr. ct. 25	in the manufacture or article.	

Articles.	Until December 31, 1883.	Articles.	Until December 31, 1883.
Rivers, all articles composed wholly or chiefly of, as to quantity	pr ct 19 1/2	Umbrellas—continued.	
plated ware, not specified	pr ct 25	of, and cast in pieces not exceeding the proper length	pr ct 18
wire	pr ct 8	Falcons	pr ct 25
The following articles of silverware from		Valves. See Cotton and silk.	
Bullion, coin, spangles, knives,		Vinager	pr gal 4
silver leaf, nitrate of silver, and		Vitrol, blue or Roman	pr gal 6
silver plate		oil of	pr lb 4
Silvered or plated wire	pr ct 5	Wagon	pr ct 25
skins, fur, dressed	pr ct 18 1/2	Wagon boxes	pr lb 1
dressed with alum	pr ct 20	Wash-balls	pr ct 15
Slates	pr ct 25	Watches, of all kinds, and parts of watches	pr ct 12 1/2
Snuff	pr lb 12	Weights, brass	pr ct 25
Soap	pr lb 4	cast iron	pr lb 15
toeey or perfumed	pr ct 16	cast iron, small	pr ct 15
Soda, carbonate of	pr ct 16	lead	pr ct 15
Spanish brews, dry	pr lb 1	Whiskies, the product of foreign saking	pr ct 12 1/2
ground in oil	pr lb 1 1/2	Wheat	pr bush 95
Spectacles, brass, copper, or gilt mounted	pr ct 25	Wine	pr cwt 30
iron, steel, or plated do.	pr ct 25	White lead	pr lb 5
horn, or tortoise shell do.	pr ct 20	Paris	pr lb 1
silver mounted	pr ct 25	Whiting	pr lb 1
Spirits from grain		Wine, red of France, in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal 6
1st proof	pr gal 57	after that time	pr gal 5
2d proof	pr gal 50	white, of France, in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal 10
3d proof	pr gal 45	after that time	pr gal 10
4th proof	pr gal 37	French, of all sorts, in bottles, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal 22
5th proof	pr gal 30	after that time	pr gal 11
above 5th proof	pr gal 25	Madras and sherry, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when thus imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr ct 15
from other materials than grain		after that time	
1st proof	pr gal 65	Madras and sherry, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when so imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal 50
2d proof	pr gal 55	after that time	pr gal 25
3d proof	pr gal 47	red of Spain and Austria, when imported in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr lb 10
4th proof	pr gal 39	after that time	pr gal 5
5th proof	pr gal 30	all other, of Austria, of Germany, Spain, and the Mediterranean, when imported in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal 13
above 5th proof	pr gal 25	after that time	pr gal 7 1/2
An allowance of 2 per cent. is made for leakage or loss in casks; and in lieu of breakage, 6 per cent. is allowed on all liquors in bottles, (except beer, ale and porter,) to be deducted from the invoice, or it shall be levied to compute the duties on the actual quantity, to be ascertained by sale, at the option of the importer, to be made at the time of entry.—(Act 2d March, 1793.)		of all countries, those specified excepted, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when so imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr ct 30
after that time		after that time	
Sisal	pr cwt, D. 1 50	Wood, boards or planks	pr ct 25
cutting knives, polished saddle-ry, rasp- ing hooks, acyilles, squares	pr ct 30	all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct 25
wire, exceeding No. 14	pr lb 3	Wool, unmanufactured, mixed with dirt or other material, and thus reduced in value to 2 cents per pound, or under, the appraisers shall appraise at such price as in their opinion it would have cost had it not been so mixed, and a duty thereon shall be charged in conformity with such appraisal.	
Do not exceeding No. 14	pr lb 5	Wool, unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation shall exceed eight cents, shall pay, besides a duty of 4 cents per pound	pr ct 40
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified, or of which steel is a component material	pr ct 25	bindings, woolen or worsted	pr ct 25
(nails and needles are free.)		blankets, the value whereof, at the place whence exported, shall exceed 15 cents, each	pr ct 25
Stoneware	pr ct 30	do the value whereof, at the place whence exported, shall not exceed 75 cents, each	pr ct 5
Stones, earthenware	pr ct 20	bockings	pr sq yd 16
Iron, cast	pr lb 12	carpets and carpeting, (except Brussels, Wilton, and treble Ingrained carpeting, which shall be at 63 cents the square yard, and all other Ingrained and Venetian carpeting, at 35 cents the square yard)	pr ct 25
Do sheet	pr ct 25	cloth composed entirely of comb wool	pr ct 10
Sugar, brown	pr lb 2 1/2	merino cloths, worsted and cotton	pr ct 25
candy	pr lb 12	finnels	pr ct 16
cane, syrup of, in casks	pr lb 5	gloves	pr ct 25
of lead	pr lb 12	hats or caps of	pr ct 25
leaf	pr lb 10	hosiery	pr ct 25
lost in pulverised, liquid, or other form lump	pr lb 10	mitts	pr ct 25
Do, in a pulverised, liquid, or other form	pr lb 10	silk and carded wool, if silk is the material chief value	pr ct 5
white clayed	pr lb 10	yarn, woolen, besides a specific duty of 4 cents per pound	pr ct 50
Swansdown, real	pr ct 15	do, worsted	pr ct 80
vesting, if wholly of wool	pr ct 50	worsted and cotton cloths subject to the cotton duty	pr ct 10
Syrup of sugar cane, in casks, and all syrup for making sugar, pay the same duty as the sugar would pay	pr lb 5 1/2	manufactures of silk and worsted	pr ct 10
Tallow	pr lb 1	worsted stuff gross	pr ct 10
Tapers, wax	pr ct 25	all other manufactures of, or of which wool is a component part, not otherwise specified	pr ct 60
Tapes, cotton or linen	pr ct 25	Yellow ochre, dry	pr lb 1
Tartar emetic	pr ct 15	do, ground in oil	pr lb 1
Tartaric acid	pr ct 15		
Teas, of all kinds, imported from places this side the Cape of Good Hope, in vessels if entitled to the benefit of the 10th section of the act of 14th July, 1834	pr lb 10		
of all kinds imported from other places, and in vessels not of the United States, except such foreign vessels as are entitled to the benefit of the 9th section of the act of the 14th July, 1832	pr lb 10		
Terre japonica de Siam, if dry	pr lb 1		
Do if in oil	pr lb 1		
Tiles, building	pr ct 16		
paying	pr ct 16		
Time pieces	pr ct 25		
Tin, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct 25		
Tinsel stuff	pr ct 25		
Tobacco, manufactured, other than snuff, or cigars	pr lb 10		
unmanufactured, or in leaf	pr ct 15		
Tooth brushes	pr ct 25		
powder	pr ct 16		
Toy carpets and carpeting	pr ct 25		
Twines, untwined	pr lb 5		
Types for printing	pr ct 25		
Umbrellas, of whatever materials made	pr ct 25		
frames, or sticks for	pr ct 25		
square wire, used for the manufacture	pr ct 25		

TARTAR. See ARGAL.

TARTAR, a town in the territory of Sinde, situated about 60 miles in a direct line from the sea, at a short distance from the western bank of the river Indus, in lat. 24° 44' N., lon. 67° 17' E. Population uncertain, probably about 10,000. The streets are narrow and dirty; but the houses, though built of mud, chopped straw, and timber, are superior to the low huts seen in the adjoining towns and villages.

Trade.—Being situated a little above the part where the Indus divides into the two great branches by which its waters are poured into the Indian Ocean, it might be supposed that Tartar would be a place of great trade. But, owing to the unwholesomeness of the climate, the barbarism of the tribes on the banks, and other causes, its commerce has never corresponded with what might have been anticipated, looking at its position on the map. It had probably attained the acme of its prosperity in the beginning of the 16th century. In 1555, the Portuguese, by way, as they stated, of avenging the treachery of the king of Sinde, inhumanly massacred 8,000 of the inhabitants, and burned the town.—(Comptes des Portugais, tome iv. p. 182.) It is probable that Tartar never fully recovered from this dreadful blow; but Mr. Hamilton mentions, that in the 17th century it was extensive and populous, possessing much commerce, with manufactures of silk, wool, and cabinet ware. The decayed state in which we now find it, has been a consequence of the misgovernment and rapacity of its present rulers, the Ameers of Sinde, under whose sway it fell more than 40 years ago.

In 1835, the English established a factory at Tartar, in the view of facilitating the disposal of woollens and other goods in the countries traversed by the Indus; and the building occupied by the factory, though far from magnificent, was recently, if it be not still, the best, not in Tartar only, but in the whole country of Sinde.

The chief exports are rice, shawls from Cashmere, opium from Malwah, hides, ghee, cotton, goats' wool, carpets, drugs, &c. Pitchcock, an article largely consumed in China, is a peculiar export of Sinde. The imports comprise a variety of articles, but the quantities are trifling; they consist principally of sugar, dye stuffs, hardware, tin, iron, &c., broad cloths, English cottons, silks, &c. But at present the trade is quite inconsiderable; and no one could believe a priori, that the natural enporium of an noble river as the Indus, traversing many rich and extensive countries, would cut so insignificant a figure in the trading world.

Indus.—Its navigation by Alexander the Great has conferred on the Indus a classical celebrity not to be antedated by any other river of the East. Its magnitude, too, is worthy of its fame. It may be estimated by Rai-bottoned boats as far as Attock; and its tributary stream, the Ravee, one of the Punjab rivers, is navigable as far as Lahore; both places being fully 1,000 miles from the sea. Unhappily its mouths are much encumbered by sand banks; and, owing to the violence of the bores or tides, such navigation is attended with considerable difficulty and danger. This is no doubt the reason that at present the navigation through the delta of the Indus is quite deserted: all the products brought down the river destined for exportation by sea, being conveyed from Tartar over-land to Curachee, a report a little to the north of the most northerly mouth of the river, about 60 miles in a direct line from Tartar. Above this point the current of the river is not rapid. The boats by which it is navigated are called *doondies*, and are exceeding 50 tons burden; and drawing, when laden, about 4 feet water. They have two masts, and, with a good wind, make their way against the stream at the rate of about 1 mile an hour. They use a sort of floating houses; resembling in this respect the Chinese junks. There would seem to be no river in the world where steam navigation might be applied more advantageously than the Indus. But until the country near its embouchure fall under the sway of some more enlightened and less rapacious rulers than those by whom it is now possessed, little improvement need, we are afraid, be expected. But should Sinde be conquered by some civilized people, or should its present rulers learn to respect the right of property, and to encourage industry, it would not be easy to exaggerate the importance of the Indus as a commercial highway. The navigable rivers of the Punjab that fill into it, lay open a vast extent of rich and fruitful country, with great commercial resources. It is not, indeed, possible to estimate the extent of the trade that would be carried on by the channel of the Indus, did security and good order prevail on its banks; and there is reason to think that some progress is making towards their establishment.

The delta of the Indus has little in common with the delta of the Nile, except its shape. Not a fourth part of it is cultivated, and its few inhabitants principally lead a pastoral life. It is overgrown with tamarisks and other wild shrubs; and, though intersected by the numerous mouths of the river, its surface is dry and arid, and it is in a great degree destitute of fresh water. The unfavourable appearance of the tract of country does not, however, generally speaking, depend on any infertility of soil, but on the neglect of cultivation arising out of the oppression under which the people live. Mr. Burnes says, that in most places it requires little or no labour on the part of the husbandman to prepare the land; and the seed, scattered without care or attention, yields a plentiful harvest. But where property is insecure, even this little labour is not expended. (See a *Memoir on the Indus*, by Lieut. Burnes, in the 3d vol. of the *Journal of the London Geographical Society; Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, article, *Indus, Tartar*, &c.)

Long Weights and Measures.—Accounts are kept in rupees, mauls, and pice; 16 pice = 1 carval; 50 carvals = 1 rupee. Grains are weighed in Sind, 40 coorvas = 1 pice. Small Weights.—24 Moons = 1 Rutlee, 8 Rutlees = 1 Anna, 16 Annas = 1 Tola, One Weights.—4 Pice = 1 Anna, 16 Annas = 1 Pucca seer, 40 Seers = 1 Maund, or 74 lbs. 5 oz. 7 dwts. avoirdupois.

Long Measure.—1 Garco = 2 inches, 16 Garcos = 1 Guz, but 1 Guz cloth = 34 inches at Tartar. *Grain Measures.*—4 Pultoes = 1 Twiler, 4 Twilers = 1 Coon, 60 Coons = 1 Carval of wheat; or 22 Pucca maunds, or 1 Bombay parsh. Diamonds and pearls are sold by habbes and rupees—8 habbes = 1 rutlee, about 2 grs. Troy.—*Milburn's Orient. Commerce.*

TEA (in one dialect of Chin, *Cha*; in another *Te*; Du. *Te*; Fr. *Thé*; It. *Te*; Rus. *Chai*; Hind. *Cha*; Malay, *Teh*), the leaves of the tea tree or shrub (*Thea viridis* Lin.).

- I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.
- II. RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH TEA TRADE.—CONSUMPTION OF TEA.
- III. EAST INDIA COMPANY'S MONOPOLY.—INFLUENCE OF, ON THE PRICE OF TEA.—CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH IT WAS HELD.—ABOLITION OF.
- IV. DUTIES ON TEA.—CONSUMPTION OF, ON THE CONTINENT AND IN THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.

Description of the Plant.—Places where it is cultivated.—The tea plant ordinarily grows to the height of from 3 to 6 feet, and has a general resemblance to the myrtle, as the latte

	pr ct.	18
not exceeding	pr ct.	25
	pr gal.	8
	pr lb.	4
	pr lb.	8
	pr lb.	25
	pr ct.	15
arts of watches	pr ct.	15
	pr ct.	25
	pr lb.	1
	pr ct.	25
	pr ct.	15
foreign fishing	pr bush.	25
	pr cwt.	30
	pr ct.	30
	pr lb.	6
	pr lb.	1
as, until the 3d	pr gal.	8
	pr gal.	8
as, until the 3d	pr gal.	10
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March, 1854	pr gal.	50
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	pr ct.	60
	pr lb.	14
	pr lb.	14

is seen in congenial situations in the southern countries of Europe. It is a polyandrous plant of the natural order, *Columniferae*, and has a white blossom, with yellow style and anthers, not unlike those of a small dog-rose. The stem is bushy, with numerous branches, and very leafy. The leaves are alternate, on short, thick, channelled footstalks, evergreen, of a longish elliptic form, with a blunt, notched point, and serrated except at the base. These leaves are the valuable part of the plant. The *Camellias*, particularly the *Camellia Sasanqua*, of the same natural family as the tea tree, and very closely resembling it, are the only plants liable to be confounded with it by a careful observer. The leaves of the particular camellia just named are, indeed, often used in some parts of China, as a substitute for those of the tea tree.

The effects of tea on the human frame are those of a very mild narcotic; and, like those of many other narcotics taken in small quantities,—even of opium itself,—they are exhilarating. The green varieties of the plant possess this quality in a much higher degree than the black; and a strong infusion of the former will, in most constitutions, produce considerable excitement and wakefulness. Of all narcotics, however, tea is the least pernicious; if, indeed, it be so at all in any degree, which we very much doubt.

The tea shrub may be described as a very hardy evergreen, growing readily in the open air, from the equator to the 45th degree of latitude. For the last 60 years, it has been reared in this country, without difficulty, in greenhouses; and thriving plants of it are to be seen in the gardens of Java, Singapore, Malacca, and Penang; all within 6 degrees of the equator. The climate most congenial to it, however, seems to be that between the 25th and 33d degrees of latitude, judging from the success of its cultivation in China. For the general purposes of commerce, the growth of good tea is confined to China; and is there restricted to 5 provinces, or rather parts of provinces, viz. Fokien and Canton, but more particularly the first, for black tea; and Kiang-nan, Kiang-si, and Che-kiang, but chiefly the first of these, for green. The tea districts all lie between the latitudes just mentioned, and the 115th and 122d degrees of East longitude. However, almost every province of China produces more or less tea, but generally of an inferior quality, and for local consumption only; or when of a superior quality, like some of the fine wines of France, losing its flavour when exported. The plant is also extensively cultivated in Japan, Tonquin, and Cachin-china; and in some of the mountainous parts of Ava; the people of which country use it largely as a kind of *pickle preserved in oil*!

Botanically considered, the tea tree is a single species; the green and black, with all the diversities of each, being mere varieties, like the varieties of the grape, produced by difference of climate, soil, locality, age of the crop when taken, and modes of preparation for the market. Considered as an object of agricultural produce, the tea plant bears a close resemblance to the vine. In the husbandry of China, it may be said to take the same place which the vine occupies in the southern countries of Europe. Like the latter, its growth is chiefly confined to hilly tracts, not suited to the growth of corn. The soils capable of producing the finest kinds are within given districts, limited, and partial. Skill and care, both in husbandry and preparation, are quite as necessary to the production of good tea, as to that of good wine.

The best wine is produced only in particular latitudes, as is the best tea; although, perhaps, the latter is not restricted to an equal degree. Only the most civilised nations of Europe have as yet succeeded in producing good wines; which is also the case in the East with tea; for the agricultural and manufacturing skill and industry of the Chinese are there unquestionably pre-eminent. These circumstances deserve to be attended to, in estimating the difficulties which must be encountered in any attempt to propagate the tea plant in colonial or other possessions. These difficulties are obviously very great; and, perhaps, all but insuperable. Most of the attempts hitherto made to raise it in foreign countries were not, indeed, of a sort from which much was to be expected. Within the last few years, however, considerable efforts have been made by the Dutch government of Java, to produce tea on the hills of that island; and having the assistance of Chinese cultivators from Fokien, who form a considerable part of the emigrants to Java, a degree of success has attended them, beyond what might have been expected in so warm a climate. The Brazilians have made similar efforts; having also, with the assistance of Chinese labourers, attempted to propagate the tea shrub near Rio de Janeiro; and a small quantity of tolerably good tea has been produced. But owing to the high price of labour in America, and the quantity required in the cultivation and manipulation of tea, there is no probability, even were the soil suitable to the plant, that its culture can be profitably carried on in that country.

It might probably be successfully attempted in Hindostan, where labour is comparatively cheap, and where the hilly and table lands bear a close resemblance to those of the tea districts of China; but we are not sanguine in our expectations as to the result.

Species of Tea.—Manner in which they are manufactured.—The black teas usually exported by Europeans from Canton are as follows, beginning with the lowest qualities:—Bohea, Cor-gou, Souchong, and Pekoe. The green teas are Twankay, Hyson skin, young Hyson, Hyson, Imperial, and Gunpowder. All the black teas exported (with the exception of a part of the bohea, grown in Woping, a district of Canton) are grown in Fokien—a

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ally, maritime, populous, and industrious province, bordering to the northeast on Canton. Owing to the peculiar nature of the Chinese laws as to inheritance, and probably, also, in some degree, to the despotic genius of the government, landed property is much subdivided throughout the empire; so that tea is generally grown in gardens or plantations of no great extent. The plant comes to maturity and yields a crop in from 2 to 3 years. The leaves are picked by the cultivator's family, and immediately conveyed to market; where a class of persons, who make it their particular business, purchase and collect them in quantities, and manufacture them in part; that is, expose them to be dried under a shed. A second class of persons, commonly known in the Canton market as "the tea merchants," repair to the districts where the tea is produced, and purchase it in its half-prepared state from the first class, and complete the manufacture by garbling the different qualities; in which operation, women and children are chiefly employed. A final drying is then given, and the tea packed in chests, and divided, according to quality, into parcels of from 100 to 600 chests each. These parcels are stamped with the name of the district, grower, or manufacturer, exactly as is practised with the wines of Bordeaux and Burgundy, the indigo of Bengal, and many other commodities; and, from this circumstance, get the name of *chops*, the Chinese term for a seal or signet. Some of the leaf-buds of the finest black tea plants are picked early in the spring, before they expand. These constitute pekoe, or black tea of the highest quality; sometimes called "white-blossom" tea, from there being intermixed with it, to give it a higher perfume, a few blossoms of a species of olive (*Olea fragrans*), a native of China. A second crop is taken from the same plants in the beginning of May, a third about the middle of June, and a fourth in August; which last, consisting of large and old leaves, is of very inferior flavour and value. The younger the leaf, the more high flavoured, and consequently the more valuable, is the tea. With some of the congous and souchongs are occasionally mixed a little pekoe, to enhance their flavour; and hence the distinction, among the London tea dealers, of these sorts of tea, into the ordinary kinds and those of a "Pekoe flavour." Bohea, or the lowest black tea, is partly composed of the lower grades; that is, of the fourth crop of the teas of Fokien, left unsold in the market of Canton after the season of exportation has passed; and partly of the teas of the district of Woping in Canton. The green teas are grown and selected in the same manner as the black, to which the description now given more particularly refers; and the different qualities arise from the same causes. The gunpowder here stands in place of the pekoe; being composed of the unopened buds of the spring crop. Imperial hyson, and young hyson, consist of the second and third crops. The light and inferior leaves, separated from the hyson by a winnowing machine, constitute hyson skin,—an article in considerable demand amongst the Americans. The process of drying the green teas differs from that of the black; the first being dried in iron pots or vases over a fire, the operator continually stirring the leaves with his naked hand. The operation is one of considerable nicety, particularly with the finer teas; and is performed by persons who make it their exclusive business.

Tea Trade in China.—The tea merchants commonly receive advances from the Hong merchants and other capitalists of Canton; but, with this exception, are altogether independent of them; nor have the latter any exclusive privilege or claim of pre-emption. They are very numerous; those connected with the green tea districts alone being about 400 in number. The black tea merchants are less numerous but more wealthy. The greater part of the tea is brought to Canton by land carriage or inland navigation, but chiefly by the first: it is conveyed by porters; the roads of China, in the southern provinces, not generally admitting of wheel carriages, and beasts of burden being very rare. A small quantity of black tea is brought by sea, but probably smuggled; for this cheaper mode of transportation is discouraged by government, which it deprives of the transit duties levied on inland carriage. The length of land carriage from the principal districts where the green teas are grown, to Canton, is probably not less than 700 miles; nor that of the black tea, over a more mountainous country, less than 200 miles. The tea merchants begin to arrive in Canton about the middle of October, and the busy season continues until the beginning of March; being brisker in November, December, and January. Tea, for the most part, can only be bought from the Hong or licensed merchants; but some of these, the least prosperous in their circumstances, are supported by wealthy *outside* merchants, as they are called; and thus the trade is considerably extended. The prices in the Canton market vary from year to year with the crop, the stock on hand, and the external demand, as in any other article, and in any other market. After the season is over, or when the westerly monsoon sets in, in the month of March, and impedes the regular intercourse of foreigners with China, there is a fall in the price of tea, not only arising from this circumstance, but from a certain depreciation in quality, from the age of the tea; which, like most other vegetable productions, is injured by keeping, particularly in a hot and damp climate.

Foreign Trade in Tea.—There seems to be little mystery in the selection and purchase of teas; for the business is both safely and effectively accomplished, not only by the supercargoes of the American ships, but frequently by the masters; and it is ascertained from the sales at the East India House, that there is no difference between the qualities of the teas

purchased by the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, without any assistance from the officers of the factory, and those purchased for the Company by the latter. An unusual degree of good faith, indeed, appears to be observed, on the part of the Chinese merchants, with respect to this commodity; for it was proved before the select committee of the House of Commons, in 1830, that it is the regular practice of the Hong merchants to receive back, and return good tea for, any chest or parcel upon which any fraud may have been practised, which sometimes happens in the conveyance of the teas from Canton on board ship. Such restitution has occasionally been made even at the distance of 1 or 2 years. The Company seem to enjoy no advantage over other purchasers in the Canton market, except that which the largest purchaser has in every market, viz. a selection of the teas, on the payment of the same prices as others; and this advantage they enjoy only as respects the black teas; for the Americans are the largest purchasers of green teas.

We subjoin a Table for calculating the cost of tea:—

Comparison of the Cost of Tea per Picul (133½ lbs. Avoldupois), with the Rate per Pound and Ton, at 9 Cwt. or 1,008 Pounds per Ton.

Per Picul.	Exchange 4s. per Dol.		Exchange 4s. 3d. per Dol.		Exch. 4s. 4d. per Dol.		Exchange 4s. 5d. per Dol.		Exch. 4s. 6d. per Dol.	
	Per Lb.	Per Ton.	Per Lb.	Per Ton.	Per Lb.	Per Ton.	Per Lb.	Per Ton.	Per Lb.	Per Ton.
7½s.	4	10 0 0	4 10 0	10 0 0	4 10 0	10 0 0	4 10 0	10 0 0	4 10 0	10 0 0
80 equal	10 1 2	44 2 0	11 5 6	44 12 0	11 9 7 2	44 18 0	11 9 7 2	44 18 0	11 9 7 2	44 18 0
82	11	46 4 0	11 8 7 2	49 1 9	12 0 16	50 1 0	12 1 14 6	51 0 3	12 2 12	51 10 3
84	11 1 2	48 6 0	12 2 16	51 8 4 1 2	12 4 32	52 8 8	12 4 32	52 8 8	12 4 32	52 8 8
86	12	50 8 0	12 5 12	53 11 0	12 8 64	54 12 0	12 8 64	54 12 0	12 8 64	54 12 0
88	12 1 8	52 10 0	12 11 2	55 16 7 1 9	12 13 54	56 17 6	12 13 54	56 17 6	12 13 54	56 17 6
90	13	54 12 0	12 14 24	58 0 3	12 16 48	59 3 0	12 16 48	59 3 0	12 16 48	59 3 0
92	13 1 8	56 14 0	12 17 12	60 4 10 1 2	12 18 36	61 6 0	12 18 36	61 6 0	12 18 36	61 6 0
94	14	58 16 0	12 20 0	62 9 6	12 20 0	63 14 0	12 20 0	63 14 0	12 20 0	63 14 0
96	14 1 8	60 18 0	12 22 48	64 14 1 1 2	12 21 36	65 18 0	12 21 36	65 18 0	12 21 36	65 18 0
98	15	62 0 0	12 25 36	66 18 9	12 22 24	68 5 0	12 22 24	68 5 0	12 22 24	68 5 0
100	15 1 2	64 2 0	12 28 24	69 2 4 1 2	12 23 12	70 10 0	12 23 12	70 10 0	12 23 12	70 10 0
102	16	66 4 0	12 31 12	71 6 0	12 24 0	72 16 0	12 24 0	72 16 0	12 24 0	72 16 0
104	16 1 2	68 6 0	12 34 0	73 12 7 1 2	12 24 48	73 16 0	12 24 48	73 16 0	12 24 48	73 16 0
106	17	70 8 0	12 36 48	75 17 3	12 25 36	75 17 3	12 25 36	75 17 3	12 25 36	75 17 3
108	17 1 2	73 10 0	12 39 36	77 17 10 1 9	12 26 24	77 19 0	12 26 24	77 19 0	12 26 24	77 19 0
110	18	75 12 0	12 42 24	80 0 0	12 27 12	80 0 0	12 27 12	80 0 0	12 27 12	80 0 0
112	18 1 2	77 14 0	12 45 12	82 11 1 1 2	12 28 0	82 11 1 1 2	12 28 0	82 11 1 1 2	12 28 0	82 11 1 1 2
114	19	79 16 0	12 48 0	84 15 9	12 28 48	84 15 9	12 28 48	84 15 9	12 28 48	84 15 9
116	19 1 2	81 18 0	12 50 48	87 0 4 1 2	12 29 36	87 0 4 1 2	12 29 36	87 0 4 1 2	12 29 36	87 0 4 1 2
118	20	84 0 0	12 53 36	89 5 0	12 30 24	90 5 0	12 30 24	90 5 0	12 30 24	90 5 0

Thus, at 4s. 3d. per dollar, one teel per picul is equal to 1-3d. per pound.

Usual Nett Weight and Measurement of a Chest of different Descriptions of Tea.

	Wt. in Gals.	Vol. in Meas.	Wt. in Gals.	Vol. in Meas.
Bones, whole chests	catties 134	feet 6-955	Hyson	catties 48 to 50
1-2 dn.	64	4-418	Hyson skin	48 - 50
1-4 dn.	46	3-274	Tewankay, long chests	62 - 65
Conroy chests	83 to 94	4-085	Guspowder	80 - 94
Souchong	60 - 62	4-025	Imperial	70 - 74
Pekoe	48 - 50	4-385	Young Hyson	70 - 72

II. RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH TEA TRADE.—CONSUMPTION OF TEA.

The late rise and present magnitude of the British tea trade are among the most extraordinary phenomena in the history of commerce. Tea was wholly unknown to the Greeks and Romans, and even to our ancestors previously to the end of the 16th or the beginning of the 17th century. It seems to have been originally imported in small quantities by the Dutch; but was hardly known in this country till after 1650. In 1660, however, it began to be used in coffee houses; for, in an act passed in that year, a duty of 8d. is laid on every gallon of "coffee, chocolate, sherbet, and tea," made and sold. But it is abundantly evident that it was then only beginning to be introduced. The following entry appears in the Diary of Mr. Pepys, secretary to the Admiralty:—"September 25, 1661. I sent for a cup of tea (a China drink), of which I had never drunk before." In 1664, the East India Company bought 2 lbs. 2 oz. of tea as a present for his Majesty. In 1687, they issued the first order to import tea, directed to their agent at Bantam, to the effect he should send home 100 lbs. of the best tea he could get!—(See the references in *Milburn's Orient. Com.* vol. ii. p. 530; *Macpherson's Hist. of Com. with India*, pp. 130—132.) Since then, the consumption seems to have gone on regularly though slowly increasing. In 1689, instead of charging a duty on the decoction made from the leaves, an excise duty of 5s. per lb. was laid on the tea itself. The importation of tea from 1710 downwards is exhibited in the following Tables.

The great increase that took place in the consumption of duty paid tea in 1784 and 1785, over its consumption in the preceding years, is to be ascribed to the reduction that was then effected in the duties. In the nine years preceding 1780, above 180,000,000 lbs. of tea were exported from China to Europe, in ships belonging to the Continent, and about 50,000,000 lbs. in ships belonging to England. But from the best information attainable, it appears that the real consumption was almost exactly the reverse of the quantities imported; and that, while the consumption of the British dominions amounted to above 13,000,000 lbs., the consumption of the Continent did not exceed 5,500,000 lbs. If this statement be nearly correct, it follows that an annual supply of above 8,000,000 lbs. was

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1837	25
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1839	25
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Jan. Qu

1815	2,0
1816	2,78
1817	3,25
1818	3,76
1819	4,73
1820	4,29
1821	4,30
1822	4,10
1823	4,10
1824	3,99
1825	3,78
1826	3,78
1827	4,49
1828	4,53
1829	4,11
1830	3,85
1831	4,54
1832	4,41

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Industriously imported. It was well known, indeed, that smuggling was carried on to an enormous extent; and after every other means of checking it had been tried to no purpose, Mr. Pitt proposed, in 1784, to reduce the duties from 119 to 12½ per cent. This measure was signally successful. Smuggling and the practice of adulteration were immediately put an end to, and the legal imports of tea were about trebled. In 1795, however, the duty was raised to 25 per cent.; and after successive augmentations in 1797, 1800, and 1803, it was raised, in 1806, to 96 per cent. *ad valorem*, at which it continued till 1819, when it was raised to 100 per cent. on all teas that brought above 2s. per lb. at the Company's sales.

A Return of the Quantities and Prices of the several Sorts of Tea sold by the East India Company, in each Year during the present charter (1st of May to 1st of May).

Price per Pound and Ton, at

Year.	Boucha.			Congou.			Campol.			Southong.			Pekoe.		
	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.		Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.		Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.		Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.		Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	
1711-15	397,909	2 10-20	21,283,549	3 2 1	302,300	1 07	1,520,035	3 7-51	22,800	0 11 2					
1715-16	839,193	2 1-57	17,908,827	3 11 1	23,507	94	982,816	3 6-55	30,700	0 9-5					
1716-17	1,597,276	2 5-96	14,895,681	3 10-39	925,550	1 73	1,662,135	3 0-47	98,562	4 2-53					
1717-18	1,972,736	2 5-73	15,736,003	3 11-82	866,304	3 12	2,018,058	3 2-68	76,309	4 4-36					
1718-19	1,441,666	2 4-78	18,441,066	3 11-22	533,891	3 4-49	1,183,051	3 6-11	69,760	4 4-37					
1719-20	1,497,592	1 9-25	17,664,439	3 7-94	419,081	3 4-64	1,168,605	3 2-01	27,892	4 2-41					
1720-21	3,322,927	2 1-92	15,939,706	3 7-31	319,775	3 6-04	1,335,496	3 2-93	139,964	4 2-33					
1721-22	3,853,486	2 5-98	17,219,929	3 8-59	181,968	3 7-00	1,397,931	3 1-25	92,957	3 10-69					
1722-23	1,873,881	2 6-43	18,922,842	3 7-82	323,063	3 6-30	1,391,668	2 10-62	44,757	4 4-73					
1723-24	1,653,394	2 4-92	19,006,594	3 8-06	243,562	3 6-36	1,322,326	2 11-82	40,005	5 0-74					
1724-25	2,093,276	2 4-59	20,596,958	3 7-90	227,722	3 0-88	473,476	3 4-74	86,051	4 3-20					
1725-26	2,713,011	2 7-00	21,034,635	3 6-75	207,971	3 1-77	547,128	3 1-28	148,038	4 0-84					
1726-27	2,388,124	1 9-23	20,472,625	3 4-73	166,701	3 9-04	475,796	3 2-17	168,842	3 6-01					
1727-28	3,759,199	1 7-44	19,369,392	3 3-95	297,346	2 9-31	449,163	3 0-53	290,308	3 6-61					
1728-29	3,778,012	1 6-85	20,142,073	3 3-68	284,157	2 9-14	601,739	2 10-38	131,291	3 9-23					
1729-30	4,845,226	1 6-32	18,402,118	3 2-66	474,735	3 2-24	835,890	4 11-61	129,554	3 9-23					
1730-31	5,096,153	1 10-03	17,657,208	3 1-15	481,455	3 1-17	377,067	3 0-76	253,101	3 9-23					
1731-32	6,474,683	1 10-65	17,734,257	2 8-77	273,289	2 9-12	447,799	2 10-68	545,775	2 10-22					

Descriptions of Tea.

Weight.	Sol. Meas.
48 to 50	— 4-18
52 to 53	— 4-24
54 to 56	— 4-30
58 to 60	— 4-36
62 to 64	— 4-42
66 to 68	— 4-48
70 to 72	— 4-54

DESCRIPTION OF TEA.

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The following statements show the progress of the consumption of tea in this country from a very remote epoch down to the present time:—

II. Account of the Quantity of Tea remaining for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1711 to 1786, obtained by deducting the Quantity exported from the Quantity sold at the Company's Sales.

Year.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	
1711	141,995	1740	1,309,549	1765	4,906,546	1782	4,166,854
1715	120,659	1745	2,209,183	1770	7,723,538	1783	3,087,616
1720	237,904	1750	2,114,922	1775	5,475,493	1784	8,608,473
1725	296,494	1755	2,738,136	1780	5,588,315	1785	13,165,715
1730	537,016	1760	2,293,613	1781	3,578,499	1786	13,965,806
1735	1,390,199						

N.B.—We have extracted this account from that given from the Company's records in *Milburn's Oriental Commerce* (vol. ii. p. 534.). There is an account, furnished by the Excise, of the quantities of tea retained for home consumption from 1725 to 1832, in the *Appendix to the First Report of the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry*. It appears, however, to involve some very material errors. Thus, it represents the consumption from 1768 to 1772, both inclusive, as under 200,000 lbs. a year, at the same time that it makes the consumption, in the immediately preceding and subsequent years, above 4,000,000 lbs. A statement of this sort is obviously inaccurate; and yet it is not accompanied by a single remark or explanation of any sort.

III. Account of the Quantity of Tea retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1789 to 1833, and of the Quantity that paid Duty for Home Consumption in Ireland from 1789 to 1831; specifying the Nett Produce of the Duties in each Country, and the Rates of Duty.

Year	Great Britain.				Rates of Duty.	Ireland.					
	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty.				Quantity charged with Duty for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty. (British Currency.)			Rates of Duty.	
	Lbs.	£.	s.	d.		Lbs.	£.	s.	d.	Black: 4d. per lb.	Green: 6d. per lb.
1789	14,534,601	569,036	14	8	12l. 10s. per cent.	1,070,666	36,036	14	3	ditto	ditto
1790	14,693,299	547,930	4	8	—	1,736,790	32,132	12	2	ditto	ditto
1791	15,096,840	607,430	6	4	—	1,991,787	43,305	12	4	4d. per lb.	6d. per lb.
1792	15,822,015	616,775	6	9	—	1,844,598	35,110	0	8	ditto	ditto
1793	15,214,931	609,846	5	6	—	2,148,725	39,274	9	6	ditto	ditto
1794	16,647,963	628,081	6	3	—	2,041,990	43,892	5	2	ditto	ditto
1795	18,394,232	695,106	5	9	30l. per cent.	2,970,701	64,093	16	10	ditto	ditto
1796	18,009,992	677,042	13	0	—	2,326,300	48,633	14	9	ditto	ditto
1797	16,366,041	1,028,000	9	7	At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent.	2,492,254	60,817	0	5	ditto	ditto
1798	19,566,934	1,111,995	9	1	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	2,953,240	103,016	5	6	ditto	ditto
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 35l. per ct.						
1799	19,906,510	1,176,661	9	0	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	2,873,717	101,727	11	0	5d. per lb.	7d. per lb.
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 40l. per ct.						
1800	20,358,702	1,152,302	0	0	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	2,926,166	69,824	17	7	ditto	ditto
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 50l. per ct.						
1801	20,237,753	1,237,806	2	6	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	3,499,601	135,852	3	4	Sold at or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 35l. per ct. ad val.	Sold under 2s. 6d. per lb. 20l. per ct. ad val.
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 50l. per ct.						
1802	21,148,245	1,450,252	7	9	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	3,576,775	192,214	17	7	38l. 10s.—	23l. 10s.—
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 55l. per ditto.						
1803	21,647,922	1,757,257	16	4	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	3,239,927	172,355	15	0	ditto	ditto
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 65l. per ditto.						
1804	18,501,904	2,248,004	4	8	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	3,337,122	251,724	8	9	34l. 14s.—	51l. 14s.—
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 65l. per ditto.						
1805	21,025,350	2,925,098	17	0	Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.	3,267,712	411,225	1	4	ditto	ditto
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 65l. 2s. 6d. per do.						
1806	20,355,039	3,068,493	13	2	On all teas 90l. per cent.	2,611,459	348,242	7	2	ditto	71l. 14s.—
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.						
1807	19,239,312	3,042,224	11	3	—	3,555,120	476,949	4	3	ditto	ditto
1808	20,859,959	3,370,610	10	0	—	3,706,771	534,685	1	7	ditto	ditto
1809	19,669,131	3,130,616	14	9	—	3,391,683	462,088	12	3	ditto	ditto
1810	19,093,244	3,212,430	1	1	—	2,922,568	435,307	10	2	93l. per cent. ad val.	
1811	20,709,809	3,349,399	0	9	—	3,517,394	502,816	16	11	ditto	
1812	20,018,251	3,258,792	2	9	—	3,756,499	567,186	11	6	ditto	
1812	20,443,226	3,258,792	2	9	—	3,252,294	521,209	12	3	ditto	
1814	19,231,154	3,428,236	4	4	—	3,367,012	529,816	7	11	96l. per cent. ad valorem, and henceforth the same as in Great Britain.	
1815	22,378,345	3,526,599	18	3	—	3,468,776	531,500	15	2		
1816	20,946,144	3,365,719	0	5	—	2,990,539	405,777	16	3		
1817	20,822,436	3,002,650	18	7	—	3,141,035	427,713	7	3		
1818	22,660,177	3,382,568	10	1	—	3,569,421	510,105	6	6		
1819	22,631,467	3,256,433	12	10	At or under 2s. per lb. 90l. per ct. Above 2s. per lb. 100l. per ditto.	2,238,498	433,371	11	6		
					At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per ditto.						
1820	22,452,050	3,126,449	17	0	—	3,150,344	398,742	5	4		
1821	22,892,912	3,275,642	17	6	—	3,492,960	462,819	16	9		
1822	22,911,864	3,434,292	10	10	—	3,516,066	511,299	5	9		
1823	22,752,470	3,497,982	1	8	—	3,267,710	440,139	4	11		
1824	23,784,836	3,420,205	11	11	—	3,387,510	445,271	15	11		
1825	21,630,015	3,327,941	4	11	—	3,880,658	503,074	13	4		
1826	25,238,067	3,291,813	19	5	—	3,607,785	446,229	5	1		
1827	26,043,223	3,263,206	19	3	—	3,687,955	442,262	14	10		
1828	26,790,481	3,177,179	8	0	—	—	—	—	—		
1829	29,405,199	3,321,722	2	6	—	—	—	—	—		
1830	30,017,079	3,267,007	18	9	—	—	—	—	—		
1831	29,997,100	3,244,916	12	9	—	—	—	—	—		
1832	31,544,402	3,509,534	12	7	—	—	—	—	—		
1833	31,829,620	3,444,101	16	1	—	—	—	—	—		

* This amount includes all tea shipped to Ireland for consumption in that country subsequently to the passing of the act 9 Geo. 4 c. 46.

British Currency.

It appears that the population of the East India Company's territories has been increasing since the year 1789. The East India Company's territories are situated in the East Indies, and the population of these territories has been increasing since the year 1789. The East India Company's territories are situated in the East Indies, and the population of these territories has been increasing since the year 1789.

II. Account of the Quantity of Tea entered for Home Consumption, the Rate of Duty, and the Nett Produce of the Duty, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1834.

Year ended 5th of January.	Lbs. Weight of Tea.			Rate of Duty on the Sale Price.	Total Lbs. Weight.	Nett Produce.
	Sold at or under 2s. per Lb.	Rate of Duty on the Sale Price.	Sold above 2s. per Lb.			
1834	7,663,333	96 per cent.	24,166,287	100 per cent.	31,529,620	3,444,101 18 1

It appears from the third of the foregoing Tables, making allowance for the increase of population, that the consumption of tea in Great Britain has been about stationary, or has rather diminished, from 1800 to the present period. This has been occasioned partly, perhaps, by the increased use of coffee; but more, we think, by the enhanced price arising out of the increase of the duty, and the operation of the monopoly. In Ireland, the consumption has been about stationary since 1801, notwithstanding the population has more than doubled in the interval.

III. EAST INDIA COMPANY'S MONOPOLY—INFLUENCE OF, ON THE PRICE OF TEA—CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH IT WAS HELD—ABOLITION OF.

From its origin down to the present year (1834), the tea trade has been monopolised by the East India Company. Considerable quantities of tea have, indeed, been at different times smuggled into the country; but no British subject, not authorised by the Company, was ever allowed openly to import tea. Being thus the *only sellers*, they had it in their power, by limiting the quantity brought to market, to raise its price above its natural elevation, and to realise immense profits at the expense of the public. They might, no doubt, have declined availing themselves of this power; but no such forbearance could be rationally expected from the Company, or from any other body of men. All individuals and associations exert themselves to obtain the highest price for whatever they have to sell: and it is found that those who are protected from the competition of others, or who have obtained a monopoly of any market, invariably raise the price of their commodities to a very high pitch. The East India Company have done this, probably, to a less extent than most other bodies that have enjoyed such exclusive privileges. Still, however, it is an undoubted fact that the tea sold by them of late years cost the people of Britain upwards of 1,500,000*l.* a year more than they would have cost had they been sold at the price at which teas of equal quality were sold, under a system of free competition, in New-York, Hamburg, Amsterdam, &c.—(For proofs of this statement, see former edition of this Dictionary, p. 1031.)

The legislature endeavoured, at different periods, to prevent the Company from abusing their monopoly, by enacting regulations as to the sale of tea; and though no longer of any practical importance, it may be still worth while briefly to notice some of the more important, and the means by which they were defeated. In 1745, for example, a very great reduction was made from the amount of the tea duties; and by a statute passed in that year (18 Geo. 2. c. 26.), it was enacted, in order to prevent the Company from depriving the public of the benefit of this reduction, that in case the tea imported by the East India Company shall not always be sufficient to answer the consumption thereof in Great Britain, and to keep the price of tea in this country upon an equality with the price thereof in the neighbouring Continent of Europe, it shall be lawful for the said Company, and their successors, to import into Great Britain such quantities of tea as they shall think necessary from any part of Europe: and by another section of the same statute, it is enacted, that if the East India Company shall, at any time, neglect to keep the British market supplied with a sufficient quantity of tea at reasonable prices, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury to grant licences to any other person or persons, body politic or corporate, to import tea into Great Britain from any part of Europe.

Had this statute been enforced, it would certainly have restrained the demands of the Company within reasonable limits; but it was very soon forgotten, and the Company continued, as before, to sell their teas at an enormous advance as compared with their prices in Hamburg and Amsterdam.

The same well-founded jealousy, which dictated the act of 1745, was again displayed in the proceedings at the reduction of the duties in 1784. It was then enacted (24 Geo. 3. c. 39.), that the East India Company should make 4 sales of tea every year, as near as conveniently may be at equal distances of time from each other, and should put up at such sales such quantities of tea as may be judged sufficient to supply the demand; and at each sale, the tea to be put up shall be sold without reserve to the highest bidder, provided an advance of 1*l.* per lb. be bid upon the price at which the same is put up. By another clause it was enacted, that it should not be lawful for the East India Company "to put up their teas for sale at any price which shall, upon the whole of the teas so put up at any sale, exceed the prime cost thereof, with the freight and charges of importation, together with lawful interest from the time of arrival of such teas in Great Britain, and the common premium of insurance as a compensation for the sea risk incurred thereon." The Company were further ordered

at Britain from 1789 to 1833
in 1789 to 1837; specifying

Ireland.

Rate of Duty.

Black: 3d. per lb.	Green: 6d. per lb.
ditto ditto	ditto ditto
3d. per lb.	6d. per lb.
ditto ditto	ditto ditto

ditto ditto

ditto ditto

3d. per lb. 7d. per lb.

ditto ditto

All Sorts:

Sold at or Sold un-

above 2s. 6d. 2s. 6d.

6d. per lb. 2s. 6d.

35*l.* per ct. 2*l.* per ct.

ad val. ad val.

7*l.* 10*s.*—23*l.* 10*s.*—

ditto ditto

8*l.* 14*s.*—51*l.* 14*s.*—

ditto ditto

ditto 71*l.* 14*s.*—

ditto ditto

ditto ditto

ditto ditto

On all Teas:

93*l.* per cent. ad val.

ditto ditto

ditto ditto

ditto ditto

96*l.* per cent. ad val.

rem. and hence-

forth the same as

in Great Britain.

Irish Currency.

British Currency.

to keep a stock, equal to at least 1 year's consumption, according to the sales of the preceding year, always beforehand." And they were bound to lay before the Lords of the Treasury, copies of the accounts and estimates upon which their orders for importation, prices for sale, and quantities put up to sale, should be grounded.

The object of these conditions is obvious. They were intended to secure a plentiful supply of tea to the public, and to prevent its being sold at an oppressive increase of price. But monopoly and low prices are altogether incompatible. The conditions now referred to were, as to all practical purposes at least, quite inoperative.

1. In the first place, the Company made various additions to the prime cost, and consequently to the putting up price of their tea, which they ought not to have made, but which the Lords of the Treasury, had they been so disposed, could hardly disallow. They always, for example, charged the cost of the factory at Canton to the price of tea. This establishment consisted of about 20 persons, and cost at an average about 100,000*l.* a year! We do not presume to say that it was altogether useless. Undoubtedly, however, it might have been conducted at half the expense. It is a fact, that the whole American business at Canton has been transacted by the captains of the ships; and every one knows that they have had fewer disturbances with the natives than the English.

2. In the second place, it was established by the evidence taken before the select committee of 1830, that the Company had for many years thrown the whole losses arising from their outward investment upon tea, by estimating the value of the tael, or Chinese money in which the accounts are kept, at the price which it cost for the purpose of being vested in tea. This was a complete evasion of the provisions of the statute; but it was one which it was very difficult, if not impossible, to defeat.

3. In the third place, the obligation imposed on the Company, of keeping a year's supply of tea in their warehouses, contributed both to raise its price, and deteriorate its quality. From a return made to an order of the select committee of the House of Commons in 1830 (*First Report*, App. p. 23.), it appears that the shortest time any tea sold by the Company had been in store was 14 months; and that, at an average, all the teas sold during the 3 years ending with 1829 had been 17 months in store. But, according to the evidence of the most respectable American witnesses, the black and coarser kinds of tea are depreciated at least 5 per cent. by being kept a twelvemonth, and are, indeed, hardly saleable after the arrival of fresh teas from China. Adding, therefore, warehouse rent, interest of capital, and insurance for 17 months, to the deterioration in point of quality, we may estimate the loss to the public, by this well-meant but most injudicious interference of the legislature, at 15 per cent. upon the price of all the teas sold.

4. In the fourth place, it is obvious, even supposing the prime cost of the Company's teas had not been improperly enhanced, that the regulation obliging them to be sold at an advance of 1*d.* per lb. if offered, on the putting-up price, could not be otherwise than nugatory. Had the trade been open, private merchants would have undersold each other, until the price of tea, like that of sugar or coffee, had been reduced to the very lowest point that would yield the sellers the customary rate of profit. But the Company was in an entirely different situation. Being the *only sellers*, they invariably *understocked* the market. Instead of bringing forward such quantities of tea as might have occasioned its sale at a small advance upon the upset price, they adjusted the supply so that the price was raised to a much higher elevation. Now, it will be observed, that all that this system of management put into the Company's coffers consisted of *extra profit*; for the putting up price embraced every item that could fairly enter into the cost of the tea, including both *interest* on capital and insurance, and including also, as we have seen, several items that had but little to do with it. To show the extent to which this source of profit was cultivated, we may mention, that at the June sale in 1830, the company put up congon at 1*s.* 8*d.* and 2*s.* 1*d.* per lb.; the lowest sort, or that put up at 1*s.* 8*d.*, being sold partly at 2*s.* 1½*d.*, being an advance of *twenty-two and a half* per cent., and partly at 2*s.* 5*d.*, being an advance of *forty-nine* per cent.; while the highest sort, or that put up at 2*s.* 1*d.*, was sold partly at 2*s.* 2*d.*, being an advance of *four* per cent., and partly at 3*s.* 7*d.*, being an advance of no less than *seventy-two* per cent. above the upset price; that is, above a price calculated to yield *ordinary profits*. Mr. Mills, an intelligent and extensive wholesale tea merchant, in a paper laid before the recent committee of the House of Lords on East India affairs, showed, that the advance on the teas sold at the Company's June sale in 1830, above the putting-up price, amounted to 122,177*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*; and as there are 4 such sales in the year, the total advance must have been about 500,000*l.*; and this was considerably under what it had been a few years previously!

These statements show generally how the Company defeated the provisions of the act of 1784, and, indeed, turned them to its own advantage. But, as already observed, nothing else could be expected. It is nugatory to attempt to combine monopoly with low prices and good qualities. They never have existed, and it is not possible they ever should exist together. Monopoly is the parent of dearth and scarcity; freedom, of cheapness and plenty. Great, however, as was the sacrifice entailed on the people of Britain by the Company's mono-

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poly, it is doubtful whether it yielded any considerable amount of revenue to the Company. Every one, indeed, must be satisfied, on general grounds, that it was impossible for the Company to make any thing like the same profits by the privileges conceded to them, that would have been made by private individuals enjoying similar advantages. "The spirit of monopolies," to borrow the just and expressive language of Gibbon, "is narrow, lazy, and oppressive. Their work is more costly and less productive than that of independent artists; and the new improvements so eagerly grasped by the competition of freedom, are admitted with slow and sullen reluctance, in those proud corporations above the fear of a rival, and below the confession of an error." We have no doubt that the directors of the East India Company were disposed to extend its commerce, and to manage it according to the most approved principles, but they were wholly without the means of giving effect to their wishes. They had to operate through servants; and it is to be imagined that the *employés* of such bodies will ever display that watchful attention to their interests, or conduct the business intrusted to their care with the unsparring economy practised by private merchants trading on their own account, superintending their own concerns, and responsible in their own private fortunes for every error they may commit! The affairs of the Company, notwithstanding the efforts of the directors to introduce activity and economy, have always been managed according to a system of routine. Their captains and mercantile agents were, we doubt not, "all honourable men;" but it were an insult to common sense to suppose that they may be compared for a moment with individuals trading on their own account, in the great requisites of zeal, conduct, and skill.

Several gentlemen of great knowledge and experience, who have carefully inquired into the state of the Company's affairs, have expressed their decided conviction, that they made nothing by the tea trade!—the increased price at which they sold the article not being more than sufficient to balance the immense expenses incident to the monopoly! Perhaps this statement may be somewhat exaggerated, though we incline to think it is not far from the mark.—(See vol. i. p. 629.) Taking, however, the accounts laid by the Company before the late committee on Indian affairs, as they stand, it would appear that the profits realised by them during the 3 years ending with 1827–28 amounted to 2,542,569*l.*, being at the rate of 817,523*l.* a year.—(Appen. to Second Report of Select Committee of 1830, p. 95.) But we have already seen that the excess of price received by the Company for their teas, over the price of similar teas sold at New York and Hamburgh, has been above 1,500,000*l.* a year; so that, according to the Company's own showing, their monopoly occasioned an absolute loss of 652,477*l.* exclusive of its mischievous influence in lessening the consumption of tea, and in confining our trade with China to less than a third of what it will probably amount to under a system giving free scope to the energies of individual enterprise.

The renewal of a monopoly productive of such results was, therefore, wholly out of the question. There was hardly, indeed, in 1833, an individual in the empire out of the pale of the Company who was not anxious for the opening of the trade to China; and the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 93,—(see vol. i. p. 304.) abolishing the Company's monopoly, and making it lawful for all individuals to import tea, was passed with almost no opposition.

IV. DUTIES ON TEA.—CONSUMPTION OF, ON THE CONTINENT AND IN THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

Down to the 22d of April, 1834, the duty on tea was an *ad valorem* one, being 96 per cent. on all teas sold under 2*s.* a pound, and 100 per cent. on all that were sold at or above 2*s.* Seeing that tea may now be considered almost as a necessary of life, this was, certainly, a high duty; though, as a large amount of revenue must be raised, we do not know that it could be fairly objected to on that ground. But under the monopoly system, the duty was, in fact, about 200 per cent. *ad valorem*! For, the price of the tea sold by the Company being forced up to nearly double what it would have been had the trade been free, it followed, inasmuch as the duty varied directly as the price, that it also was doubled when the latter was doubled. The price of Congou at Hamburgh, for example, varies from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per lb.; and had the Company supplied our markets with congou at the same rate, it would have cost us, duty included, from 2*s.* 2*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per lb. But instead of this, the congou sold by the Company has been, at an average, a good deal above 2*s.* per lb.; and, the duty being as much, it has invariably cost us from 4*s.* to 5*s.* per lb. Hence, though the duty was only 100 per cent. on the Company's price, it was really above 200 per cent. on the price of tea in an open market! The mischief of the monopoly was thus aggravated almost beyond endurance; inasmuch as every addition made by it to the cost of the article, made an equal addition to the duty on it.

But this system is now happily at an end. The *ad valorem* duties ceased on the 22d of April, 1834; and all tea imported in the United Kingdom for home consumption is now charged with a customs duty as follows:—

Bohea	-	1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb.
Congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and campol	-	2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i> -
Souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial, and other teas not enumerated	-	3 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> -

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If we compare these duties with the prices of tea at New York and Hamburgh, they will be found to be exceedingly heavy, particularly on bohea and congou. It is pretty certain, that, at no distant period, bohea will be sold, exclusive of the duty, at or under 1s. per lb.; and supposing this to be the case, the present fixed duty will be equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 150 per cent. But to impose such a duty on an article fitted to enter largely into the consumption of the lower classes, seems to be in the last degree oppressive and absurd. It will go far to neutralise the beneficial effects that would otherwise result from the abolition of the monopoly; and cannot fail, by confining the consumption of the article within comparatively narrow bounds, to render the duty less productive than it would be were it lower. Nothing can be more injurious, both in a commercial and financial point of view, than the imposition of oppressive duties on articles, the consumption of which would be materially extended by a fall of price; and that such is the case with bohea is beyond all question. The Company, by reducing its price from about 2s. 6d. to 1s. 10½d. per lb. (which was, of course, accompanied by a corresponding reduction of duty), increased the consumption from 1,873,981 lbs. in 1822-23; to 4,474,838 lbs. in 1831-32. Here we have the consumption more than trebled by a fall of about 1s. 3d. per lb. And we have not the slightest doubt that a further fall of 1s. 3d. would, by bringing the article fairly within the command of a vastly greater number of consumers, extend the demand for it in a much greater degree. But it is hardly possible that such a reduction should take place, unless 6d. be taken from the duty. We trust, however, that this may be done. At 1s. per lb., the duty would undoubtedly yield more than it will ever do at 1s. 6d. We may also add that nothing would do so much to weaken the pernicious habit of gin-drinking, as a fall in the price of tea, coffee, &c. And it is not to be endured that the price of such desirable articles should be raised to an exorbitant height by duties, that would be more productive of revenue were they effectually reduced.

It has been wholly owing to their exorbitant prices, that notwithstanding the English are the richest people in the world, and that the taste for tea is so very generally diffused amongst us, we consume very little of the superior qualities! Indeed, some of the finest are not to be met with in our markets; and while about a dozen kinds of tea are regularly quoted in the Hamburgh, Amsterdam, and New York Price Currents, there are never more than 7, and sometimes only 6, species to be met with here. Imperial, a very fine green tea, regularly imported into America, and all parts of the Continent, is unknown in the English market. Single, once imported by the Company, has disappeared for about 50 years. Peckoe and gunpowder, the finest qualities of black and green, are little known in the English market; and have been only imported in small quantities by the officers of the Company's ships.

The abolition of the monopoly will, no doubt, introduce a greater variety of teas; and, by lowering their price, will materially extend the demand for those of a superior quality. The fixed duty on the finer teas is, when compared to their prices, a good deal less than that laid on bohea and congou. But a preference of this sort ought not to exist, or to exist only in favour of the coarser teas, or of those consumed by the mass of the people. A duty even of 1s. on bohea would be very decidedly higher than a duty of 3s. on imperial and gunpowder.

We subjoin an abstract of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101. regulating the tea duties.

Tea importable into the U. K. from the Cape of Good Hope, &c.—From and after the 23d of April 1834, it shall be lawful to import any tea into the United Kingdom from the Cape of Good Hope, and from places eastward of the same to the Straits of Magellan, and not from any other place.—§ 1.

Tea importable into British possessions, &c.—It shall be lawful to import any tea into any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, or into the British possessions of America, from the Cape of Good Hope and places eastward of the same to the Straits of Magellan, or from the United Kingdom, and not from any other place.—§ 2.

Duties.—From and after the 23d of April, 1834, the duties of excise payable upon tea shall cease and determine, except as hereafter provided, and in lieu of such duties, there shall be paid the duties of customs set forth in the Table following; and such duties shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his Majesty, and shall be appropriated and applied in like manner as if the same had been imposed by an act passed in the present session of parliament for granting duties of customs; viz.

Table of Duties on Tea in Warehouse, or imported into the United Kingdom:

Tea, viz	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Bohea, per lb.	0 1 6	
Congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and campoi, per lb.	0 2 2	0 3 0
		Souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial, and other sorts not enumerated, per lb.

I recited, that nothing herein contained shall alter or affect the duties payable upon tea sold by the East India Company at their public sales, prior to the said 23d of April, 1834: provided also, that the allowance commonly called draft, made by the commissioners of excise in the weighing of tea, shall be made by the commissioners of customs under the authority of this act.—§ 3.

Abatement for Sea Damage not allowed.—No abatement of duty shall be made on account of damage received by tea during the voyage; but it shall be lawful for the importer to separate the damaged parts, and to abandon the same to the commissioners of the customs for the duty.—§ 4.

Mixed Tea liable to highest Duty.—If different sorts of tea mixed together be imported in the same package, the whole shall be liable to the highest rate of duty to which any of such sorts would be

* The price of bohea in the New York market, in January, 1834, was from 13 to 16 cents per lb.; that is, about 7½d. Should the price of bohea sink to this level in London, the duty would be near 300 per cent. on its value!—(See post.)

separately liable; and if 2 or more sorts of tea not perfectly mixed together be imported in 1 package, the same shall be forfeited, and may be seized, sued for, recovered, and dealt with in the same manner as any forfeiture incurred under any law relating to the customs.—§ 5.

Importation of Tea to be under the Customs.—From and after the passing of this act, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, by warrant under the hands of 3 or more of them, to order and direct that the importation of tea, and the duties thereon, shall be under the management of the commissioners of customs, instead of the commissioners of excise, and from and after the time specified in such warrant, the same shall be transferred accordingly; provided, that until the transfer of such management, and of the custody of tea in warehouse, shall be fully made under the directions of the Lords of the Treasury, any act, &c. done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of excise, or their officers, shall have the same effect in law as if it had been done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of customs, or their officers, under the authority of this act; but nothing herein contained shall alter or affect any law of excise relating to licences for the sale of tea, or to permits for its removal, or to the internal management of tea by the excise, after the import duties have been paid, and after it has been delivered out of the charge of the officers of the customs.—§ 6.

Treasury may discontinue Permits for Tea and other Goods.—It shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, by warrant or order under the hands of 3 or more of them, to discontinue the practice of issuing permits for the removal of tea, and to make and establish any other rules, regulations, and restrictions in lieu of such practice, as shall appear to them necessary for the security of the revenue; and all rules, regulations, and restrictions so made and established, shall have the force of law, as fully as if they were embodied in this act, and shall be obeyed and enforced in like manner as any rules, regulations, &c. are or can be obeyed or enforced under the provisions of any act or acts of parliament relating to the customs, or to the excise; and copies of such rules, regulations, &c. shall be laid before parliament.—§ 7.

Assessment of the Duties.—A good deal of discussion has recently taken place with respect to these duties. It has been contended, that it will be impossible to assess them fairly; and that it would be better to establish a uniform duty of 2s. a pound. We understand, however, that the *ad valorem* duties formerly charged on teas imported into the United States, were collected with considerable success; and we do not see why the same duty not be done here. But whatever device may be fallen upon to obviate frauds upon the revenue, or to facilitate the collection of the duties, we protest against its being attempted by an equalisation of the duties. The real objection to the present scale is not that the duties differ too much, but that they differ too little—that the duty on bohea is much too high as compared with that on the finer teas. The equalisation of the duties, would, indeed, be a proceeding too glaringly opposed to every fair principle, to be tolerated. Should it, however, be found necessary to make any alteration in the duties, on account of the difficulty in the way of their assessment, the better way would probably be, to admit congon at the duty of 1s. 6d. It is only in the substitution of congon for bohea, that any considerable frauds can take place; and this would, of course, effectually obviate them. This plan is objectionable, no doubt, from its leaving the duty on bohea too high; but as we have only to choose among difficulties, it is, perhaps, as good a one as could be made.

Port Charges in China.—We expressed, in a previous article, (see vol. I. p. 304.) our doubts as to the policy of the clause in the act opening the China trade, which authorised the imposition of peculiar duties on the ships and goods engaged in the trade, for the purpose of defraying the cost of the establishment to be kept up at Canton. Soon after that paragraph was printed, an order in council was issued, fixing the duties in question at 2s. per ton of tonnage duty, and 7s. per cent. on the value of the goods into and exports from China. These were heavy charges; and as the American and other foreign ships resorting to Canton are not liable to any claims of the sort, their imposition on British ships would have been most injurious to them. The order in council, being, in consequence, loudly and justly objected to, was very properly withdrawn. An arrangement has since been made, by which the expense of the factory is to be defrayed, $\frac{1}{2}$ by the British government, and $\frac{1}{2}$ by the East India Company; so that British ships will not be liable to any charges, except such as are imposed by the Chinese, and which fall on all foreigners alike.—(For an account of these charges, see vol. I. p. 256.)

Capacity of China to furnish additional Supplies of Tea.—It has been sometimes contended, that the tea trade being thrown open, were the duties materially reduced, the increased demand of this country could not be supplied, and that the reduction of the duty would not really benefit the British consumer, but the Chinese government. Our readers will hardly expect that we should enter at any length into the refutation of so absurd a notion. At the commencement of last century, the entire annual consumption of tea in this country, the Continent, and America, did not certainly amount to 500,000 lbs.; whereas the consumption of Great Britain, the Continent, and United States, amounts at present to about 80,000,000 lbs.; and yet every one acquainted with the history of the trade is aware, that though the consumption has increased a hundred fold, the prices in all open markets have been regularly declining, and even at the Company's sales they have lately been a good deal less than they were 50 or 60 years since. We may, therefore, rest quite easy upon this point. The production of tea is rapidly extending in China; and the vast extent of that empire, its capacities for raising unlimited quantities of tea, and the extent to which it is there used, negative the idea that any conceivable increase of the consumption of this country should have any perceptible or permanent influence on its cost price.

Retail Dealers in Tea.—Retailers of tea are obliged to take out a licence, which costs 11s. a year. In 1832, their numbers were, in England, 76,713, in Scotland 13,701, in Ireland 11,273; making, for the United Kingdom, a grand total of 101,687!

ADULTERATION OF TEA.—It might have been fairly enough anticipated, from the high price of, and the high duty on, tea, and the facility with which it may be mixed up with foreign substances, that it would not escape adulteration; and the records of the courts of justice show that such is the case; several dealers having been convicted of this pernicious practice. The adulteration is usually effected either by the intermixture of silex or ash leaves with fresh tea; or by mixing the latter with tea that has been already used. The penalties on such offences are stated below; but the best, or rather the only, security on which any reliance can be placed, is to be found in the character and respectability of the parties dealing in tea. Even were he influenced by nothing else, it would be extreme folly in any person carrying on an extensive business to engage in such dishonest practices; for they can hardly fail of being detected; and the ruin of his business, that would follow such exposure, would far more than balance whatever gains he could hope to make by his fraudulent schemes.

... presents a very different result; the imports having amounted to 43,000,000 lbs., exceeding by above 10,000,000 lbs., or 30 per cent., the Company's imports when largest! We submit

An account of the Quantities of Tea imported into the United Kingdom, the Quantities retained for Consumption, and the Net Revenue derived from the same, in 1831, 1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Year.	Imported	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Net Revenue.
	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>£</i>
1834	33,643,680	1,181,005	34,069,651	3,589,361
1835	41,560,550	2,158,020	39,571,004	3,532,427
1836	49,307,701	4,269,863	49,142,236	4,674,555
1837	56,073,981	4,716,245	56,025,206	3,223,840
1838	39,867,441	-	39,866,412	-

The excess of the quantity retained for consumption in 1836 was occasioned by the change in the duties that year, which made it necessary to enter all the heavy stock of bales then in bond, in order to escape the duty of 2s. 1d. to which it would otherwise have become liable.

For an account of the species of tea, and the quantities of each exported from Canton to England and the United States, during the year ended 30th of June, 1837, see art. *CANTON*, vol. i. p. 300-310.

The extension of the trade is not, however, the only gratifying circumstance connected with it. Notwithstanding the great additions made to the exports, there has been no rise of prices at Canton worth mentioning; a fact which sets the ability of China to furnish additional supplies in the most striking point of view. The quality, too, of the free trade teas is said by some to be superior, and is admitted by all to be at least equal, to that of the Company's teas. Many apprehensions were entertained of disturbances taking place between the crews of the private ships and the natives that might interrupt or stop the trade; but nothing of the sort has occurred. Under all the disadvantages of inexperience, the free traders have, with but few exceptions, conducted themselves with singular tact and address; and the captives of the different ships agree in affirming, that Canton is a port where they may unload, load, and clear out, not only without any difficulty, but with as much facility and expedition as at either London or Liverpool. It is singular, indeed, how completely the statements put forth by the Company's advocates, in favour of the monopoly, have been disproved: in fact, the only interruption of any kind given to the free traders was occasioned by the pretensions advanced by the individual sent out to watch over their interests; and, however painful the way in which that interruption was terminated, there can be no doubt that the event was a most fortunate one for the success of this great experiment.

The opening of the trade has been quite as successful as respects exports as imports. The quantity and value of the cottons shipped for China in 1836 very much exceed the quantity and value of those shipped in any previous year; and though, owing to the revolution in the American trade, they fell off considerably in 1837; they have since nearly reached their highest level. This, indeed, might have been anticipated; but few comparatively anticipated what has turned out to be the fact, that the cotton stuffs have met with a quick and advantageous sale; and that all descriptions of twist, with the exception of some of the higher numbers, have, also, realised good prices and profits. Indeed, we have no doubt, as well for other reasons as from the statements of gentlemen of great experience recently arrived from China, that the trade between that country and England is yet only in its infancy. Nor is it possible to estimate the mighty dimensions to which it may attain, should our cottons, as there seems to be a fair prospect, come into extensive use among the Chinese.

Tea (Duties on).—We mentioned (p. 629.) that objections had been made to the duties imposed on tea by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101.; and that it had been proposed to repeal them, and to impose in their stead an equal duty of 2s. per lb. Had tea been of a nearly uniform quality, or had the different teas been of nearly the same value, there would have been nothing to object to in the equalisation of the duty; but, so far from this being the case, small beer does not differ more from strong than some sorts of tea from others; and while the price in bond, of the inferior sorts, in most markets, does not exceed 10d. or 1s. per lb., that of the superior sorts is as high as 4s. or 5s. Under these circumstances, it is not easy to imagine that any thing can apparently be more oppressive or unjust than the imposition of the same rate of duty on all sorts of tea. But, admitting the injustice, it was contended that it was not really of a kind that could be obviated; that it was impossible to discriminate between different qualities of tea; that, by imposing different rates of duty, a door was opened to every species of fraud; and that teas admitted at one port at the low duty of 1s. 6d. were charged at another with the higher duties of 2s. 2d. and 3s. per lb. We believe these statements were much exaggerated; though no doubt can be entertained of their being true to a certain extent. It was evident, indeed, that considerable difficulties would have to be encountered at the outset of a new system; but it is probable that a little experience would have done much to obviate them; and it is believed by many well-informed persons, that the duties charged under the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101. might have been, at no very distant period, assessed with considerable fairness. But government, influenced partly by a wish to get rid of the clamour and outcry raised by the importers against the discriminating duties, and partly, perhaps, by a doubt whether they could ever be fairly collected, consented

... the tea, &c. and that they were to be made of all being fabricated into tea, &c. every grade in the possession of, &c. price.—Sect. 2.
... person, make oath that he suspects or is informed by information of tea, &c. he is bid or may issue a warrant for seeing the goods in the presence of a constable (to be directed to be burnt, and the wrapper, &c. of the parcels, and the wrapper, &c. attached, the proceeds to be stored, &c. penalty of 50s., or not less than 10s. or more than 100s.—Sect. 3.
... not less than 24 hours, that the proprietor of tea, plants, or articles intended to be fabricated in violation of the law, &c. shall be liable to the penalty, &c.—Sect. 2.

... Of the Continental tea is considerable, or 6,461,064 lbs. The tea in Holland amounts to 4 1/2 per lb. The importations into Hamburg of which is forwarded to do not exceed a few cwt.

... Duties on tea used in some years produced and it is probably owing to the fact that in some years the tea is more stationary than in England.—Sect. 2, in his Report for 1827, United States, as to rank in the production at home upon it may safely be re-considerably exceeds 100 per cent. A policy points out. A violation of the article, to an injury the revenue. Its mode of progressive value, &c. are more and more in our ports; in the pre-war markets in Europe, &c. It would also serve to be so valuable, through the fact that it could not fail to be admitted of a very great value to be expected, the account of the tea imported from the United States in 1838, 15th of February,

Exports.	
<i>£</i>	55,30
<i>£</i>	51,461
<i>£</i>	13,004
<i>£</i>	340,474
<i>£</i>	910,000
<i>£</i>	1,278,468
<i>Dollars</i>	701,014

on the 15th of January,	
<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Doll. Cts.</i>
- 25	to 0 50 per lb.
- 25	to 0 40
- 15	to 0 15

... the results of the first 4 years the anticipations of those who were generally. At an average of 33, their average annual of 33-34, the last year of the first year of the free

h the act 5 & 6 Will.
tuty of 2s. 1d. per lb.
umpion in the United

assessing discriminating
o so much the advantage
of a successful life; and
low, if we take the price
at 4s., the existing duty
of the poor, and of little
and, if the difficulties in
doption of any means at
the poor. Perhaps it was
in we suggested (ante, p.
1 better) been charged on
e been allowed to stand
ue would have lost little
objectionable.

dated the 10th of July,
a, and its removal from
one of being warehoused

under the 124th section of the Re-
of 1860, not exceeding 3 cwt. of
ies in dry open circumstances,
as the Board may see fit to direct,
rior to the goods be allowed to
the water the 31st section of the Ge.

the principal parts of importation to
the United Kingdom, for the pur-
home consumption, to be the same
ditions specified in the General
51, and 14 of November, 1842, in
as the produce of the East India
allowed to be deposited in ware-
e already been approved for other

the goods, shall be imported into
d Glasgow market, and transhipped
renewed in Glasgow in charge of
under such circumstances for the ac-
cessary necessary in such cases, its
the purpose of ascertaining the
at Glasgow instead of the port a

be examined at the time of importa-
amount of duty to which they may
retained shall be assessed and the
may be delivered for home con-

will be no objection to the goods
port of importation to any other
Kingdom for the purpose of being
plant, under the same regulations,
the removal of articles the produce

h, Glasgow, Greenock,
into which tea may be

September 30th, 1839,
Exports.—*Am. Ed.*
grandis, a large forest
Burman empire, Pegu,
it works easily, and
is very little; it is of
ays, that in comparing
to preponderate. "It
uniform and decided;
for it may be put into
It is fit to endure all
Carpentry, p. 206;

in, is deemed the best of
ing at once the heaviest
such parts of a ship as
works, and is not at all fit
y suitable for planking
urable as the others. It
ars. Malabar teak is ex-
tremely in destructible by
80 to 100 years; they
ect in their construction,
the timbers and frame-
teak of Burma, being
rtanian, is the cheapest
ee RANGOON.)—*Prisist*

A species of timber called African teak is pretty largely imported into England, from the west coast of Africa. But, in point of fact, it is not teak, and it is destitute of several of its most valuable properties. It is, however, for some purposes, a useful species of timber.

TEASEL, or FULLERS' THISTLE (Ger. *Weberdistel*, *Kratzdistel*; Fr. *Chardon carder*; It. *Cardo da cardare*; Sp. *Carduecha*, *Cardo peinador*). This plant, which is cultivated in the north and west of England, is an article of considerable importance to clothiers, who employ the crooked awns of the heads for raising the nap on woollen cloths; for this purpose they are fixed round the periphery of a large broad wheel, against which the cloth is held while the machine is turned. In choosing teasels, the preference should be given to those with the largest bur, and most pointed, which are generally called *male teasels*. They are mostly used in preparing and dressing stockings and coverlets; the smaller kind, commonly called the fullers' or drapers', and sometimes the *female teasels*, are used in the preparation of the finer stuffs, as cloths, ratens, &c.

THREAD (Ger. *Zwirn*; Du. *Garen*; Fr. *Fil*; It. *Refce*; Sp. *Hilo*, *Torzal*; Rus. *Nitki*), a small line made up of a number of fibres of some vegetable or animal substance, such as flax, cotton, or silk; whence its names of linen, cotton, or silk, thread.

TILES (Ger. *Dachziegel*; Fr. *Tuiles*; It. *Tegole*, *Embrici*; Sp. *Trijas*; Rus. *Tsherpiza*), a sort of thin bricks, dried in kilns, and used in covering and paving different kinds of buildings. The best brick earth only should be made into tiles.—(See БИТКА and ТИЛЫ.)

TIMBER (Ger. *Bauholz*, *Zimmer*; Du. *Timmerhout*; Fr. *Bois de charpente*, *Bois à bâtir*; It. *Legname da fabbricare*; Sp. *Madera de construccion*; Rus. *Стрѣвовой Гѣс*; Pol. *Cembrowina*), the term used to express every large tree squared, or capable of being squared, and fit for being employed in house or ship building. In the language of the customs, when a tree is sawn into thin pieces, not above 7 inches broad, it is called *hatten*; when above that breadth, such thin pieces are called *deal*. Wood is the general term, comprehending under it timber, dye woods, fire wood, &c.

Timber is generally sold by the load.

The following are the contents of the loads of different species of timber, hewn and unheewn:—

A load of timber unheewn	- - 40 cubic feet.	A load of 2½ inch plank	- - 240 square feet.
square-d timber	- - 40	3 inch plank	- - 200
1 inch plank	- - 600 square feet.	3½ inch plank	- - 170
1½ inch plank	- - 400	4 inch plank	- - 150
2 inch plank	- - 300		

36} Russian stand deals 12 feet long, 1½ inch thick, 11 inches broad, make 1 load timber.			
58} Christiania ditto	- 11	1½	9
53} Dram ditto	- 10	1½	1
3 Riga logs	- - -	- - -	- 1

Price of Memel Timber per Load, in the Month of January each Year, from 1813 to 1831.

Year	Price per Load.			Year	Price per Load.			Year	Price per Load.		
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
1813	10 10 0	in	11 0 0	1820	8 0 0	to	8 5 0	1828	6 10 0	to	8 15 0
1814	10 10 0	-	11 0 0	1821	8 0 0	-	8 2 8	1827	4 15 0	-	5 7 6
1815	8 0 0	-	8 15 0	1822	8 0 0	-	5 5 0	1825	4 15 0	-	5 0 0
1816	6 0 0	-	7 0 0	1823	5 15 0	-	5 17 0	1826	6 0 0	-	6 10 0
1817	6 0 0	-	8 0 0	1824	8 10 0	-	8 12 6	1830	4 17 8	-	6 2 6
1818	6 10 0	-	8 12 6	1825	8 15 0	-	6 0 0	1831	4 15 0	-	5 2 6
1819	6 15 0	-	8 17 6								

The following were the prices of the principal species of timber in the London markets, March, 1834, duty paid.—(For the duties, see TARIFF.)

Species	Unit	L. s. d.			Species	Unit	L. s. d.					
		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.			L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.			
Tok, African	per load	8 10 0	to	7 10 0	Deals, Quebec red pine, per standard hundred	12	0	0	to 16	0 0		
Oil plank, European		8 0 0	to	10 0 0	yellow		12	0	0	to 18	0 0	
Quercus		6 0 0	to	6 10 0	white spruce	per 120 ft	21	0	0	to 23	0 0	
R. Bee.		8 10 0	to	0 0 0	Danvic deck	each 20	0	0	to 30	0 0		
Isa (negl) Memel		8 0 0	to	0 0 0	Deal ends, &c. generally 2 3ds the price of deals.							
Novy balka	per 120 ft	26	0	0	Spain							
Kia, Quebec red	per load	4	0	0	Lathwood, Memel, &c.	per fathom	6	10	0	to 9	0 0	
yellow		3	10	0	British America		4	10	0	to 5	0 0	
New Brunswick, red		3	7	6	Staves, per 1,200 via							
Minnesota yellow		3	5	0	Quebec pine		95	0	0	to 0	0 0	
Red birch		3	4	0	Hbl. 1-3d, and barrel 1-2 price of pine.							
Maple	America		3	5	0	0						
As			3	0	0	0						
Wax tree, 14 feet	each	3	15	0	0		18	0	0	to 12	0 0	
Is-cord	per ton	32	0	0	0	Hbl.		7	0	to 14	0 0	
Kia, Quebec red, 10 to 18 inches	per load	6	0	0	0	Barrel		16	0	to 0	0 0	
Yellow, 30 inch, and upwards		7	0	0	0	Hbl.		1	0	to 0	0 0	
Roa		4	0	0	0	Quebec pine, of 1 1/2 inch		46	0	to 47	0 0	
Novy and Swedish		0	0	0	0	Hbl. and barrel, in proportion.						
Pol.		0	0	0	0	New York pine, in bond.		15	0	to 18	0 0	
Pol.		0	0	0	0	Hbl.		9	0	to 12	0 0	
Pol.		16	0	0	0	Barrel		7	0	to 10	0 0	
Hbl. Gals. 4 feet 8 inches by 10	per 120 ft	38	0	0	0	Danvic crown pine		150	0	to 0	0 0	
Stockholm		37	0	0	0	Sialtic crown pine		150	0	to 0	0 0	
Göteborg, 12 feet 9 in. by 8		33	0	0	0	Hbls 2 3ds, barrel 1 2 price						
Stockholm, 1st and 2d		32	0	0	0	Long heading, 1 3d, short heading, 1 4 price						
Peterhofskil		29	0	0	0	Memel crown pine		150	0	to 0	0 0	
Danz. Archangel		18	0	0	0	Timber, Russia, per load of 50 cubic feet		5	10	0	to 0	0 0
Novoroch. Danvic, or Memel, per standard hundred		18	0	0	0	Memel, &c.		4	17	6	to 6	0 0
White wood, from 21 to 24, less.		18	0	0	0							

(During the session of 1835 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the operation of the existing duties on timber. Having examined several witnesses, the committee agreed to the following resolutions:—

1. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the present mode of taking the duties on deals is susceptible of improvement, and that this committee would recommend that a mode be adopted which shall approach more nearly to a payment according to the contents of the deals.
2. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the difference of duty of 45s., now imposed by law upon timber the produce of Europe, as compared with timber the produce of our North American colonies, is too great, and may be reduced.
3. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that, having a due regard to the interests which have been created in the British North American colonies by the system hitherto pursued, and to the representations of the shipping interest, a reduction of the protective duty, not exceeding 15s. per load, appears to them to be a fair arrangement.
4. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that such reduction be made, so far as may be consistent with the interests of the revenue, without any augmentation on the duty on colonial timber.
5. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that, in any alteration made, such alteration should not affect the shipments made in the year 1836.
6. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that there should be an uniform mode of taking the duty on deals throughout the United Kingdom.

The adoption of these resolutions would be a material improvement. Still, however, they fall far short of what the public exigencies require. An ample supply of the best and cheapest timber being, if not absolutely indispensable, of the almost possible importance to a manufacturing nation, (possessed of a large mercantile and warlike navy, it should be about the very last article on which duties should be imposed. But, if a tax must, on the principle of *quævus modo ram*, be laid on timber, it is surely unnecessary to say that it should be laid equally on all timber imported; or that, if a distinction be made, it ought plainly to be in favour of the best, and not of the worst, article. But, for several years past, our policy, if we may so call it, has been exactly the reverse of this. We have laid high discriminating duties on the superior and cheaper timber of the north of Europe, to force the importation of a dearer and comparatively bad article from our North American possessions! Even supposing the suggestion of the committee were adopted, there would still be a discriminative duty of 30s. a load charged on the superior timber of the north of Europe over that which is laid on inferior timber from North America. The folly of thus enhancing the cost, and deteriorating the quality, of an important article as timber, is the greater, seeing that it is by no means clear that our North American possessions derive any real advantage from the timber trade; at all events, it is certain that they do not gain by it more than a very small part of the loss it entails on us; and any injury that might be done them by the equalisation of the timber duties, would be more than made up by the repeal of the discriminating duties that are at present charged on most articles of foreign produce imported into the colonies; duties which, without being productive of revenue, are the source of much irritation and disgust.

The shipowners would sustain more injury from an equalisation of the timber duties than any one else. But we have shown (vol. II. p. 639.) that, even as regards them, the inconvenience would not be very considerable. But, whatever it might be, it would be fully obviated by allowing them a bounty of 30s. or 40s. on the conveyance of emigrants to Quebec; a measure of the policy of which we are on this, as well as on other grounds fully persuaded.—(See *Dict. in loc. cit.*)

Statement showing the Importation and Consumption of Timber in the United Kingdom, for the Fifteen Years ending the 1st of February, 1839:

Articles.	IMPORT, Years ending 1st February.				CONSUMPTION, Years ending 1st February.					
	Average of the 11 yrs. 1825 to 1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	Average of the 11 yrs. 1825 to 1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.
British America:										
Pine, cubic feet	4,511,001	7,281,500	6,284,800	5,691,400	6,527,147	4,459,464	6,300,000	6,933,680	5,240,000	6,897,570
Quebec Deals, standard	1,702	8,223	5,367	3,431	3,306	1,684	3,771	3,140	2,294	2,681
Oak, cubic feet	187,345	306,500	203,8	130,780	217,731	178,136	195,509	243,400	161,640	182,000
Elm and Ash	117,000	71,700	61,400	104,976	-	99,000	103,100	76,800	85,300	70,000
Staves, nails	714	333	308	196	136	769	341	309	24	268
Pine Planks, feet of 2 in. Hard-wood (Birch), cubic feet	2,744,183	6,442,000	4,863,400	6,862,300	7,430,000	2,611,664	5,212,000	4,640,400	4,447,800	6,518,600
Lathwood, fathoms	145,996	298,000	278,500	272,430	338,161	320,754	322,400	322,100	283,300	307,400
Baltic:	1,181	1,357	1,063	1,069	1,161	1,161	1,161	1,177	1,004	1,161
Timber, Deal, M. Musel, Rigs, &c., cubic feet	588,045	573,000	255,750	286,730	537,361	578,818	549,000	401,550	365,850	318,500
Deals, standard	3,743	4,984	3,404	4,396	3,754	5,572	4,267	4,388	3,728	4,667
Wainsot Logs	whole 48	648	868	879	910	854	574	329	688	843
Deck Planks, pieces	half 69	12	5	5	471	49	49	5	10	71
Staves, pine, M.	18	13,179	16,794	6,284	7,437	6,801	19,216	13,202	9,347	6,761
Lathwood, fathoms	79	54	60	21	73	82	47	65	40	61
8 feet 4 feet	636	629	747	478	807	587	60	688	551	612
Mahogany, Honduras, &c.	1,171	2,189	4,831	3,043	3,000	1,178	1,945	3,627	2,967	3,598
St. Domingo	2,277	4,111	5,098	7,008	7,003	8,073	3,911	4,991	7,316	7,068
Cuba	742	1,611	3,878	3,551	3,603	43	1,221	2,978	3,101	1,566
Cedar, Havana, &c.	609	1,094	1,544	2,285	715	865	815	1,011	1,171	2,011
Pine, cubic feet	4,315	21,011	17,000	12,430	13,212	7,577	15,141	16,100	10,922	17,881
Yew Pine	24,33	121,400	61,900	65,709	41,770	25,380	46,300	128,999	43,400	130,000
Africa Oak	127,72	13,817	6,600	139,000	87,812	21,073	19,400	11,690	41,760	120,000

British America
Quebec
Oak, cubic feet
Elm and Ash
Staves, nails
Pine Planks, feet of 2 in.
Hard-wood (Birch), cubic feet
Lathwood, fathoms
Baltic
Timber, Deal, M. Musel, Rigs, &c., cubic feet
Deals, standard
Wainsot Logs
Deck Planks, pieces
Staves, pine, M.
Lathwood, fathoms
Mahogany, Honduras, &c.
St. Domingo
Cuba
Cedar, Havana, &c.
Pine, cubic feet
Yew Pine
Africa Oak

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Statement showing the Stock and Prices Current of Timber, in the United Kingdom, for the last Fifteen Years, ending the 1st of February, 1839.

Articles.	STOCK, on the 1st February.					Prices Current, on 1st February.				
	Average of the 11 yrs 1828 to 1838.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	Average of the 11 years 1828 to 1838.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.
British America						L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Soft, cubic feet	2,039,081	2,826,780	2,178,000	2,025,400	2,740,000	Vol. 1 7 3/4	Vol. 1 8	Vol. 1 8	Vol. 1 7 3/4	Vol. 1 8
Hard Pine, standard	714	1,282	1,870	2,207	3,024	11 13 3	11 15 0	14 0 0	11 10 0	11 10 0
Oak, cubic feet	116,238	145,640	108,000	75,400	110,500	0 2 5 1/2	0 2 8	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Elm and Ash	43,709	61,570	69,800	14,800	31,500	0 1 7 1/2	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 2 4	0 2 4
Spruce, mill	3,274	9,900	6,000	4,500	2,800	2 1 5 1/4	2 1 8	47 10 0	45 0 0	55 0 0
Five planks, feet of 12 inches	475	708	844	978	650	21 4 7 1/2	17 10 0	20 6 0	16 10 0	10 10 0
Scots Pine (Birch)	922,454	2,463,000	864,000	2,331,000	4,183,000	0 0 2 3/4	0 0 2 3/4	0 0 2 3/4	0 0 2 3/4	0 0 2 3/4
Scots Pine (Fir)	61,881	89,560	46,200	35,200	64,000	0 1 1 1/4	0 1 4 1/2	0 1 8 1/2	0 1 5	0 1 7
Lake and Athol	323	971	157	221	576	4 18 11 1/4	6 6 0	7 15 0	7 5 0	6 6 0
Woods, British										
Woods, Foreign										
Woods, Foreign	291,381	259,000	143,200	81,100	260,000	0 2 11 1/2	0 2 4 1/2	0 2 6 1/2	0 2 7	0 2 2 1/2
Woods, Foreign	1,587	2,092	892	1,473	1,674	15 16 9 3/4	18 5 0	17 10 0	17 0 0	17 0 0
Woods, Foreign	3,000	178	218	259	1,772	4 4 6 1/4	4 5 0	6 0 0	5 5 0	2 6 0
Woods, Foreign	70	7	7	7	471	1 10 1	2 0 0	2 6 0	5 0 0	2 0 0
Woods, Foreign	2,814	5,437	7,931	4,860	5,146	0 0 4 1/2	0 0 1 1/4	0 0 4 1/2	0 0 4 1/2	0 0 4 1/2
Woods, Foreign	28	24	49	30	47	14 18 4 1/2	15 0 0	18 0 0	15 0 0	14 7 0
Woods, Foreign	152	92	171	119	235	14 5 8 1/4	16 0 0	19 10 0	19 10 0	18 15 0
Woods, Foreign						8 11 3 1/2	6 0 0	9 10 0	9 15 0	8 15 0
Woods, Foreign	463	558	1,792	1,863	1,555	0 0 1 1/2	0 1 0	0 0 10	0 0 8 1/2	0 0 8 1/2
Woods, Foreign	1,303	1,353	1,747	1,401	1,401	0 1 8 1/4	0 1 10	0 1 8	0 1 5 1/2	0 1 6 1/2
Woods, Foreign	306	426	1,220	1,579	896	0 1 11 1/4	0 1 11 1/4	0 0 10	0 0 8 1/2	0 0 11 1/2
Woods, Foreign	258	270	763	1,587	332	0 0 6 1/2	0 0 8	0 0 7	0 0 5 1/2	0 0 6 1/2
Woods, Foreign	12,872	8,700	10,410	12,900	7,850	0 4 11 3/4	0 5 6	0 5 8	0 5 6 1/2	0 4 8
Woods, Foreign	18,878	81,200	6,700	33,200	33,200	0 2 4 1/4	0 2 1 1/2	0 2 7 1/4	0 2 6	0 2 4 1/2
Woods, Foreign	47,11	59,500	15,500	71,200	28,400	0 3 6 1/4	0 3 10 1/2	0 4 4 1/2	0 3 7 1/2	0 4 0

Statement of the Cargoes of Timber, &c., imported into the United Kingdom from British America and the Baltic, for the Eighteen Years ending the 1st of February, 1839.

Years ending 1st Feb.	British America.		Baltic.		Years ending 1st Feb.	British America.		Baltic.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1822	37	82,499	77	18,121	1831	371	178,392	66	16,168
1823	319	98,269	121	27,670	1832	252	85,401	62	17,098
1824	348	97,070	172	34,495	1833	371	112,866	96	26,239
1825	427	123,964	182	37,156	1834	277	89,264	64	20,269
1826	348	88,363	204	41,369	1835	383	117,906	91	27,394
1827	378	101,181	114	27,520	1836	420	163,284	102	29,545
1828	282	71,981	168	38,437	1837	336	141,281	66	16,906
1829	381	88,017	168	37,272	1838	375	139,072	63	16,600
1830	266	85,174	96	23,611	1839	302	160,294	72	23,116

TIMBER TRADE. Having, in separate articles, described those species of timber most in demand in this country, we mean to confine ourselves in this article to a few remarks on the policy of the regulations under which the trade in timber is conducted.

Importance of a cheap Supply of Timber.—It is surely unnecessary to enter into any lengthened statements on this head. If there be one article more than another with which it is of primary importance that a great commercial nation like England should be abundantly supplied on the lowest possible terms, that article is timber. Owing to the deficiency of our home supplies, most of the timber, with the exception of oak, required for building ships and houses; and most part, also, of that employed in the construction of machinery; is imported from abroad. Any individual acquainted with the purposes to which timber is applied, but ignorant of our peculiar policy with respect to it, would never, certainly, imagine that such an article could be made the subject of oppressive duties, and of still more oppressive preferences. Timber is not to be looked at in the same light as most other commodities. It is against all principle to impose duties on materials intended to be subsequently manufactured; but timber is the raw material of the most important of all manufactures—the construction of the instruments of production! Suppose it were proposed to lay a heavy tax on ships, wagons, looms, or workshops when completed, would not such a monstrous proposal be universally scouted? And yet this is what is really done. The finished articles are not, indeed, directly taxed; but the principal material of which they are made, and without which they could not be constructed, is burdened with an exorbitant duty! To dwell on the absurdity of such a tax would be worse than useless. Of all things essential to the prosperity of manufacturing industry, improved and cheap machinery is the most indispensable. Most individuals amongst us are ready enough to ridicule the contradictory conduct of the French government, who, at the very moment that they are endeavouring to bolster up a manufacturing interest, lay enormous duties on foreign iron, and thus double or treble the price of some of the most important manufacturing implements. Timber is, however, of quite as much importance in this respect as iron; and our conduct in burdening it with exorbitant

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of taking the duties on wood that a mode be devised for the duty of 45s. now imposed on the duty of our North Amer-

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il, however, they fall far and cheapest timber being, during nations, possessed the on which duties should be laid on timber, it is surely that, if a distinction be

But, for several years we have laid high duties to force the importation of timber. Even supposing the duty of 30s. a load of inferior timber from a quality, of an important our North American pro-

cess certain that they do not injury that might be done by the repeal of the dis-

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timber duties than any un- inconvenience would not be allowed them a share of the policy of which (loc. cit.)

United Kingdom, for the Fif-

N. Years ending 1st February.

	1837.	1838.	1839.
6,933,580	5,210,000	6,875,570	
3,410	2,254	2,491	
242,400	161,540	182,400	
103,410	76,490	85,300	
13,500	24,400	7,000	
309	34	219	
9	37	86	
0,460,400	444,300	565,000	
322,100	331,800	307,400	
	1,177	1,604	1,943
401,550	351,850	318,500	
4,386	3,765	3,067	
228	688	865	
8	10		
15,222	9,347	7,171	
65	40	68	
608	834	811	
3,627	3,982	3,378	
4,897	7,318	7,088	
2,978	3,101	2,506	
1,021	1,171	2,001	
16,100	10,980	17,980	
128,500	43,400	48,300	
117,400	41,900	130,400	

duties partakes as largely of the *felo-de-se* character as that of our neighbours! Indeed, as will be immediately seen, it is decidedly less defensible. Some plausible, though inconclusive, reasonings might be urged in defence of duties on iron and timber, were they imposed for the sake of revenue: but even this poor apology for financial ignorance and rapacity cannot be set up in defence of the iron duties of France or the timber duties of England. The former, however, are the least objectionable; they were imposed, and are still kept up, to encourage the production of iron in France: whereas the duties on timber in England have been imposed for the sake, principally, of promoting the lumber trade of Canada, and of forcing the employment of a few thousand additional 'ous of shipping! We do not sacrifice the goose for the sake of the golden eggs, but for the sake of the offal she has picked up.

2. *Origin and Operation of the discriminating Duty in favour of American Timber.*—The practice of encouraging the importation of the timber of Canada and our other possessions in North America, in preference to that of foreign countries, is but of recent growth. It took its rise during the administration of Mr. Vanarsdall, and bears in every part the impress of his favourite policy. The events that took place in 1808 having seriously affected our previous relations with the Baltic powers, a deficiency in the accustomed supply of timber began to be apprehended; and the ship owners and Canada merchants naturally enough availed themselves of this circumstance, to excite the fears of the ministry, and to induce them to change the fair and liberal system on which the trade in timber had been conducted down to that time, by granting extraordinary encouragement to its importation from Canada. Even as a temporary expedient, applicable to a peculiar emergency, the policy of giving any such encouragement is extremely doubtful. Supposing timber not to have been any longer obtainable from the north of Europe, its price would have risen, and it would, of course, have been imported from Canada, the United States, or wherever it could be had, without any interference on the part of government. But, in 1809, a large addition was made to the duties previously charged on timber from the north of Europe, at the same time that those previously charged on timber from Canada and our other possessions in America were almost entirely repealed; and in the very next year (1810), the duties thus imposed on Baltic timber were *doubled!* Nor did the increase of duties on such timber stop even here. In 1813, after Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia, and when the free navigation of the Baltic had been restored, 25 per cent. were added to the duties on European timber! The increase of the revenue was pleaded as a pretext for this measure; but we believe it was really intended to augment the preference in favour of Canada timber; for how could it be supposed that an increase of the duties on an article imported from a particular quarter of the world, that was already taxed up to the very highest point, could add any thing considerable to the revenue, when a convertible article might be imported from another quarter duty free? The various duties laid on European timber amounted, when consolidated by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., to 3*l.* 5*s.* per load.

Admitting, for the moment, that the peculiar and unprecedented aspect of things in 1808 and 1809 warranted the giving of some preference to the importation of timber from Canada, such preference should plainly have ceased in 1813. So long as the communication with the bridge is interrupted, we may be forced to use a boat to cross the river; but when the communication is again opened, and when there is not the remotest chance of its future interruption, it would be a singular absurdity to refuse to resume the use of the bridge, and to continue the costly and inconvenient practice of being ferried over! This, however, is exactly what we have done in the case of the Canada trade. Because a fortuitous combination of circumstances obliged us, upon one occasion, to import inferior timber at a comparatively high price, we resolved to continue the practice in all time to come! The history of commerce affords no parallel display of gratuitous folly.

The absurdity of this conduct will appear still more striking, if we reflect for a moment on the peculiar situation of the countries in the north of Europe. The nations round the Baltic have made little progress in manufacturing industry. They abound in valuable raw products; but they are wholly destitute of the finer species of manufactured commodities, and of colonies. Nor have they any real inducement to attempt supplying themselves directly with the former, or to establish the latter. Their iron and copper mines, their vast forests, and their immense tracts of fertile and hitherto unoccupied land, afford far more ready and advantageous investments for their deficient capital, than could be found in manufactures or foreign trade. Russia and Prussia have, indeed, been tempted, by our corn and timber laws, to exclude some species of manufactured goods; but it is not possible that they should succeed in materially limiting our exports to them, provided we do not second their efforts by refusing to admit their products.

Of all the countries in the world, there is obviously none which has so many facilities for carrying on an advantageous trade with the North as Great Britain. We have a surplus of all those products of which Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway stand most in need; and, on the other hand, they have a surplus of many of those of which we are comparatively destitute. The immense traffic we carry on with the Baltic does not, therefore, depend in any considerable degree on artificial or accidental circumstances. It does not rest

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on the wretched foundation of Custom-house regulations or discriminating duties, but on the gratification of mutual wants and desires. It has been justly remarked by the Marquis Gairdner, the excellent translator of the "Wealth of Nations," that no inconsiderable portion of the increased power and wealth of England may be traced to the growing opulence of Russia. But the Russian empire is yet only in the infancy of civilisation; she must continue for a very long period to advance in the career of improvement, and it will be our own fault if we do not reap still greater advantages from her progress.

Such is the nature of that commerce against which the discriminating duties on timber from the north of Europe aimed a severe blow! In 1809, when this system began, 428,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards from the Baltic. In 1814, the year after the 25 per cent. of additional duty had been imposed on Baltic timber, and when all the ports of that sea were open to our ships, only 242,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards,—being little more than the half of what it amounted to when the system began. In 1816, the British shipping entered inwards from the Baltic amounted to 181,000 tons. It was materially augmented in 1818 and 1819, in consequence of the failure of the crops in this country in 1817 and 1818; but even in 1819 the entries inwards were 55,000 tons under what they had been 10 years before!

By diminishing our imports from the northern nations, the high discriminating duty on timber necessarily diminished our exports to them in the same proportion.

The following extract from the evidence of Mr. Edward Patzcker, a merchant of Memel, given before the committee of the House of Commons on the foreign trade of the country, in 1821, shows the effect that the increased duties on timber had on the commerce with Prussia:—

"Has there been a great alteration in the timber trade between Memel and this country of late years?"—"Since the war, a great alteration; before the war we used to have 950 to 1,000 English ships in 1 year, and since the war we have had from 200 to 300 only."

"When you talk of 900 ships, do you mean 900 ships trading between Great Britain and Memel?"—"Yes."

"Do you mean that number of cargoes were loaded in the year for England?"—"Yes."

"How many cargoes were loaded for Great Britain during the last year (1820)?"—"About 270 or 300 cargoes; there have not been more."

"To what cause do you attribute that diminution in the trade?"—"To the high duties in England; by formerly the duties were only 10s. and some pence; now they are 3l. 5s. in a British, and 3l. 8s. in a foreign ship."

"Has that diminished trade in timber produced a great alteration in the circumstances of the people of Prussia?"—"Yes: for it is the only trade which we can carry on; wheat and all the rest of our articles cannot be brought here; timber is the only one that can be brought, and the trade from Poland has very much ceased in consequence of the diminished demand for it; the people cannot sell their goods, and we cannot take such quantities of timber as we used to do; and, therefore, they cannot take English goods from us."

"If such an alteration was to take place in the duties on timber in this country, as to give the Prussians a larger share of the trade than they at present enjoy, do you think that would produce increased friendly feelings on the part of the people of your country to the people of this country?"—"It would. They would certainly take far more goods from hence, as they could get better rid of them. The Poles, too, would take more of them."—(Report, 9th of March, 1821, p. 107.)

The effect that the increased duties had on the trade with Norway and Sweden, aggravated as they in some degree were by an absurd method of charging the duty on deals, was still more striking and extraordinary. These countries had few products, except timber and iron, to exchange for our commodities; and as neither of these could be advantageously imported into England under the new system, the trade with them almost entirely ceased; and they were reluctantly compelled to resort to the markets of France and Holland for the articles they had formerly imported from us. In proof of this, we may mention, that the exports to Sweden, which had amounted in 1814 to 511,818*l.*, declined in 1819 to 46,656*l.*; and the exports to Norway, which had in 1815 amounted to 199,902*l.*, amounted in 1819 to only 64,741*l.*—(Lord's Report on the Foreign Trade of the Country, 3d of July, 1820, p. 34.)

This extraordinary falling off in so very important a branch of our commerce having been established beyond all question by the evidence taken before the committees now referred to, an approach to a better system was made in 1821, when the duty on timber from the north of Europe was reduced from 3*l.* 5s. to 2*l.* 15s. per load, at the same time that a duty of 10s. per load was laid on timber from British America. This, however, was a comparatively inefficient measure. It was stated, to be sure, at the time, that the 2*l.* 5s. per load of excess of duty that was thus continued on Baltic timber over that laid on timber imported from Canada, was not more than enough to balance the higher prime cost, the greater freight, and other charges consequent upon the importation of the latter; and that it would, there-

"Even at present, the official value of the total exports, including colonial produce, from the United Kingdom to Sweden, does not exceed 160,000*l.* a year. Our exports of all sorts in Norway amount to about 150,000*l.* a year, while our imports hardly amount to 85,000*l.* In fact, were it not that Norway finds means of paying us by drafts on Holland, into which her produce is admitted, she could import almost nothing from England. The injury done to our commerce with these two nations, by our heavy discriminating duties on the principal equivalent they have to give in exchange for commodities brought from abroad, was placed in a very striking point of view by Lord Althorp, in the debate on the timber duties, the 18th of March, 1831.

fore, be in future indifferent to a merchant whether he imported timber from Memel or Miramichi! In point of fact, however, the discriminating duty continued in favour of Canada timber has been far too high to allow of this equalisation being effected. So much so is this the case, that there have been instances of ships loading with timber in the north of Europe, carrying that timber to Canada, and then bringing it to England as Canada timber; the difference of duty being about sufficient to indemnify the enormous expense of this round-about voyage! We do not mean to say that this has been a common practice; but what are we to think of a commercial regulation that admits of such an adventure being undertaken with any prospect of success! Admitting, however, that the duty had been adjusted so as to have had the anticipated effect, could any thing be more preposterous and absurd than to impose it on such a principle? There are mines of coal in New Holland; but what should we think, were an attempt made to impose such duties on coals from Newcastle as should render it indifferent to a London merchant whether he imported a cargo of coal from the Tyne or Botany Bay! Now, the case of the timber duties is, in point of principle, precisely the same. We may obtain timber from countries so near at hand that our ships may make 3, 4, 5, and even 6 voyages a year to them;* and we refuse to admit it unless loaded with a duty that raises its price to a level with what is brought from the other side of the Atlantic—a voyage which our ships cannot, at most, perform above twice a year!

The following official account shows the extent to which the system of preference has been carried:—

An Account of the Rates of Duty payable in Great Britain on the Principal Articles of Wood.

Timber.	Of Foreign Countries.		Of the British Plantations in America.		Timber.	Of Foreign Countries.		Of the British Plantations in America.	
	L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.		L.	s. d.	L.	s. d.
Battens, 6, and not exceeding 16 feet long, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches thick	10	0 0	1	0 0	Lathwood, in pieces under 5 feet long.	4	5 0	0	15 0
per 120					5, and under 8 feet long.	8	0 0	1	5 0
16, and not exceeding 21 feet long, and not exceeding 2 3/4 inches thick.	11	10 0	1	3 0	8, and under 12 feet long.	10	0 0	1	5 0
per 20					12 feet long and upwards.	13	12 0		
2 3/4 inches thick - per 120	20	0 0	2	0 0	Masts, 6, and under 8 inches in diameter.	0	8 0	0	0 0
exceeding 21 feet long, or if exceeding 2 3/4 inches thick - per 120	8	2 6			8, and under 12 inches in diameter.	1	3 0	0	4 0
Deals, 8, and not above 10 feet long, and not exceeding 1 1/8 inch thick.	8	2 6			12 inches in diameter or upwards.	2	15 0	0	10 0
per 120					per load	4	0 0	0	15 0
6, and not above 16 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches thick.	19	0 0	2	0 0	Oak plank, 2 in. thick or upwards.	2	8 0	0	9 0
per 120					Spars, under 4 inches in diameter, and under 22 feet long.	4	5 0	0	16 0
16, and not exceeding 21 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches thick.	22	0 0	3	10 0	12 feet long or upwards.	9	0 0	1	15 0
per 120					4, and under 8 inches in diameter.	2	6 0	0	4 0
6, and not above 45 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches thick.	44	0 0			per 120	2	6 0	0	0 0
per 120					Slaves, not exceeding 36 inches long.	3	0 0	0	6 0
exceeding 45 feet long, or above 3 1/4 inches thick (not being timber 8 inches square or upwards) the load containing 50 cubic feet	2	10 0			above 36, and not exceeding 60 inches long.	3	0 0	0	6 0
and further - the 120	6	0 0			above 60, and not exceeding 80 inches long.	3	0 0	0	6 0
N. B.—There is no class of deals brought from the colonies of the same dimensions as the 2 previous classes; but the preference on those that do come corresponds to its amount on other articles.—(See Tariff.)					above 80, and not exceeding 72 inches long.	4	4 0	0	8 0
Deal ends, under 6 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1/4 inches thick.	6	0 0	0	16 0	above 72 inches	4	10 0	0	10 0
per 120					N. B.—Slaves of the United States of America, of Florida, of the Ionian Islands, or of the British colonies, and not exceeding 1 1/2 inch in thickness, are chargeable with 1-3d per only of the above rates.				
and exceeding 3 1/4 inches thick.	12	0 0	1	10 0	Fir, 6 inches square or upwards.	2	15 0	0	10 0
per 120					Oak do.	2	15 0	0	10 0
					Unenumerated do.	1	8 0	0	5 0
					Wainscot logs, 8 inches square or upwards.	3	15 0	0	12 0
					per load				

So long as the foreigner can lay his finger on such a Table as this, it will not be easy to convince him that our commercial system has lost so much of its exclusive character as it really has done during the last few years. Having set such an example to the Russians and Prussians, need we wonder at their having attempted to shut several of our peculiar productions out of their markets! Could we expect that they were to follow our precepts rather than our practice?

3. *Comparative Quality of Baltic and Canada Timber.*—Had the timber of Canada been decidedly superior to that of the north of Europe, something might have been found to say in favour of the discriminating duty: for it might have been contended, with some show of reason, that it was of the utmost consequence, considering the application of timber to ship and house building, and other important purposes, to prevent the importation of an inferior species, even though it might be cheaper. But the system we have adopted is of a totally different character. We have not attempted to shut out an article which, though cheap, is inferior; but have committed the twofold absurdity of shutting out one that is at once cheap and superior!

The committee of the House of Lords observe, in their *First Report on the Foreign*

* According to the evidence of Mr. J. D. Powles, an extensive ship and insurance broker, ships can make six voyages from Norway, 3 or 4 from Prussia, and 2 from Russia, in a season.—(Commons Report, p. 99.)

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Trade of the Country. that the "North American timber is more soft, less durable, and every description of it more liable, though in different degrees, to the dry rot, than timber of the north of Europe. The red pine, however, which bears a small proportion to the other descriptions of timber, and the greater part of which, though imported from Canada, is the produce of the United States, is distinguished from the white pine by its greater durability. On the whole, it is stated by one of the commissioners of his Majesty's navy, most distinguished for practical knowledge, experience, and skill, that the timber of Canada, both oak and fir, does not possess, for the purpose of ship building, more than half the durability of wood of the same description, the produce of the north of Europe. The result of its application to other purposes of building is described by timber merchants and carpenters to be nearly similar."—(p. 4.)

We subjoin the following extracts from the evidence of Sir Robert Seppings, the commissioner alluded to by the committee, whose great intelligence and experience render his opinion of the highest authority:—

"On you state to the committee the result of any observations that you or others in his Majesty's service have made, on the durability of timber, the produce of the North American colonies, or timber imported from the north of Europe, applied to the same purposes?"—"About the year 1796, there were certain number of frigates built of the fir of the Baltic, and their average durability was about EIGHT years. About the year 1812, there were a considerable number of frigates built also, of fir of the growth of North America, and their average durability was not HALF that time."

"You have stated that Canada timber is peculiarly subject to the dry rot, and the dry rot is known to have prevailed lately to a great degree in the navy; has that prevailed principally since the introduction of Canada timber to the uses of the navy?"—"I believe the navy has suffered very considerably from the introduction of Canada timber, or timber of the growth of North America; and in consequence, from experience, we have entirely discontinued the use of it, except for deals and masts."—(p. 56.)

Mr. Copland, an extensive builder and timber merchant, being asked by the committee what was his opinion with respect to the comparative qualities of American and Baltic timber, answered,—"The timber of the Baltic in general, speaking of Norway, Russian, Prussian, and Swedish timber, is of very superior quality to that imported from America; the bulk of the latter is very inferior in quality, much softer in its nature, not so durable, and very liable to dry rot; indeed, it is not allowed by any professional man under government to be used, nor is it ever used in the best buildings in London; it is only speculators that are induced to use it, from the price of it being much lower (in consequence of its exemption from duty) than the Baltic timber; if you were to lay two planks of American timber upon each other, in the course of a twelvemonth they would have the dry rot, almost invariably, to a certain extent."—(p. 56.) And many passages to the same effect might be produced, from the evidence of persons of the greatest experience in building.

Now, we would beg leave to ask whether any thing can be more absolutely monstrous, than to force, by means of a system of discriminating duties, a large proportion of the public to use that very timber in the construction of their ships and houses, which government will not use for either of these purposes, and which the most experienced engineers and builders pronounce to be utterly unfit for them? This is not to impose duties on a fair and equal principle for the sake of revenue, but for the sake of securing a preference to a worthless article: it is not imposing them in the way in which they may be least, but in that in which they are certain to be most injurious to those who have to pay them.

It appears from the official account subjoined to this article, that, at an average of the years 1828 and 1829, the revenue would have gained considerably more than 1,500,000*l.* a year, had the same duty been laid on Canada timber that is laid on timber from the north of Europe; and this, therefore, may be considered as the amount of the pecuniary sacrifice we consent to make, in order that our ships and houses may be inoculated with dry rot!

4. *Apologies for the discriminating Duty.*—If any thing ought, more than another, to make legislators pause before enacting a restrictive regulation, it is the difficulty of receding from it. After it has been enforced for a while, a variety of interests usually grow up under its protection, which may be materially injured by its repeal. All, however, that the persons so interested can justly claim, is, that sufficient time, and every possible facility, should be afforded them to prepare for a change of system. Because the interests of a comparatively small portion of the community may be injuriously affected by the abolition of a regulation ascertained to be in the last degree inimical to the public, is it, therefore, to be contended that we ought, at all hazards, to continue to enforce the regulation we have so unwisely enacted? To maintain the affirmative, would be to give perpetuity to the worst errors and absurdities, and would be an effectual bar to every sort of improvement. No change, even from a bad to a good system, ought to be rashly set about: but when once the expediency of an alteration has been clearly established, it ought to be resolutely carried into effect.

It is objected to the abolition of the discriminating duties on timber, that it would be injurious to Canada and the shipping interest. We believe, however, that the injury would not be nearly so great as has been represented; that it would, in fact, be quite inconsiderable. So far from the *lumber trade*—or the trade of felling wood, squaring it, and floating it down the rivers to the shipping ports—being advantageous to a colony, it is distinctly and com-

ber from Memel or M... in favour of Canada... So much so is this in the north of Europe, as Canada timber; the expense of this round-trip practice; but what adventure being under-duty had been adjusted... New Holland; but what coals from Newcastle... point of principle, pre- and that our ships may... to admit it unless loaded... from the other side of the... twice a year!

Table of Articles of Wood.

	Of Foreign Countries.	Of the British Colonies in America.
	<i>l. s. d.</i>	<i>l. s. d.</i>
Best pine, per fathom	4 5 0	0 15 0
" "	6 15 0	" "
" "	10 0 0	5 3 0
" "	13 14 0	" "
6 diameter, each	0 8 0	0 1 8
4 diameter, each	1 2 0	0 4 0
upwards, per load	2 15 0	0 10 0
downwards, per load	4 0 0	0 15 0
6 diameter, per 120 yards	2 6 0	0 9 0
4 diameter, per 120 yards	4 5 0	0 16 0
6 diameter, per 120 yards	9 0 0	0 15 0
4 diameter, per 120 yards	1 3 0	0 2 0
6 diameter, per 120 yards	2 6 0	0 4 0
4 diameter, per 120 yards	3 0 0	0 6 0
6 diameter, per 120 yards	4 4 0	0 8 0
4 diameter, per 120 yards	4 16 0	0 10 0
Best pine, per load	2 15 0	0 10 0
" "	1 8 0	0 6 0
upwards, per load	5 15 0	0 12 0

is, it will not be easy to exclusive character as it... to the Russians and... of our peculiar produc... follow our precepts rather... and the timber of Canada... might have been found... en contended, with some... g the application of tim... prevent the importation of... em we have adopted is of... an article which, though... shutting out one that is

Report on the Foreign Insurance Broker, ships etc, in a season.—(Continued)

pletely the reverse. The habits which it generates are quite subversive of that sober, steady spirit of industry, so essential to a settler in a rude country; to such a degree, indeed, is this the case, that lumberers have been described as the pests of a colony, "made and kept vicious by the very trade by which they live."—But abstracting altogether from the circumstances now alluded to, Mr. Poulett Thomson showed, in his unanswerable speech on the timber question (March 18, 1831), that the abolition of the lumber trade would materially benefit the real interests of the colonies. It is ludicrous, indeed, seeing that not one tree in a hundred is fit for the purposes of being squared for timber, to suppose that the discontinuance of the trade could be any serious loss. But the fact is, that when trees are cut down by lumberers, for export as timber, instead of being burnt down, so great a growth of brushwood takes place, that it actually costs more to clear the ground where the lumberers have been, than where they have not been. Mr. Richards, who was sent out by government to report on the influence of the lumber trade, represents it as most unfavourable; and observes, that, "when time or chance shall induce or compel the inhabitants to desist from this employment, agriculture will begin to raise its head." The statements of Captain Moorsom, in his *Letters from Nova Scotia*, are exactly similar. He considers the depression of the timber market although a severe loss to many individuals, a "decided gain to the colony," from the check it has given to the "lumbering mania."—(p. 53.)

The statements that have been made as to the amount of capital expended on saw mills, and other fixed works for carrying on the lumber trade, have been singularly exaggerated. Mr. Thomson, who had the best means of acquiring accurate information on this point, made the following statement with respect to it in his speech already referred to:—"From the means I have had of calculating the amount of capital embarked in these saw mills, I believe it is about 300,000*l.*: I am sure that I may say that if 500,000*l.* were taken as the amount, it would be a great deal above rather than under the real value; but, after all, this description of property is not to be sacrificed by the arrangements proposed, even if they were carried to the fullest extent. I am ready at once to admit, that the consequence of the proposed alteration may be, that it will diminish the exports of timber from Canada to England, and affect the productiveness of the capital vested in the mills to which I have referred; but the committee ought not to lose sight of the fact, that though in this one branch of industry there will be a great falling off, yet the same amount of labour might be applied to much greater advantage on land in the colonies; and the mills, which will be rendered useless for their original purposes, may be converted to useful auxiliaries to the agricultural and other pursuits of the colonists; so that the enormous losses that have been placed in so faithful a point of view, will, as I have shown, be absolutely next to nothing."

So far, therefore, as the interests of the colonies are concerned, it is plain they would not really lose, but gain, by a repeal of the discriminating duties on foreign timber. They would still continue to possess a respectable share of the trade; for their timber, though unfit for more important purposes, is well suited, by its softness and freedom from knots, to the finishing of rooms and cabins, the manufacture of boxes, &c.; and in the mast trade, it is believed, that they would be able to maintain a successful competition with Riga. It might also be expedient to assist in turning the industry of the colonies into the profitable channel of agriculture, by giving their corn and flour a still more decided preference than they now enjoy in our markets. In our opinion, it would be good policy to admit them, at all times, duty free.

The ship owners would undoubtedly have more cause to complain of injury from the equalisation of the duties; but even as respects them, it would not be nearly so great as is commonly supposed. The statement usually put forward by those who represent the timber trade to North America as of vital importance to the shipping interest, is, that it employs 1,800 ships, of 470,000 tons, navigated by 20,000 sailors. But Mr. Poulett Thomson showed, in his previously quoted speech, that this statement is utterly erroneous. The entries inwards of British ships from our possessions in North America correspond with the sums now stated; but, at an average, every ship employed in the trade makes $1\frac{1}{2}$ voyages a year; so that, in point of fact, only 1,028 ships, of 270,000 tons and 11,427 men, are employed in the trade.* From this latter number must, however, be struck off ships employed in other branches of trade; for no one pretends that the only trade we carry on with British North America is the importation of timber. We believe that the number to be so struck off may be safely estimated at 200 ships, of 54,000 tons and 2,200 men, leaving about 800 ships, of 216,000 tons and 9,200 men, to be affected by the change. Inasmuch, however, as about a third part of the timber now brought from Canada would most probably continue to be brought for the purposes already referred to, were the duties equalised, only 534 ships, of 144,000 tons and 6,134 men, would be forced to change their employments. Now of these, a half, at least, would be immediately employed in bringing from the Baltic the same quantity of timber that is brought from America; and as the price of timber would be materially

* It is singular that Mr. Bouchette should have fallen into the common but palpable error on this point.—(See the Preface to his valuable work on British America.)

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...vered by the reduction of the duty, the demand for it would no doubt materially increase; and that it is abundantly plain that very few, if any, ships would be thrown out of employment by the abolition of the discriminating duties. It is material, too, to observe, that whatever temporary inconvenience the shipping interest might sustain from the change, its future consequences would be singularly advantageous to it. The high price of timber employed in the building of ships is at present the heaviest drawback on the British ship owners; but the equalisation of the duties would materially reduce this price; and we have the authority of the best practical judges for affirming, that were the duty (as it ought to be) entirely repealed, ships might be built decidedly cheaper in England than in any part of the world.

It would be desirable, however, to secure the interests of so important a class as that of the ship owners from any chance even of temporary loss or inconvenience from an equalisation of the duties. And it is fortunate that this object may be attained, not only without any loss, but with certain benefit to the public. The expediency of encouraging emigration to the colonies, as a means of relieving parts of England and Ireland from that mass of paupers by which they are burdened, is no longer questioned; and we incline to think that no more effectual means of promoting emigration could be devised, than the giving a bounty to the owners of ships landing emigrants in Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, or New South Wales. We have already seen that the number of emigrants to British North America, in 1832, amounted to about 66,000 (*ante*, p. 274.); and supposing that a bounty of 30s. or 40s. a head were in future to be paid on the arrival of emigrants at Quebec, it would more than indemnify the ship owners for any inconvenience resulting from a new arrangement of the timber duties; at the same time that the stimulus it would give to emigration would be of the utmost importance to Great Britain and to the colonies.

5. *Alteration proposed in the Timber Duties in 1831.*—To suppose that the timber trade should be allowed to continue on its present footing, seems to be quite out of the question. We have already seen that the discriminating duties impose a pecuniary sacrifice of 1,500,000*l.* a year on the British public, besides forcing the use of a comparatively worthless article where none but the very best ought to be employed. We have also seen that this sacrifice produces no real benefit to the colonies; and that the benefit it does produce to the ship owners is but trifling, and may be more than made up to them without loss to the public. The existing government seems to have been early satisfied of the propriety of attempting to introduce a less objectionable system; and on the 18th of March, 1831, Lord Althorp moved that the duties on Baltic timber should be reduced 6s. a load on the 1st of January, 1832; 6s. more on the 1st of January, 1833; and 3s. on the 1st of January, 1834; making the total reduction 15s. a load, and leaving a protection in favour of Canada timber of 30s. a load. The only real objection to this scheme was, that it did not go far enough; that "it scotched the snake, without killing it." There is not the shadow of a ground on which to justify the granting of a bounty (for such is the real operation of the duty) to force the use of an inferior and more costly article; and even if a reasonable bounty could be justified, one of 30s. a load is quite excessive. But singular as it may seem, this proposal, moderate as it certainly was, encountered a very keen opposition. Some of those who had previously expressed their concurrence in the expediency of some measure of the sort, thought proper to vote against it; and, upon a division, it was lost by a majority of 46. Lord Althorp seems to have been much discouraged by the result of this motion; for, during the lengthened period that has since elapsed, he has made no attempt to effect any modification of the duties. But notwithstanding these unfavourable appearances, we do not believe that a system so destructive of the public interests will be upheld much longer. It were much to be wished that the duties could be wholly dispensed with. Timber is about the very worst subject for taxation; but, at all events, an end must be put to the discriminating duties. It is not to be endured, that so essential an article—that the *prime necessary of manufacturing industry*—should be loaded with exorbitant duties, imposed, not for the sake of revenue, but for the sake of those who either reap no advantage from them, or none that is material.

Account of the Amount of Duties paid in the United Kingdom on Timber and other Articles of Wood, imported from the British Provinces of North America, in each of the Years ending the 5th of January, 1828, the 5th of January, 1829, and the 5th of January, 1830; and of the Amount of Duties which would have been paid on such Timber and other Articles of Wood, if they had been charged with the Rates of Duty payable on similar Articles imported from the Baltic.

Year ending 5th of January,	Amount of Duty paid in the United Kingdom on Timber, Deals, and other Articles of Wood, imported from the British Provinces to North America.			Amount of Duty which would have been paid upon such Timber, Deals, and other Articles of Wood, if they had been imported from the Baltic.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1828	313,740	16	4	1,251,022	13	4
1829	221,103	12	9	1,474,807	4	1
1830	232,799	17	0	1,577,795	9	4

II. Account of the Quantities of the different Species of Timber Imported into the United Kingdom in 1831, specifying the Countries whence they were brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries from which imported.	Batons and Batons Ends.		Deals and Deal Ends.		Lath-wood.	Masts, Yards, & Bows, sprits under 12 inches in dia. meter and upwards.		Masts, Yards, & Bows, sprits 12 inches in Dia. meter and upwards.		Oak Plank 3 inches thick or upwards.		Staves.		Timber, Fir, Oak, & other, in square or upwards.	Wainscot in square or upwards.
	Gl. bats. qrs. No.	14.075 8 0	Gl. bats. qrs. No.	14.075 8 0		Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Gl. bats. qrs. No.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.		
Russia	2,798 1 34	14,075 8 0	4,170	2,080	781 22	72 30									
Sweden	1,999 2 29	3,7 3 12	8	8,898	5 11	0 7	70	5 20					3,940 11	1,846 25	
Norway	2,459 1 36	10,457 9 13	60	4,688	8 27								23,537 44	578 2	
Denmark		0 0 14											107,364 3 8	700 13	
Prussia	308 2 25	4,550 0 4	2,264	210	289 4	8,068 4	20,907 3 8						4,134 32		
Germany	0 0 5	3 8 8			49 13	210 15	306 1 27						387 36	18 43	
The Netherlands		10 1 7					7 1 18						843 26		
Other pt. of Europe	0 1 18	11 8 20			11	253 40	8 35	80 0 4				94 26			
West. pt. of Africa													23,677 8		
E. I. Co.'s territories and Ceylon					4	8 33									
Mauritius					1								137 16		
New S. Wales and New Zealand					2	1 0							0 36	736 56	
South Sea Islands					250 8										
Brit. Northern col.	1,040 1 8	22,066 2 2	8,300	2,145 8	3,126 3	180 48	54,147 2 27						478,870 36	8 40	
West Indies		0 1 8					536 8 17						27 16		
Havil					12								6 8		
U. S. of America, Java, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Men, for goods	0 0 2	0 0 4			55			621 0 21					2,079 49	0 6	
Total imported	14,506 0 3	54,918 0 7	11,373	13,458	4,703	8,525 34	76,431 1 29	123,530 38	562,195 6	2,571 21					

III. Account of the Quantities of Timber and Hard Woods Imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, with the Nett Revenue thereon, in 1831 and 1832.—(Papers published by Board of Trade, vol. ii. p. 22. and p. 37.)

Timber.	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.
	Batons and baton ends great 100	14,506	11,115	61	61	11,687	11,758	£
Deal and deal ends	54,915	61,384	457	1,005	49,499	55,154	530,611	517,533
Masts, & under 8 inches in diameter No.	3,000	6,784	188	263	2,812	6,776		
8 inches and under 12	4,498	3,164	58	280	3,940	3,025	10,258	11,710
12 and upwards loads	4,708	9,248	90	100	4,125	8,077		
Oak plank	8,285	1,769			2,180	1,849	8,470	46,021
Staves great 100	76,431	65,698	2,907	1,931	70,207	63,676	50,293	45,146
Fir, & in. square and upwards, Ida.	512,156	483,860	403	600	497,057	603,583	468,107	454,166
Oak, ditto	32,549	30,716	4	19	32,673	28,581	30,987	28,265
Unseasoned, ditto	24,463	23,408	8	84	24,548	22,929	6,538	6,531
Wainscot logs, ditto		8,710		8		8,710		7,884
Hard Woods.							£	£
Box wood tons	484	327	48	22	447	398	2,034	1,868
Cedar	1,039	1,187			1,017	1,252	1,224	2,717
Hibiscus	11,544	15,864	463	791	11,175	19,358	47,882	47,814
Rosewood	1,233	833	57	180	845	608	8,494	8,332
Total	14,506 0 3	54,918 0 7	11,373	13,458	4,703	8,525 34	1,212,580	1,165,226

TIN (Ger. Blech, Weissblech; Fr. Fer blanc; It. Latta, Banda stagnata; Sp. Hoja de lata; Rus. Blichka, Shest; Arab. Resas; Sans. Trapu and Ranga), a metal which has a fine white colour like silver; and when fresh, its brilliancy is very great. It has a slightly disagreeable taste, and emits a peculiar smell when rubbed. Its hardness is between that of gold and lead. Its specific gravity is 7.29. It is very malleable; tin-foil, or tin leaf, is about $\frac{1}{100}$ of an inch thick; and it might be beat out into leaves as thin again, if such were required for the purposes of art. In ductility and tenacity it is very inferior. A tin wire 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 34.7 pounds only without breaking. Tin is very flexible, and produces a crackling noise when bent. It may be readily alloyed with copper, zinc, &c., forming very valuable compounds.—(Thomson's Chemistry.)

The ores of this metal are found in comparatively few places; the principal, and perhaps the only ones are Cornwall, Galicia, Erzgebirge in Saxony, Bohemia, the Malay countries, China, and Banca in Asia. They are peculiar to primitive rocks, generally in granite, either in veins or beds, and are often associated with copper and iron pyrites.

Tin is much used as a covering to several other metals: iron is tinned, to prevent its rapid oxidation when exposed to air and moisture; and the same process is applied to copper, to a void its injurious effects to which those who are in the habit of employing cooking utensils made of this metal are always liable. The solutions of tin in the nitric, muriatic, nitro-sulphuric, and tartaric acids, are much used in dyeing, as giving a degree of permanency and brilliancy to several colours, to be obtained by the use of no other mordants with which we are at present acquainted: tin forms the basis of pewter, in the composition of which it is alloyed with lead; when rolled into thin sheets, it is called tin-foil, and is applied, with the addition of mercury, to cover the surface of glass, thus forming looking-glasses, mirrors, &c.; and in combination with sulphur, it constitutes what is called mottled gold.—(Joyce's Chem. Min.)

Tin PLATES, known in Scotland by the name of white iron, are applicable to a great variety of purposes, and are in very extensive demand. They are formed of thin plates of iron dipped into molten tin. The tin not only covers the surface of the iron, but penetrates it completely, and gives the whole a white colour. It is usual to add about 1-10th of copper to the tin, to prevent it from forming too thick a coat upon the iron.—(Thomson's Chemistry.)

Historical Notice of the British Tin Trade.—The tin mines of Cornwall have been noted from a very remote era. The voyages of the Phœnicians to the Cassiterides, or tin islands, are mentioned by Herodotus (lib. iii. c. 115.), Diodorus Siculus (lib. iv. p. 301. ed. 1041.) and Strabo (*Geog.* lib. iii.). Some difference of opinion has, indeed, been entertained as to the particular islands to which the Phœnicians applied the term Cassiterides; but Bortius (*Account of the Scilly Islands*, p. 72.). Larcher (*Herodote*, tome iii. p. 384, ed. 1802), and the ablest critics, agree that they are the Scilly Islands, and the western extremity of Cornwall. After the destruction of Carthage, the British tin trade, which was always reckoned of peculiar importance, was carried on by the merchants of Marseilles, and subsequently by the Romans. Besides Britain, Spain furnished the ancients with considerable quantities of tin. We have no very precise information as to the purposes to which they applied this metal. It has been supposed that the Phœnicians, so famous for their purple dye, were acquainted with the use of the solution of tin in nitro-muriatic acid in fixing that colour. The best of the ancient mirrors, or *specula*, were also made of a mixture of copper and tin; and tin was used in the coating of copper vessels.—(*Watson's Chemical Essays*, vol. iv.)

In modern times, the tin mines of Cornwall and Devon have been wrought with various degrees of energy and success. Queen Elizabeth brought over some German miners, by whom some of the processes were improved. During the civil wars, the mines were much neglected. At the commencement of last century, however, the business of mining was carried on with renewed vigour; and from 1720 to 1740, the annual produce was about 1,100 tons. The produce went on gradually increasing, till it amounted, in the 10 years from 1790 to 1800, to 3,254 tons a year. During the next 15 years, the produce fell off; and for the 5 years ending with 1815, it was always considerably under 3,000 tons a year. But in the last-mentioned year, a considerable increase took place; and since 1816, the produce has been, with the exception of 1820, always above 3,000 tons a year; and in 1827 and 1828, it was very near 5,000 tons. The present average produce of the mines may be estimated at 4,500 tons a year. We subjoin from the papers published by the Board of Trade and other authorities, an

Account of the Quantities of British Tin coined and exported, and of the average Price of the same, in each Year from 1820 to 1832, both inclusive; exhibiting, also, the Imports and Exports of Foreign Tin during the same Period.

Year	British Tin.				Foreign Tin.					
	Coined in Cornwall.	Coined in Devon.	Exported.	Average Price Per Cwt.	Imported.	Exported.				
1820	15,900	50,639	2	15	25,818	1	15	2,047	1	24
1821	18,123	54,811	3	1	29,229	1	15	1,106	0	23
1822	18,740	56,674	3	13	25,443	3	4	1,536	0	14
1823	2,225	57,022	1	0	26,864	1	27	6,481	1	24
1824	28,945	57,195	0	15	26,980	0	18	6,120	1	14
1825	3,093	77,789	2	14	24,227	3	19	4,313	8	20
1826	18,555	76,674	1	1	45,261	0	0	3,394	2	8
1827	20,541	55,882	1	14	48,474	0	21	2,117	8	8
1828	24,553	59,287	3	19	41,229	3	13	3,368	0	19
1829	15,711	53,499	2	11	33,416	0	8	2,674	3	21
1830	24,306	80,979	3	28	30,425	1	8	15,539	3	5
1831	24,019	79,971	1	9	31,769	2	0	3,099	2	9
1832					31,637	2	3	29,208	1	8
	L. 1,212,560	1,163,238								

Account showing the Quantity of British and of Foreign (Banca and Malaya) Tin exported to different Countries in 1833, specifying the Quantities shipped for each.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 233. Sess. 1834.)

Countries to which exported.	British Tin.		Foreign Tin.		Countries to which exported.	British Tin.		Foreign Tin.			
	Cwt.	grs.	lbs.	lbs.		Cwt.	grs.	lbs.	Cwt.	grs.	lbs.
Bank	3,753	2	18	16	Asia	25	0	0	0	0	
Sweden	608	2	3	3	Africa	230	1	26	4	2	
Denmark	118	0	21	0	British North American colonies	148	3	0	0	0	
Prussia	332	2	6	6	British West Indies	114	3	14	0	0	
Germany	1	2	7	7	Foreign West Indies	97	0	0	0	0	
Holland	687	0	0	0	United States of America	1,177	0	0	3,569	2	17
Belgium	42	2	0	0	Mexico	0	0	0	0	0	
France	8,968	2	0	0	Colombia	4	0	0	0	0	
Portugal, Jersey, and Madeira	175	0	0	0	Brazil	322	0	0	0	0	
Spain and the Canaries	937	0	0	0	States of the Rio de la Plata	0	0	0	0	0	
Gibraltar	49	0	0	0	Peru	0	0	0	0	0	
Italy	3,087	3	18	18	Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and	14	8	20	0	0	
Malta	180	0	0	0	Mao	0	0	0	0	0	
Turkey	3,790	0	0	0	Total	24,998	1	0	39,849	3	27
Greece and Dreek Islands	20	0	0	0							

Prices, &c.—The prices of tin and tin plates in the London market in March, 1834, were as follows:—

Tin British, in blocks	per cwt.	L. s. d.	Tin plates, per box of 225 sh.	per cwt.	L. s. d.
ingots	—	3 15 0	I. X.	—	140
in bars	—	3 17 8	I. XX.	—	181
grain blocks	—	4 13 0	I. XXX.	—	136
broken	—	4 16 0	I. XXXX.	—	209
Foreign, Banca, in bond	—	8 2 0	No. 11. C. 13 1 4 by 9 3 4 inches	—	105
Brights	—	3 0 0			

United Kingdom in

No.	lbs.	sts.	lbs.	lbs.
20	6,486	17	1,844	23
21	3,243	11	922	13
22	33,537	44	12,144	15
23	676	3	192	2
24	109,964	14	30,816	37
25	4,142	12	1,152	15
26	397	26	104	13
27	23,677	8	6,624	27
28	197	16	55	2
29	0	36	735	26
30	418,979	36	114,720	34
31	27	14	7	0
32	465,007	44	128,400	36
33	2,079	40	576	16
34	0	0	0	0
35	23,839	36	6,624	27
36	504,198	8	141,120	38

and retained for Home

papers published by Board of

Year	1832	1831	1832
11,788	108,909	110,722	
50,154	520,641	512,535	
6,778	10,259	11,173	
3,085			7,386
5,977			49,097
83,676	8,470		434,336
403,583	50,293		29,385
29,681	465,007		8,151
82,329	30,467		7,826
2,670	6,536		60,501
	L. 2,59,974		
398	2,034		
1,353	1,421		
19,193	47,932		
659	5,494		
	L. 59,974		

stagnata; Sp. Hija de
a), a metal which has a
great. It has a slightly
redness is between that of
tin-foil, or tin leaf, in
ves as thin again, if such
is very inferior. A tin
4-7 pounds only without
bent. It may be readily
Thomson's Chemistry.

pipe, and perhaps the only
countries, China, and Java
in veins or beds, and are
to prevent its rapid oxidiz-
copper, to avoid the injuri-
inals made of this metal are
ric, and tartaric acids, are
several colours, to be ob-
ainted: tin forms the base
olled into thin sheets, the
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e to a great variety of pur-
of iron dipped into molten
metal, and gives the whole
revent it from forming too

		L. & S.		C. 16 3/4 by 12 1/2 inches		L. & S.	
Tin plates, per box of 225 sheets.		133 lbs.	2 1 0	100 sheets		99 lbs.	1 13 0
No. II. X. 12 1/2 by 9 1/2 inches		96	1 13 0	Double	XX.	128	1 18 0
III. C. (2 3/4 by 9 1/2 inches)		128	1 18 0		XXX.	147	2 5 0
III. X.		167	2 19 0		XXXX.	148	2 11 0
Small	SDXX } 15 by 11	189	2 5 0	Tags, 14 by 10 inches, 22. 5s.		189	2 17 0
Double	SDXXX } 200 sheets	308	3 15 0	14 1/2 by 10 1/2 inches.			
	SDXXXX	320	3 17 0	Wasters of No. I. C., No. I. X., and No. XX. 3s. per box less than perfect plates; other wasters 6s. per box less. Duty and shipping charges 6d. per box.			
	SDXXXX	251	4 3 0				

The price of British tin, on an average, from 1811 to 1815, inclusive, was about 7l. a cwt. It fell from 1815 to 1820, and its comparatively low price since, have been owing to a variety of causes; partly to improvements in the art of working the mines, partly to the increased supply of metal obtained from them, and partly and principally to the competition of the tin of Banca and of the Malay countries. Previously to 1814, we had in some measure a monopoly of the market of the world. But since then the Banca mines have been wrought with unusual spirit; and their produce has been so much increased, as not only fully to supply the market of China, to which we formerly exported from 600 to 1,000 tons, but to meet us in every European market. It appears, from the foregoing Tables, that Malay tin is now very extensively imported, for warehousing, into England, at the same time that large quantities are carried direct to Holland, where there are refining houses. Hence, notwithstanding the fall of price, and the increased produce of the Cornish mines, our exports of tin have continued nearly stationary, or have rather fallen off; having been less in 1831 and 1832, when the produce of the mines exceeded 4,000 tons a year, than in 1820 and 1821, when it was only about 2,000 tons a year.

Duty on British Tin.—All tin produced in Cornwall has been subject, from a very remote period, to a coinage duty of 4l. a ton, payable to the Duke of Cornwall; the tin raised in Devonshire is subject to a similar duty of 1l. 13s. 4d. a ton. This duty produces from 16,000l. to 20,000l. a year; and is felt to be a serious grievance, not only from its amount, but from the vexatious regulations under which it is collected. Though the orders sent the miner were for tin of a peculiar description, he is not allowed to smelt it at once into the required form, but is obliged to cast it, in the first instance, into blocks. This regulation being complied with, it might be expected that the tin would be surveyed by officers at the smelting-house, and the duty charged accordingly; but instead of this the miner is obliged to convey it sometimes as far as 8 or 10 miles, to one of the *coinage towns*, where it is used where only it can be coined; that is, a small piece is struck off one of the corners, and the block is impressed with the arms of the duchy, and the duty paid. This useless ceremony being gone through, the tin is frequently to be carried back, before it can be shipped, to the very place whence it was taken to be coined! Another grievance is, that the coinage is only performed quarterly; so that, whenever pressing the demand for tin may be in the interim, the miner cannot supply it. There are also certain fees payable on the coinage, particularly if it take place during the Christmas and Ladyday quarters; so that if we add to the duty of 4l. a ton, those charges, and make a reasonable allowance for the expense of carriage, and for the trouble and inconvenience to which the miner is put, the whole may be moderately estimated at 5l. a ton.

It is surely high time that this tax, and the preposterous regulations connected with it, were abolished. So long as we enjoyed a sort of monopoly of the tin trade, the duchy duty was comparatively little felt; but now that we have to sustain a competition that has already sunk the price of tin about 50 per cent., and that in every day becoming more severe, it is found to be quite oppressive. And it is not to be endured that the existence of an ancient and important branch of industry, supposed to afford employment for about 20,000 persons, should be endangered, that the Crown may gain a paltry revenue of from 16,000l. to 20,000l. a year. This is a subject which calls loudly for the interference of the legislature; and should another edition of this work be called for, we trust we shall then have to announce the abolition or commutation of the tin duty.—(For further particulars, see an excellent little tract entitled the *Tin Duties*, (ascribed to Sir Charles Lemon) published in 1833. There is a useful and instructive paper on the tin trade in the *Spectator*, No. 217.)

Tin.—General. (Malay, *Tina*; Hind. *Kalai*; Siamese, *Dibok*; Burmese, *Kye-p'Kye*, white copper). In commercial language usually called Banca tin. It is found in several provinces of China; and the most extensive and, probably, richest tin district in the world, exists in the Malay countries. This comprehends the whole of the peninsula, from the extreme cape to the latitude of 14° on its western side, and to 11° on its eastern, and comprehends several of the small islands lying in the route between the peninsula and Java, as far as the latitude of 3° south; so that the whole of this tin district has an extreme length of near 1,200 miles. By far the greater number of the mines within these limits are as yet unwrought and unexplored. It was only in the beginning of last century that the mines of Banca, the most productive at present worked, were accidentally discovered. The whole tin of the Malay countries is the produce of alluvial ore, or what is called, in Cornwall, "stream-work;" and from the abundance in which the mineral has been found by the mere washing of the soil, no attempt has hitherto been made at regular mining, or obtaining the ore from its rocky matrix. Malay tin, consequently, is grain tin, or tin in a very pure state; that being the species which alluvial ore uniformly produces. The mines, or rather excavations, are perpendicular pits of from 15 to 25 feet deep; and when the soil and a superstratum of common clay are removed, the bed containing the ore, consisting of quartz and granitic gravel, is reached. The sand and gravel are separated from the ore by passing a stream of water through the whole materials. The ore so obtained is preserved in heaps, and smelted periodically with charcoal in a blast furnace. The mine or pit is kept clear of water by the Chinese wheel. No cattle are used in any part of the process; human labour being had recourse to throughout the whole of its stages. The most imperfect part of the process is the smelting. The stream ores of Cornwall, which are generally poor, afford from 65 to 75 per cent. of grain tin; whereas, owing to the imperfection of the process, from those of Banca not more than 55 or 60 are usually obtained. The difference in the produce suggested, a few years ago, the practicability of sending the ore to England for the purpose of being smelted; and the experiment was tried; but our customs regulations not allowing the produce to be bonded and re-exported without duty, rendered the scheme abortive.

With very trifling exceptions, the whole tin of the Malay islands is mined and smelted by Chinese settlers; and before their skill and enterprise were applied to its production, the metal seems to have been obtained by the inhabitants of the countries which produce it, by processes hardly more skilful than those by which the precious metals were procured by the native inhabitants of America, prior to the introduction of European skill and machinery. The following estimate has been given of the annual produce of the principal states and places producing tin:—

East coast of the Malay peninsula—		Piculs.	West coast of the Malay peninsula and islands—		Piculs.
Junk Ceylon		5,000	Sungora and Patani		8,000
Quelea		3,000	Praha		7,000
Pera		3,000	Pahang		3,000
Balangora		3,000	Singkep		5,000
Balacaca		4,000	Banca		25,000
Total		Piculs 17,000	Total		Piculs 43,000

This can be considered only as a rough estimate; but we believe it is not far wide of the truth. At an average of the 2 years, 1826-27 and 1827-28 the exports of Singapore amounted to 16,342 piculs, or about 970 tons. The most considerable part of the exportation is Batavia; and from which there is sent annually, either directly, or through orders from the Dutch government or the authorities at Banca, 2,000 tons. From Prince of Wales Island there is also a considerable quantity exported; and a smaller one direct to China in junka, from several of the native ports on the eastern shore of the Malay peninsula. The great markets for the consumption of tin are China, Hindustan, and the continent of Europe. The quality of the different descriptions of Malay tin, although there may be some inconsiderable difference in the process of smelting it conducted; and this, again, necessarily depends upon the extent of capital, and goodness of the machinery employed. The mining operations of Banca have long been conducted upon a larger scale, and with more skill, than in any other of the Malay countries; and consequently, the metal produced in this island is superior by from 10 to 12 per cent. in the market of Canton it is called "old tin," in contradistinction to "new tin," the produce of the other Malay countries. Next in point of quality, to the produce of Banca, are those of Tringana and Singkep, which are not more than 5 per cent. inferior to it. The tin of the state of Pera, a considerable part of which is produced by the natives themselves, without Chinese assistance, is the worst, and usually about 15 per cent. below that of Banca. The native tin of China is 10 per cent. inferior to that of Banca, and is probably black like the greater part of that of Cornwall; and, like it, the produce of regular mining operations, and not alluvial. The produce of the Chinese mines is said of late years to have greatly decreased; probably owing to the great increase which has recently taken place in the produce of the Malay countries, and the cheapness and abundance with which it finds its way to China. It should be added, that of late years, and chiefly owing to the very low price and abundance of German spelter (zinc) in the Indian market, this commodity has occasionally been fraudulently mixed with tin. The Chinese buyers of Canton, however, are sufficiently expert to detect the adulteration; and it is believed that this discreditable practice has lately ceased.

The price of tin, taking the market of Singapore as the standard, has fluctuated of late years from 4 to 20 Spanish dollars per picul; equal, at the exchange of 4s. per dollar, to 47s. and 67s. per cwt. At an average of these prices, the annual value of the whole Malay tin will be about 240,000l. per annum.—(Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago; Dr. Horsfield's MS. Statistical View of the Island of Banca; Singapore Chronicle; Canton Register, &c.)

(We have great satisfaction in being able to state that the duties on tin raised in Cornwall and Devon, and all regulations with respect to the coinage of the same, have been abolished by the 1 & 2 Vict. c. 120. This wise and beneficial measure provides that compensation shall be made to the duchy of Cornwall for the loss arising from this abolition, by settling on its possessors a perpetual annuity equal to the nett average amount of the duties during the 10 years ending with 1837. And having thus secured the interests of the miners and the duke of Cornwall, the act goes on to secure those of the public, by enacting that the duties on foreign tin and tin ore shall be reduced to 15s. and 10s. a cwt. respectively. The total quantity of tin produced in Devon and Cornwall, in 1837-38, amounted to 5,130 tons, of the average value of 82l., making its total value 420,660l.—Sup.)

TOBACCO (Da. *Tobak*; Du. *Tubak*; Fr. *Tabac*; Ger. *Taback*; It. *Tabacco*; Pol. *Tobak*; Rus. *Tubak*; Sp. *Tabaco*; Arab. *Bujjirbhang*; Hind. *Tumbakū*; Malay, *Tambico*), the dried leaves of the *Nicotiana Tabacum*, a plant indigenous to America, but which succeeds very well, and is extensively cultivated, in most parts of the Old World. The recent leaves possess very little odour or taste; but when dried, their odour is strong, acrid, and somewhat foetid; their taste bitter and extremely acrid. When well cured, they are of a yellowish green colour. When distilled, they yield an essential oil, on which their virtue depends, and which is said to be a virulent poison. The leaves are used in various ways; being chewed, smoked, and ground and manufactured into snuff. It is in the last mentioned form that tobacco is principally used in Great Britain; and, though the contrary has been often asserted, its use does not seem to have been productive of any perceptible bad consequences.

1. *Historical Sketch of Tobacco.*—The taste for tobacco, though apparently administering only to a frivolous gratification, has given birth to a most extensive commerce, and been a powerful spur to industry. Being a native of the New World, its introduction into Europe dates only from the early part of the 16th century. Seeds of the plant were sent, in 1560, from Portugal, to Catharine de' Medici, by Jean Nicot, the French ambassador in that country, from whom it has received its botanical name. The notion, at one time so general, that the specific appellation tobacco was derived from its having been imported from Tobago, is now universally admitted to be without foundation. Humboldt has shown, that tobacco was the term used in the Haytian language to designate the pipe, or instrument made use of by the natives in smoking the herb; and the term having been transferred by the Spaniards from the pipe to the herb itself, has been adopted by the other nations of the ancient world.—(Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne, vol. iii. p. 50. 2d edit.) Tobacco is believed to have been first introduced into England by the settlers who returned, in 1586, from the colony which it had been attempted to found in Virginia, under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh, in the preceding year. Harriott, who accompanied this expedition, gives, in his description of Virginia, an account of the tobacco plant, and of the manner in which it was used by the natives; adding, that the English, during the time they were in Virginia, and since their return home, were accustomed to smoke it after the fashion of the Indians, "and found many rare and wonderful experiments of the virtue thereof."—(Hakluyt, vol. i. p. 75.) Raleigh, and other young men of fashion having adopted the practice of smoking, it spread amongst the English; as it had previously spread amongst the Spaniards, Portuguese, French, and other Continental nations. But it made its greatest progress in this country

Places	Value
Sumatra and islands	3,000
"	2,000
"	3,000
"	5,000
"	35,000
Total	43,000

Year	Value
1880	113 0
1881	118 0
1882	147 0
1883	211 0
1884	217 0

about 77. a cwt. Its fall is a variety of causes; partly supply of metal obtained out of the Malay countries of the world. But since produce has been so much chiefly exported from the foregoing Tables, that during the same time that large once, notwithstanding the tin have continued nearly in the produce of the mines 1000 tons a year.

to a very remote period, to in Devonshire is subject to fluctuations under which its description, he is not allowed first instance, into black. It is surveyed by officers in the miner is obliged to here it is (and where only and the block is impressed being gone through, the tin whence it was taken to arterly; so that, however it. There are also certain and Ladyday quarters; able allowance for the ex- is put, the value may be

ected with it, were abo- duchy duty was compar- ready sunk the price of tin to be quite oppressive. And ch of industry, supposed to Crown may gain a paltry dly for the interference of rust we shall then have to particulars, see an excellent fished in 1853. There is a

Kya-p'kyu, white copper), rovinces of China; but the Malay countries. This tude of 14° on its western lying in the route between of this tin district has an within these limits are as y the the mines of Banca, he whole tin of the Malay Stream-work;" and from f the soil, no attempt has matrix. Malay tin, conne- which alluvial ore uniformly on 15 to 25 feet deep; and containing the ore, consisted from the ore by washing roved in heaps, and smelted of water by the Chinese x had recourse to throug- smelting. The stream-ores in tin; whereas, owing to are usually obtained. The ending the ore to England r customs regulations not the scheme abortive. d and smelted by Chinese e, the metal seems to have ceases hardly more skillful plants of America, prior to ate has been given of the

after the foundation of the colony at James Town in Virginia, in 1607. The soil of the colony being found particularly well fitted for the culture of tobacco, considerable quantities were raised and sent home; and the numerous individuals interested in the colony contributed to introduce that taste for it which was diffused amongst all classes with astonishing rapidity.

James I. attempted, by repeated proclamations and publications, some of them couched in very strong terms, to restrain the use of tobacco. But his efforts had very little effect; and the settlers in Virginia continued to experience a more rapidly increasing and better demand for tobacco than for any other product of the colony.

During the earlier part of the reign of Charles I., the trade in tobacco was monopolised by the Crown. This monopoly was not, however, of long continuance, and totally ceased at the breaking out of the civil war.

Tobacco plants had been early introduced into England, and were found to answer remarkably well. Their cultivation was, indeed, prohibited by James, and afterwards by Charles, but apparently without effect. At length, however, the growing consumption of tobacco having excited the attention of the government financiers, it was seen that, by imposing a duty on its importation, a considerable revenue might be raised; but that, were it allowed to be freely cultivated at home, it would be very difficult to collect a duty upon it. In 1643, the Lords and Commons imposed a moderate duty, for the sake of revenue, on plantation tobacco; but instead of directly prohibiting the use of native tobacco, they burdened it with such a duty as, it was supposed, would occasion its culture to be abandoned. The facility, however, with which the duty was evaded, soon satisfied the republican leaders that more vigorous measures were required to stop its cultivation, and consequently to render its importation a source of revenue. Hence, in 1652, an act was passed, prohibiting the growth of tobacco in England, and appointing commissioners to see its provisions carried into effect. This act was confirmed at the Restoration, by the act Charles 2. c. 1, which ordered that all tobacco plantations should be destroyed. These measures were believed, at the time, to have been principally brought about by the solicitations of the planters; but their real intention was not so much to conciliate or benefit the latter, as to facilitate the collection of a revenue from tobacco; and, considered in this point of view, their policy seems quite unexceptionable.

This act did not, however, extend to Ireland; and, of late years, the cultivation of tobacco made considerable progress in that country. Had this been allowed to continue, there can be no question, that in a few years the revenue from tobacco, amounting to about 3,000,000*l.* a year, would have been materially diminished; for it would be quite visionary to suppose that any plan could have been devised for collecting a duty even of 100 per cent. upon tobacco—(see *post*)—supposing it to have been generally cultivated in Ireland. No one, therefore, can question the wisdom of the late act prohibiting its growth in that country, and of rigorously enforcing its provisions. Any advantage Ireland might have gained by its cultivation, would have been but a poor compensation for the sacrifice of revenue it must have occasioned.

In some countries, as England, tobacco is principally used in the form of snuff; in others it is principally chewed; but in one form or other it is everywhere made use of. So early as 1624, Pope Urban VIII. issued a bull, excommunicating those who smoked in churches! The practice of smoking was at one time exceedingly prevalent in this country; but during the reign of George III. it was well nigh superseded, at least amongst the higher and middle classes, by the practice of snuff taking. Latterly, however, smoking has been in some measure revived, though it is still very far from being so extensively practised as formerly.

We quote the following statement as to the universality of the use of tobacco from a learned and able paper on its "Introduction and Use," in the 22d volume (p. 142.) of the *Asiatic Journal*.—"In Spain, France, and Germany, in Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, the practice of smoking tobacco prevails amongst the rich and poor, the learned and the gay. In the United States of America, smoking is often carried to an excess. It is not uncommon for boys to have a pipe or cigar in the mouth during the greatest part of the day. The death of a child is not unfrequently recorded in American newspapers, with the following remark subjoined:—'supposed to be occasioned by excessive smoking.' If we pass to the East, we shall find the practice almost universal. In Turkey, the pipe is perpetually in the mouth; and the most solemn conferences are generally concluded with a friendly pipe, employed like the *calumet of peace* amongst the Indians. In the East Indies, not merely all classes, but both sexes, inhale the fragrant steam; the only distinction among them consisting in the shape of the instrument employed, and the species of the herb smoked. In China, the habit equally prevails; and a modern traveller in that country (Barrow) states, that every Chinese female, from the age of 8 or 9 years, wears, as an appendage to her dress, a small silken purse or pocket to hold tobacco, and a pipe, with the use of which many of them are not unacquainted at this tender age. This prevalence of the practice, at an early period, amongst the Chinese, is appealed to by M. Pallas as an evidence that in Asia, and especially in China, the use of tobacco for smoking is more ancient than the discovery of

the New World.' He adds—'Among the Chinese, and amongst the Mongol tribes who had the most intercourse with them, the custom of smoking is so general, so frequent, and has become so indispensable a luxury; the tobacco purse affixed to their belt so necessary an article of dress; the form of the pipes, from which the Dutch seem to have taken the model of theirs, so original; and, lastly, the preparation of the yellow leaves, which are merely rubbed to pieces and then put into the pipe, so peculiar; that they could not possibly derive all this from America by way of Europe; especially as India, where the practice of smoking is not so general, intervenes between Persia and China.'

This, however, is a very doubtful proposition. It seems sufficiently established that the tobacco plant was first brought from Brazil to India about the year 1617; and it is most probable that it was thence carried to Siam, China, and other Eastern countries. The names given to it in all the languages of the East, are obviously of European, or rather American, origin; a fact which seems completely to negative the idea of its being indigenous to the East.

Sources of Supply. Importation into Great Britain.—Tobacco is now very extensively cultivated in France and other European countries, in the Levant, and in India; but the tobacco of the United States is still very generally admitted to be decidedly superior to most others. It is much higher flavoured than the tobacco of Europe; a superiority attributable in some degree, perhaps, to a different mode of treatment; but far more, it is believed, to differences of soil and climate.

Previously to the American war, our supplies of tobacco were almost entirely derived from Virginia and Maryland; and they are still principally imported from these states; so much so, that of 33,107,679 lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco imported in 1831, 32,712,108 lbs. came from the United States. Mr. Jefferson, in his *Notes on Virginia*, has given a very unfavourable view of the effects of the tobacco culture. It was, indeed, well known to be a crop that speedily exhausted all but the very best lands; and in addition to this, Mr. J. says, that 'it is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion, beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished.'—(English ed. p. 278.)

Tobacco is extensively cultivated in Mexico, but only for home consumption. It might probably, however, were it not for the restrictions under which it is placed, form a considerable article of export from that country. Under the Spanish government, the tobacco monopoly was one of the principal sources of revenue; yielding from 4,000,000 to 4,500,000 dollars, exclusive of the expenses of administration, amounting to about 800,000 dollars. No tobacco was allowed to be cultivated, except in a few specified places. Commissioners, or *guardas de tabaco*, were appointed, whose duty it was to take care that all tobacco plantations without the privileged districts should be destroyed. The government fixed the price at which the cultivators of tobacco were obliged to sell it to its agents. The sale of the manufactured tobacco was farmed out; and *cigars* were not allowed to be sold, except at the royal *estancos*. No one was allowed to use cigars of his own manufacture. This most oppressive monopoly was established in 1764. It has been continued, from the difficulty of supplying the revenue which it produces, by the present government.—(Humboldt, *Nouveau Voyage en Espagne*, vol. iii. p. 49; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, note 116. Lond. ed.)

Cuba is celebrated for its tobacco, particularly its cigars. These consist of the leaves, formed into small rolls, for the purpose of smoking. Formerly their importation into this country was prohibited; but they may now be imported on paying the exorbitant duty of 9s. per lb. Havannah cigars are usually reckoned the best. Previously to 1820, the cultivation and sale of tobacco were subjected to the same sort of monopoly in Cuba as in Mexico: but, at the period referred to, the trade was thrown open. In consequence of the freedom thus given to the business, the production and exportation of tobacco are both rapidly increasing, though hardly, perhaps, so much as might have been expected; the culture of sugar and coffee being reckoned more profitable. In 1828, the declared value of the tobacco exported from Cuba amounted to 868,000 dollars; but there is good reason to think that its real value considerably exceeded this sum. At present, the total real value of the exports of tobacco from the Havannah and other ports is probably not much under 2,000,000 dollars. The tobacco used in Cuba by the lower classes is chiefly imported from the United States.

Consumption of Duty-paid Tobacco in the United Kingdom.—It appears from the following official account, that the consumption of duty-paid tobacco in Great Britain has increased from about 8,000,000 lbs. in 1789, to 16,214,000 lbs. in 1833; the duty having fluctuated during the same period from 1s. 3d. to 4s. and 3s. per lb. There are, however, sufficient grounds for thinking that the consumption would have been at least *one-fourth part* greater, had the duty been less. But, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the influence of the duty in Great Britain, there can be none as to its influence in Ireland. The subjoined Table shows that during the 5 years ending with 1798, when the duty was 8d. a pound, the annual average consumption of duty-paid tobacco was 7,337,217 lbs.

TOBACCO.

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Statement of the Quantities of Tobacco retained for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty thereon, both in Great Britain and Ireland, from 1789 to 1833, and the Total Net Produce of the Duties, in Great Britain and Ireland; from 1789 to 1833, both inclusive.—(Parl. Papers, No. 340. Sess. 1829, No. 747. Sess. 1833, and No. 212. Sess. 1834.)

Year	Great Britain.				Ireland.				
	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.		Net Revenue of Customs and Excise.		Total Rates of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco.		Net Revenue of Customs and Excise.		Total Rates of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco.
	Lbs.	Value.	£.	s. d.	American.	Of the Dominions of Spain and Portugal.	Lbs.	Value.	
1789	1,832,195	405,037	4	1	11. 3d.	3s.	2,785,141	125,704	1s. Irish currency.
1790	1,860,241	512,383	7	1	"	3s. 6d.	2,905,437	134,195	1s. 0
1791	1,840,477	585,9	9	1	"	"	2,549,943	117,430	1s. 0
1792	1,979,221	869,196	7	9	"	"	1,767,981	80,989	1s. 0
1793	1,917,967	617,2	14	0	"	"	5,08,857	12,117	1s. 0
1794	1,873,336	806,382	12	10	"	"	5,426,211	183,158	1s. 0
1795	1,872,259	859,908	3	4	"	"	7,674,408	315,719	1s. 0
1796	1,014,043	735,451	15	1	1s. 7d.	4s. 6d.	6,049,790	186,59	1s. 0
1797	1,024,819	8,307	16	3	1s. 7d. 6-3/4ths.	4s. 6d. 13-20ths.	8,445,351	207,21	1s. 0
1798	1,028,874	85,304	14	0	1s. 7d. 12-20ths.	4s. 7d. 4-20ths.	4,991,121	215,517	1s. 0
1799	1,185,113	799,389	14	2	"	"	5,878,172	244,028	1s. 0
1800	1,136,415	997,110	8	8	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 16-20ths.	6,737	2	1s. 0
1801	1,054,978	927,815	3	5	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 16-20ths.	6,389,754	238,452	1s. 0
1802	1,121,379	929,676	9	1	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 7d. 13-20ths.	6,327,542	309,799	1s. 0
1803	1,256,370	1,028,968	10	1	1s. 8 1/2d.	4s. 8 1/2d.	6,576,511	265,814	1s. 0
1804	1,224,684	1,062,319	10	0	1s. 9 1/2d.	4s. 10 1/2d.	6,783,287	314,007	1s. 0
1805	1,216,871	1,088,421	4	6	1s. 8d. 13-20ths.	4s. 10d. 19-20ths.	4,168,794	302,310	1s. 0
1806	1,243,095	1,185,890	14	1	2s. 3d. 13-20ths.	5s. 4d. 19-20ths.	6,092,146	358,87	1s. 0
1807	1,232,894	1,388,144	17	9	"	"	4,511,048	318,417	1s. 0
1808	1,278,119	1,448,298	3	7	"	"	5,847,410	403,973	1s. 0
1809	1,204,470	1,325,151	5	7	"	"	6,397,682	431,276	1s. 0
1810	1,198,985	1,388,144	17	9	"	"	6,225,810	444,186	1s. 0
1811	1,203,341	1,701,948	8	2	2s. 4d. 13-20ths.	4s. 5d. 18-20ths.	4,450,204	654,782	1s. 0
1812	1,164,333	1,679,912	2	2	2s. 8d. 3-16ths.	4s. 11d. 11-16ths.	5,980,702	677,997	1s. 0
1813	1,148,245	1,628,968	10	1	2s. 8d. 3-16ths.	4s. 11d. 11-16ths.	5,914,917	746,006	1s. 0
1814	1,050,917	1,514,344	12	9	"	"	4,989,304	663,708	1s. 0
1815	1,077,082	1,761,487	7	10	3s. 2d.	5s. 5 1/2d.	4,736,405	740,279	1s. 0
1816	1,215,708	2,085,108	2	9	"	"	4,732,085	750,270	1s. 0
1817	1,559,089	2,138,500	31	2	"	"	4,778,469	757,310	1s. 0
1818	1,568,437	1,724,990	19	2	4s.	6s.	4,194,011	664,13	1s. 0
1819	1,811,145	2,365,095	3	10	"	"	5,069,872	810,809	1s. 0
1820	1,806,562	2,610,312	7	9	"	"	2,282,498	616,44	1s. 0
1821	1,893,128	2,804,415	7	8	"	"	3,814,54	522,68	1s. 0
1822	1,920,568	3,094,151	15	1	"	"	3,329,072	664,118	1s. 0
1823	1,841,574	2,885,069	15	0	"	"	3,546,126	730,57	1s. 0
1824	1,808,094	2,867,955	12	8	"	"	3,749,732	750,549	1s. 0
1825	1,810,574	2,700,817	6	3	3s.	5s.	4,140,843	728,288	1s. 0
1826	1,753,370	2,977,979	14	7	"	3s.	5,988,847	840,833	1s. 0
1827	1,704,815	2,228,310	14	4	"	3s.	4,011,172	603,037	1s. 0
1828	1,510,368	1,998,142	18	2	"	3s.	4,013,915	595,893	1s. 0
1829	1,679,468	2,238,968	9	0	"	3s.	4,175,297	613,341	1s. 0
1830	1,517,719	1,939,297	0	0	"	3s.	4,122,782	614,974	1s. 0
1831	1,571,018	2,385,117	0	0	"	3s.	4,188,870	626,475	1s. 0
1832	1,579,732	2,495,382	0	0	"	3s.	4,242,676	632,466	1s. 0
1833	1,611,159				"	3s.	4,564,149		1s. 0

Regulations as to Importation.—Tobacco is not to be imported in a vessel of less than 120 tons burden, unless in hogheads, casks, chests, or cases, containing at least 100 lbs. nett weight, if from the East Indies; or 450 lbs. weight, if from any other place; or 100 lbs. weight, if cigars; except tobacco from Turkey, which may be packed in separate bags or packages, provided the outward package be a hoghead, cask, chest, or case, containing 450 lbs. nett at least; and except Guatemal and Columbian tobacco, which may be imported in packages of not less than 90 lbs. Tobacco is not allowed to be imported, unless into the following ports; viz. London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Graves, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Glasgow, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Newcastle, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford. A rent of four shillings is charged upon every hoghead, cask, chest, or case of tobacco, warehoused in every warehouse provided by the Crown: 2s. being paid immediately upon depositing the tobacco in the warehouse, and 2s. more before the tobacco is taken out for home consumption, or exportation: It may remain for six years in the warehouse without any additional charge for rent. No statement is made from the tobacco duties on account of damage; but the merchant may, if he choose, abandon the tobacco, which is to be destroyed. The allowance of duty-free tobacco for each sailor on board his Majesty's navy, and for each soldier on foreign service, is fixed at 2 lbs. per lunar month. Tobacco that has been exported, cannot be reimported, without being subject to the same duty as if it were imported for the first time. Tobacco cannot be entered for exportation in any vessel of less than 70 tons burden.—(See a full statement of the regulations in Ellis's British Tariff for 1833-34.) When tobacco is respiced for exportation, an allowance is made for shrinkage, from the seller to the buyer, of 30 lbs. per hind, on Virginia and Kentucky, and 15 lbs. per hind, on Maryland, on the landing weights; the draft of the former 8 lbs. and of the latter 4 lbs., with a tret on all sorts of 4 lbs. per 104 lbs.

[Stocks of Maryland and Ohio Tobacco.

In the Ware-houses in Baltimore & U. C.	Used in Europe, 31st Dec.			Total.	Inspected in 1825	Baltimore Inspections.			Ohio.
	In Holland.	In Bremen.	In London.			1825	1826	1827	
185 Bbls. 7,270	13,100	4,700	17,800	"	1826	15,943	—	—	
138 " 14,450	11,750	2,100	13,850	"	1827	19,672	—	—	
197 " 9,760	14,468	5,500	19,668	"	1828	16,478	—	2,300	
165 " 12,800	6,671	4,000	10,871	"	1829	11,984	—	4,400	
198 " 9,890	9,451	1,800	10,651	"	1830	16,358	—	1,100	
150 " 11,700	7,432	2,100	9,532	"	1831	22,650	—	2,200	
193 " 11,850	8,678	3,008	11,685	"	1832	24,174	—	2,200	
182 " 8,800	8,680	4,750	13,430	"	1833	23,115	—	5,000	
133 " 10,200	8,451	5,500	13,951	"	1834	27,222	—	8,000	
171 " 8,150	13,596	6,845	18,441	"	1835	33,111	—	9,000	
195 " 9,100	9,114	8,050	17,164	"	1836	30,508	—	3,400	
195 " 13,070	9,308	8,008	17,308	"	1837	30,245	—	4,300	
187 " 9,300	7,250	5,126	10,376	"	1838	33,205	—	7,500	
176 " 9,242	6,537	2,577	8,394	"	1839	32,592	—	4,100	
179 " 10,040	8,421	4,900	10,321	"	1840	35,661	—	9,300	
180 " 7,365	6,218	1,061	9,278						

Imported into Germany and Holland in 1840.
 The following table exhibits the number of hogsheads of Tobacco and Stems, received at the principal European markets, from the United States, during the year 1840 (the number sold) and the number remaining in that kind, at the close of the year. Maryland denominated incises that list of Ohio.

Imported into			
	Wre. an.	Rotterdam	Amersterdam.
Maryland and Ohio	hhd. 14,570	13,568	10,338
Virginia	" 3,092	2,504	1,544
Kentucky	" 3,408	173	165
Stems	" 3,362	695	306
Total	hhd. 24,432	17,856	13,357

Disposed of.			
Maryland and Ohio	hhd. 18,399	18,280	8,741
Virginia	" 3,427	2,856	1,914
Kentucky	" 3,699	286	142
Stems	" 4,364	678	328
Total	hhd. 30,094	19,107	10,823

Stems remaining on hand, December 31.			
Maryland and Ohio	hhd. 1,831	4,268	3,562
Virginia	" 263	88	450
Kentucky	" 294	308	971
Stems	" 1,631	308	371
Total	hhd. 3,288	5,096	4,373

Imported into Liverpool.
 Virginia leaf hhd. 3,739
 Stems " 2,928
 Kentucky leaf " 811
 Stems " 5,023
 Other kinds " 722

Total	hhd. 7,521
Do. 1839	7,218

Imported into London.
 Virginia and Kentucky, chiefly hhd. 13,936

Stocks remaining in Europe, December 31.			
London	hhd. 12,668	12,429	11,228
Liverpool	" 7,574	7,238	5,100
Bristol, Newcastle, and Hull	" 1,110	1,357	1,760
Scotland	" 1,490	1,380	1,400
Ireland	" 1,200	1,400	1,200
North of Europe	" 300	300	300
Bremen and Hamburg	" 3,440	3,400	3,200
Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp	" 3,000	2,600	2,600
Spain, Gibraltar, and Portugal	" 800	1,200	600
France	" 200	300	300
Total	hhd. 37,977	38,743	31,308

Shipments of Maryland and Ohio Tobacco, from Baltimore and the District of Columbia.

Year.	Shipped from.	To					Total.
		Amsterdam.	Rotterdam.	Bremen.	Hamburg.	Genoa, France, and Constantinople.	
1825	Baltimore	2,305	8,708	6,554	545	854	86,411
	District of Columbia	2,400	248	1,036	-	3,415	86,411
1826	Baltimore	3,300	5,377	9,761	207	2,504	30,329
	District of Columbia	3,063	878	629	-	2,504	30,329
1827	Baltimore	4,872	8,987	8,157	508	1,371	25,771
	District of Columbia	8,064	1,450	3,654	-	2,874	25,771
1828	Baltimore	2,971	5,560	7,040	1,836	-	24,948
	District of Columbia	5,611	1,071	2,921	471	3,106	24,948
1829	Baltimore	3,495	5,260	7,138	-	1,584	24,948
	District of Columbia	3,560	-	-	-	3,090	24,948
1830	Baltimore	3,964	4,418	11,396	-	773	27,406
	District of Columbia	5,797	-	591	-	1,138	27,406
1831	Baltimore	4,136	4,420	11,819	810	1,309	30,792
	District of Columbia	5,081	333	946	-	2,215	30,792
1832	Baltimore	873	5,118	16,531	344	3,230	40,335
	District of Columbia	7,378	1,544	300	-	2,215	40,335
1833	Baltimore	2,274	5,191	15,118	442	3,323	32,301
	District of Columbia	5,538	961	411	-	2,045	32,301
1834	Baltimore	3,162	7,335	15,418	598	875	33,126
	District of Columbia	5,673	871	-	-	1,633	33,126
1835	Baltimore	2,368	9,658	19,709	208	2,571	40,938
	District of Columbia	5,871	416	-	-	1,052	40,938
1836	Baltimore	3,434	7,170	12,367	-	840	30,708
	District of Columbia	1,725	1,322	419	-	-	30,708
1837	Baltimore	5,940	7,307	14,291	60	7,534	38,644
	District of Columbia	6,272	260	-	-	-	38,644
1838	Baltimore	2,200	8,908	12,181	-	4,953	30,441
	District of Columbia	1,611	-	-	-	-	30,441
1839	Baltimore	6,153	5,111	10,287	-	4,348	27,312
	District of Columbia	1,607	-	-	-	386	27,312
1840	Baltimore	5,470	12,000	16,330	115	8,270	45,615
	District of Columbia	3,268	2,977	-	-	-	45,615

Major's Price Current.

Annual Average Exportations of American Tobacco for Three Years, from October 1, 1835, to September 30, 1838.

Countries to which the tobacco was exported.	Number of hogsheads.	Value.		Average price per cwt. in the American currency.	Duty levied in each country, estimated in American currency, per 100 lbs.
		Dols.	D Cts.		
Russia	181	10,712	4 98	Leaf with its stems, and stems, D. 10 66; leaves without stems, D. 9 32.	
Sweden and Norway	1,761	141,999	6 73	In Norway, D. 3 29.	
Denmark	89	10,071	9 64	Leaves and stems, 42 1 9 cents.	
Holland	19,874	255,855	4 02	Virginia, &c., 12 1 1/2 cents; Maryland, 14 1 1/4 cents.	
Belgium	247	185,107	6 24	Virginia, &c., 23 1 3 cents; Maryland, 26 2 3.	
Great Britain	28,773	3,10,170	9 00	Leaves and stems, D. 72 75.	
Ireland	4,978	338,010	6 49	Free port.	
Spain	26	18,338	3 19	Monopoly by the regis, except in 4 provinces.	
France	11,606	86,536	7 36	Monopoly by the regis.	
Portugal	7	6,360	9 86	Monopoly by the farm 1 also a duty of D. 6 38.	
Italy	769	86,021	9 38	Monopoly to Sanfania, Roman States, Parma, Naples, and Tuscany.	
Sicily	22	2,233	8 81	Monopoly in Naples.	
Trieste (Austria)	265	90, 97	8 84	Monopoly in the Austrian dominions, with the exception of Hungary; also a duty in Austria of D. 6 66.	
Other countries of Germany	25,713	1,191,868	3 55	See note below.	
All other countries	5,771	480,978	-		
Total	103,422	7,746,772	6 93		

Note.—The duty on Importation of American raw tobacco and stems, is in Prussia, Baden, Wurtemberg, Bavaria, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Carmstadt, Nassau, Saxony, Saxe-Altenburg, Hesse-Homburg, Frankfurt, Waldeck, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe-Detmold, in the Anti-Rhin provinces, Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, Saxe-Meiningen-Hildburghausen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and the Rhine provinces, 12 1/2 per cent.; in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and in Mecklenburg-Strelitz the duty is very trifling.—U. S. Cons. and Sid. Reg.—Am. Ed.]

TON, an English weight containing 20 cwt.

TONNAGE, in commercial navigation, the number of tons burden that a ship will carry.

The mode in which the tonnage of British ships is at present, and has hitherto been, ascertained is specified in the Registry act, 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. §§ 16. & 17. (see vol. ii. p. 200.). This mode has, however, led to very inaccurate conclusions; and as most shipping charges depend on the tonnage, it has occasioned the building of ships of an improper form for the purpose of navigation, in order that, by measuring less than their real burden, they might evade a part of the duties. It, therefore, has long been felt to be desirable that some mode should be made in the plan of measuring ships. But the practical obstacles in the way of any change are much greater than is commonly supposed. The accurate estimation of the tonnage of a ship is a very difficult problem indeed; and it is indispensable that any system to be adopted in practice be not very complex; for if so, it will either be wholly inapplicable, or it will be sure to be incorrectly applied. At best, therefore, only an approximative measurement can be obtained.

(The subjoined statute, 5 & 6 Will. 4. cap. 56., which has embodied similar clauses, prescribes the rules according to which the tonnage of ships has been ascertained since the 1st of January, 1836. These rules are not so simple or easily applied as those that were previously used; but they give the tonnage of all ships, however built, with tolerable accuracy, and, consequently, take away the temptation, that till then existed, to build ships of a form suitable for the purposes of navigation, in order that, by measuring less than their true burden, the duties charged according to the tonnage might be evaded.

Repeal of Former Regulations.—The rules laid down in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. (see vol. ii. p. 200.) relating to the admeasurement of ships, are hereby repealed, so far as relates to the merchant ships to be hereafter registered.—§ 1.

Manner in which Tonnage of Vessels is to be ascertained.—From and after the commencement of this act the tonnage of every ship or vessel shall, previous to her being registered, be measured and ascertained while her hull is clear, and according to the following rule: viz.: divide the length of the upper deck between the sternpost of the stern and the forepart of the sternpost into 6 equal parts. Depth: at the foremast, the middle, and the aftermost of these points of division, measure in feet and decimal parts of a foot the depths from the under side of the upper deck to the ceiling at the timber strake. In case of a break in the upper deck, the depths are to be measured from a line stretched in a continuation of the deck. Breadths: divide each of those 3 depths into 5 equal parts, and measure the inside breadths at the following points; viz. at 1-5th and at 4-5ths from the upper deck of the foremast and aftermost depths, and at 2-5ths and 4-5ths from the upper deck of the middle depth. Length: at half the midship depth measure the length of the vessel from the afterpart of the stem to the forepart of the sternpost; then to twice the midship depth add the foremast and the aftermost depths for the sum of the depths; add together the upper and lower breadths at the foremast division, 3 times the upper breadths, and the lower breadths at the middle division, and the upper and twice the lower breadths at the after division, for the sum of the breadths; then multiply the sum of the depths by the sum of the breadths, and this product by the length, and divide the final product by 3,500, which will give the number of tons for register. If the vessel have a poop, or half deck, or a break in the upper deck, measure the inside mean length, breadth, and height of such part thereof as may be included within the bulk-head; multiply these 3 measurements together, and, dividing the product by 92.4, the quotient will be the number of tons to be added to the result as above found. In order to ascertain the tonnage of open vessels, the depths are to be measured from the upper edge of the upper strake.—§ 2.

Tonnage to be entered on Register.—The tonnage or burden of every ship belonging to the U. K. ascertained in the manner before directed, shall, in respect of any ship registered after the commencement of this act (except as herein excepted), be inserted in the certificate of the registry thereof, and be taken and deemed to be the tonnage or burden thereof for all the purposes of the said act.—§ 3.

Tonnage of Steam Vessels.—In each of the rules before prescribed, when applied to ascertain the tonnage of any ship or vessel propelled by steam, the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be deducted from the total tonnage of the vessel as determined by either of the rules aforesaid, and the remainder shall be deemed the true register tonnage of said ship or vessel. The tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be determined in the following manner; viz.: measure the inside length of the engine room in feet and decimal parts of a foot from the foremast to the aftermost bulk-head, then multiply the said length by the depth of the ship or vessel at the middle division as aforesaid, and the product by the inside breadth at the same division at 2-5ths of the length from the deck to the ceiling as aforesaid, and divide the last product by 92.4, and the quotient shall be deemed the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room.—§ 4.

Length and Contents of Engine Room to be set forth in Description of Steam Vessel.—The tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, and also the length of the engine room, shall be set forth in the certificate of registry as part of the description of the ship or vessel; and any alteration of such tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, or of such length of the engine room, after registry, shall be deemed to be an alteration requiring registry *de novo* within the meaning of the said act for the registration of ships or vessels.—§ 5.

Ascertaining Tonnage of Vessels when Laden.—The tonnage of all ships, whether belonging to the U. K. or otherwise, as there shall be occasion to measure while their cargoes are on board, the following rule shall be observed; viz.: measure, first, the length on the upper deck between the afterpart of the stem and the forepart of the sternpost; secondly, the inside breadth on the underside of the upper deck at the middle point of the length; and, thirdly, the depth from the underside of the upper deck down the pumpwell to the skin; multiply these 3 dimensions together, and divide the product by 130, and the quotient will be the amount of the register tonnage of such ships.—§ 6.

Amount of Register Tonnage to be carved on Main Beam.—The true amount of the register tonnage of every merchant ship or vessel belonging to the U. K., ascertained according to the rule by this act established in respect of such ships, shall be deeply carved or cut in figures of at least 3 inches in length on the main beam of every such ship or vessel, prior to her being registered.—§ 7.

Acts after Tonnage of Vessels already registered.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to alter the present measure of tonnage of any ship or vessel which registered prior to the commencement of this act, unless in cases where the owners of such ships shall require to have their tonnage established according to the rule before provided, or unless there be occasion to have such ship admeasured on account of any alteration made in the form or burden of the same, in which cases only such ships shall be re-admeasured according to the said rule, and their tonnage registered accordingly.—§ 8.

Commencement of Act.—This act shall commence and take effect upon and from the 1st day of January, 1836.—(U.)—*Sup.*

Stocks, Dec. 31.			
3,730	2,272		
2,928	2,272		
811	308		
2,028	2,161		
722	152		
	7,594		
	7,228		
bhd.			
Stocks, Dec. 31.			
15,306	12,003		
in Europe, December 31.			
1840.	1836.	1834.	
bhd.	12,668	12,421	11,224
	7,724	7,239	6,100
	1,103	1,267	1,750
	1,440	1,280	1,950
	1,200	1,400	1,250
	200	300	300
	3,400	3,500	2,250
Antwerp	9,000	7,600	6,650
Gal.	800	1,200	600
	200	300	900
bhd.	37,977	36,753	31,000

District of Columbia.

To Cows, Pines, and Cattle.	Total.
Highlands.	Highlands.
804	96,471
3,272	
767	
2,054	90,339
1,357	
2,027	33,771
1,066	
3,106	23,068
1,694	
3,090	24,943
719	
3,292	27,406
1,508	
2,246	30,792
2,213	
3,373	40,335
2,323	
2,045	32,301
1,133	
1,833	33,125
2,571	
4,092	40,930
240	
7,554	30,705
4,092	
1,200	30,544
4,249	
3,561	30,451
8,270	
6,815	27,810

Liquid's Price Current.

from October 1, 1835, to Sep-

tember, 1836.

Price, estimated in American currency, per 100 lbs.

of stems, D. 10 66; leaves without

2 cents.

By Maryland, 14 1/4 cents.

By Maryland, 20 3/4

2 7/8.

except in 4 provinces.

Also a duty of D. 8 3/8.

Roman States, Parma, Naples, and

in Austria of D. 8 3/8.

in Bavaria, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-

Sunderburg-Lippe, Lippe-Detmold, the

County of Saxe-Coburg, and the Hesse-prin-

ce of Hanburg, 1 1/2 per cent.

Prussia.—D. 8 Cows and Slat. Reg-

ulation.

den that a ship will carry.

The tonnage of goods and stores is taken sometimes by weight, and sometimes by measurement; that method being allowed to the vessel which yields the most tonnage. In tonnage by weight, 20 cwt. make a ton. In tonnage by measurement, 40 cubic feet are equal to a ton. All carriages, or other stores measured by the tonnage, are taken in pieces and packed so as to occupy the least room. Ordnance, whether brass or iron, is taken in tonnage at its actual weight; as are musket cartridges in barrels or boxes, ammunition in boxes, &c.

TOOLS AND MACHINES. Under this designation are comprised all sorts of instruments employed to assist in the performance of any undertaking, from the rudest and simplest to the most improved and complex. But we only mention them here for the purpose of making one or two remarks on the restrictions to which the trade in them is subjected.

Importation and Exportation of Tools and Machines.—Tools and machines being instruments of production, it is obviously of the utmost importance that they should be as much improved as possible, and hence the expediency of allowing their free importation. Their exclusion, or the exclusion of the articles of which they are made, would obviously lay every branch of industry carried on in a nation less advanced than others in their manufacture, under the most serious disadvantages. And supposing the implements it employed to be superior to those of other countries when the exclusion took place, the absence of foreign competition, and of the emulation which it inspires, would most probably, in a very short time, occasion the loss of this superiority. The injury arising from the prohibition of most other articles is comparatively limited, affecting only the producers and consumers of those that are prohibited. But a prohibition of machines strikes at the root of every species of industry: it is not injurious to one, or a few branches, but to all.

The question, whether the exportation of machinery ought to be free, is not so easy of solution. It is the duty of a nation to avail itself of every fair means for its own aggrandizement; and supposing the machinery belonging to any particular people were decidedly superior to that employed by their neighbours, and that they had it in their power to preserve this advantage, their generosity would certainly out-run their sense, were they to communicate their improved machinery to others. We do not, however, believe that it is possible, whatever measures may be adopted in that view, for one country to monopolise, for any considerable period, any material improvement in machinery or the arts: and on this ground we think that the existing restraints on the exportation of machinery had better be abolished. Drawings and models of all sorts of machines used in Manchester, Glasgow, and Birmingham, are to be found in most parts of the Continent; and at Rouen, Paris, &c., numbers of the best English workmen are employed in the manufacture of prohibited machines. Now, it does certainly appear not a little preposterous to prevent the exportation of a machine, at the same time that we allow (it could not, indeed be prevented) the free egress of the workmen by whom it is made! The effect of this absurd policy is, not to secure a monopoly of improved machines for the manufactures of England, but to occasion the emigration of English artisans to the Continent, and the establishment there of machine manufactories under their superintendance. The prejudice that must arise from this state of things to the interests of England, is too obvious to require being pointed out. It is plain, therefore, that the exportation of all sorts of machinery, on payment of a moderate duty, ought to be allowed. A policy of this sort would afford much more efficient protection to our manufacturers than they enjoy at present; at the same time that it would tend to keep our artisans at home, and make England the grand seat of the tool as well as of the cotton manufacture.

For an account of the restrictions on the exportation of machinery from Great Britain, see *anté*, vol. ii. p. 16.

Account of the Value of the Machinery exported from Great Britain, during the Six Years ending with 1830.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 373. Sess. 1830.)

Years.	Steam Engines and Pairs of Steam Engines.	Mill Work of all Sorts allowed by Law to be exported.	Machinery of all other Kinds allowed by Law to be exported.	Machinery exported under Licence from the Treasury or Privy Council.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
1824	28,323	22,566	26,576	44,958	122,423
1825	72,027	22,654	104,268	44,472	243,421
1826	124,426	21,724	66,247	13,159	225,556
1827	111,630	24,738	60,207	17,154	213,729
1828	123,968	65,372	59,413	19,674	268,427
1829	133,573	47,543	52,018	21,004	254,138

TOPAZ (Ger. *Topas*; Fr. *Topase*; It. *Topazio*; Sp. *Topacio*; Rus. *Topas*). The name Topaz has been restricted by M. Haüy to the stones called by mineralogists Occidental ruby, topaz, and sapphire; which, agreeing in their crystallisation and most of their properties, were arranged under one species by M. Romé de Lisle. The word topaz, derived from an island in the Red Sea, where the ancients used to find topazes, was applied by them to a mineral very different from ours. One variety of our topaz they denominated Chrysolite. Colour, wine yellow. From pale wine yellow it passes into yellowish white, greenish white, mountain green, sky blue: from deep wine yellow into flesh red and crimson red. Specific gravity from 3.464 to 3.641.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

False Topaz.—In speaking of the topaz, a gem of a beautiful yellow colour is always understood; this is the yellow of different degrees of intensity; and the fuller and deeper the tinge, the more the gem is esteemed. In hardness it yields to the spinelle.

There are few gems more universal favourites than the yellow topaz, when perfect: the rich gem tones of its colour, the vivacity of its lustre (which it retains even by the side of the diamond), and its large size, compared with many others, are characters which deservedly entitle it to distinction; it bears accordingly a high price when of good quality.

It is chiefly employed for necklaces, ear-drops, bracelets, &c. in suit. No little skill and taste are required in cutting and duly proportioning this gem; the table should be perfectly symmetrical, and not too large, the bezel of sufficient depth, and the collet aide should be formed in delicate steps. It cuts easily on the mill, and the lapidaries are in general tolerably well acquainted with it; yet it is uncommon to meet with one well cut.

The yellow topaz varies in price according to its beauty and perfection. A superlatively fine one, perfect in colour and workmanship, sufficiently large for an ornament, or any other ornament, and weighing nearly 80 carats, was sold for 100*l*.

Topazes have become more common since our intercourse with Brazil; consequently they are less in demand, and lower in price. A fine stone of 80 carats may be purchased at from 20*l*. to 35*l*.; and smaller, calculated for ring stones, at from 2*l*. to 5*l*.; but it is not usual to sell them by weight.

Pink Topaz.—This is made from the yellow, which, when of intense colour, is put into the bowl of a tobacco pipe or small crucible, covered with ashes or sand; on the application of a low degree of heat, it changes its colour from a yellow to a beautiful pink. This is performed with little hazard; and if the colour produced happens to be fine, the price is much augmented.

Red Topaz.—This beautiful gem, which very seldom occurs naturally, is of a fine crimson colour, tinged with a rich brown; it is extremely rare, and generally taken to be a variety of ruby, for which I have seen it offered for sale. Its price, from its scarcity, is quite capricious; it has an exquisite pleasing colour, very different from the glare of the artificial pink topaz.

Blue Topaz.—is also a beautiful gem, of a fine celestial blue colour. It has occurred of considerable magnitude; the finest specimen known, I brought in the rough from Brazil; when cut and polished, it weighed about 1*1*/₂ oz. Smaller specimens are not uncommon, and, when light-coloured, are often seen for aqua-marinas, from which they may always be distinguished by their greater weight and hardness, &c.

White Topaz.—is familiarly called *Minas Nova*. It is a beautiful pellucid gem, and is used for bracelets, necklaces, &c. It possesses greater brilliancy than crystal, and, from its hardness, has been used to cover pistols, &c., and in form doublets.—(*Musee on Diamonds*, &c. 2d ed. p. 108—112.)

TORTOISESHELL. (Fr. *Ecaille de Tortue*; It. *Scaglia de Tartaruga*; Ger. *Schildpad*; Malay. *Sirik Iurakura*), the brown and yellow scales of the *Testudo imbricata*, or tortoise, a native of the tropical seas. It is extensively used in the manufacture of combs, snuff-boxes, &c., and in inlaying and other ornamental work. The best tortoiseshell is that of the Indian Archipelago; and the finest of this quarter is obtained on the shores of the Spice Islands and New Guinea. When the finest West Indian tortoiseshell is worth, in the London market, 46*s*., the finest East Indian is worth 60*s*. per lb. Under the latter name, however, a great deal of inferior shell is imported, brought from various parts of the East Indies. The goodness of tortoiseshell depends mainly on the thickness and size of the scales, and in a smaller degree on the clearness and brilliancy of the colours. Before the opening of the British intercourse with India, the greater part of the tortoiseshell which eventually found its way to Europe, was first carried to Canton, which then formed the principal mart for the commodity. It is still an article of trade from that city; the value of the tortoiseshell exported by British ships, in 1831 and 1832, having amounted to 19,017 dollars. At present, however, Singapore is the chief mart, the exports from it in 1831 and 1832 having amounted at an average to 208 piculs. The price at Singapore varies from 750 and 900 to from 1,000 to 1,600 dollars per picul, according to quality.—(*Craufurd's Indian Archipelago*; *Singapore Chronicle*; *Canton Register*.)

The imports of tortoiseshell into Great Britain from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, were, in 1830, 32,180 lbs.; in 1831, 30,902; and in 1832, 39,004.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.) The duty, which is 2*s*. per lb. on the shells imported from foreign countries, and 1*s*. per lb. on those imported from a British possession, produced, in 1832, 438*l*. 1*s*. 7*d*. n.t.

TOYS (Ger. *Spielzeug*, *Speilsachen*; Du. *Speelgoed*; Fr. *Jouets*, *Bimbolots*; It. *Trastulli*; Sp. *Dijas*, *Juguetes de ninos*; Rus. *Igrushki*), include every trifling article made expressly for the amusement of children. How frivolous soever these articles may appear in the estimation of superficial observers, their manufacture employs hundreds of hands, and gives bread to many families in London, Birmingham, &c. The greatness of the demand for them may be inferred, from the fact, that a manufacturer of glass beads, and articles of that description, has received a single order for 500*l*. worth of dolls' eyes.—(*Fourth Report, Artisans and Machinery*, p. 314.) Considerable quantities are also imported from Holland; which supplies us with several sorts of wooden toys on more reasonable terms than we can afford to produce them. But of late years, these have been made in greater abundance in England than formerly. The duty on toys, which is an *ad valorem* one of 20 per cent., produced, in 1832, 3,469*l*. 1*s*. 7*d*., showing that the value of the toys imported for home use amounted to 17,345*l*.

TRAGACANTH, a species of gum, the produce of the *Astragalus Tragacantha*, a thorny shrub growing in Persia, Crete, and the islands of the Levant. It exudes about the end of June from the stem and larger branches, and soon dries in the sun. It is inodorous; impressing a very slightly bitter taste as it softens in the mouth. It has a whitish colour; is semitransparent; and in very thin, wrinkled, vermiform pieces; it is brittle, but not easily pulverised, except in frosty weather, or in a warmed mortar. It should be chosen in long twisted pieces, white, very clear, and free from all other colours; the brown, and particula-

sometimes by measurement; in tonnage by weight, 30 to a ton. All cartridges, or as to occupy the least room, as are musket cartridges in

comprised all sorts of instru- in the rudest and simplest here for the purpose of in them is subjected.

and machines being in- that they should be as- e their free importation, e made, would obviously an others in their manu- implements it employ- ok places, the absence of d most probably, in a very ising from the prohibition producers and consumers kes at the root of every ut to all.

is free, is not so easy of eans for its own aggran- ar people were decidedly t in their power to pre- sence, were they to con- ber, believe that it is pos- ountry to monopolise, for or the arts; and on this machinery had better be in Manchester, Glasgow, and at Rouen, Paris, &c., manufacture of prohibited to prevent the exportation d be prevented) the free is absurd policy is, not to England, but to occasion lishment there of machine at must arise from this re being pointed out. It n payment of a moderate ch more efficient prote- e time that it would tend the tool as well as of the

ery from Great Britain,

uring the Six Years ending

Value exported for Licence by the Treasury	Total.
<i>L</i> .	<i>L</i> .
44,056	128,652
4,472	212,416
18,156	233,353
17,154	214,123
10,614	265,368
21,104	216,529

cio. Rus. *Topas*). The mineralogists Occidental and most of their proper- word topaz, derived from was applied by them to a denominated Chrysolite. ish white, greenish white, and crimson red. Specific

ly the black pieces, should be wholly rejected.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

The entries of tragacanth for home consumption in 1831 and 1832, were at the rate of 45,836 lbs. a year. In March, 1834, tragacanth sold in the London market at from 11s. 10s. to 16s. per cwt., duty (6s.) included.

TREATIES (COMMERCIAL). By a commercial treaty is meant a treaty between two independent nations, for facilitating, and most commonly, also, regulating, the commerce carried on between them.

Origin, Objects, and Policy of modern Commercial Treaties.—During the middle ages, and down, indeed, to a comparatively recent period, foreigners resident in a country, whether for commercial or other purposes, were, for the most part, subject to very harsh treatment. At one time, it was usual in England to make aliens liable for the debts and crimes of each other; and the practice, formerly so common, of laying heavier duties on the goods imported and exported by aliens than by British subjects, is not even yet, we grieve to say, altogether abandoned. In France, and some other countries, during the 14th and 15th centuries, a stranger was incapable of bequeathing property by will; and the whole of his personal as well as real estate fell, at his death, to the king or the lord of the barony. This barbarous law was known by the name of *Droit d'Aubaine*, and was not completely abolished in France till a very late period.—(*Robertson's Charles V.* vol. i. note 29.) Previously to last century, the laws with respect to shipwreck, though infinitely more humane than they had been at a more remote period, were calculated rather to promote the interests of the sovereign of the country, or the feudal lords on whose territories shipwrecked vessels might be thrown, than those of the unfortunate owners or survivors.—(See *ВНЕСЕК*.) The most serious obstacles were then, also, opposed, by the prevalent insecurity, and the arbitrary nature of the tolls which the lords were in the habit of exacting, to the transit of commodities through the territories of one state to those of another.

Under such circumstances, it became of much importance for commercial states to endeavour to obtain, by means of treaties, that protection and security for the persons and properties of their subjects, when abroad, against unjust treatment and vexatious exactions, which they could not have obtained from the laws of the countries in which they might happen to reside. Thus, it was stipulated by Edward II., in 1325, that the merchants and mariners of Venice should have power to come to England for 10 years, with liberty to sell their merchandises and to return home in safety, "without having either their persons or goods stopped on account of other people's crimes or debts."—(*Anderson*, anno 1325.) The commercial treaties negotiated during the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, are full of similar conditions; and there can be no doubt that, by providing for the security of merchants and seamen when abroad, and suspending, with respect to them, the barbarous laws and practices then in force, they contributed materially to accelerate the progress of commerce and civilisation.

Commercial treaties were also negotiated at a very early period for the regulation of neutral commerce during war; and for defining the articles that should be deemed contraband, or which it should not be lawful for neutral ships to convey or carry to either belligerent. These are obviously points that can only be decided by express stipulations.†

Instead, however, of confining commercial treaties to their legitimate and proper purposes—the security of merchants and navigators, and the facility of commercial transactions—they very soon began to be employed as engines for promoting the commerce of one country at the expense of another. For more than 2 centuries, those engaged in framing commercial treaties have principally applied themselves to secure, either by force or address, some exclusive advantage in favour of the ships and products of their particular countries. Hence these compacts are full of regulations as to the duties to be charged on certain articles, and the privileges to be enjoyed by certain ships, according as they were either produced by or belonged to particular countries. It was in the adjustment of these duties and regulations that the skill of the negotiator was chiefly put to the test. It was expected that he should be thoroughly acquainted with the state of every branch of industry, both in his own country, and in the country with which he was negotiating; and he was to endeavour so to adjust the tariff of duties that those branches in which his own country was deficient might be benefited, and those in which the other was superior might be depressed! The idea of conducting a negotiation of this sort on a fair principle of reciprocity is of very late origin; success in circumventing, in over-reaching, or in extorting from fear or ignorance some oppressive, but at the same time worthless privilege, was long esteemed the only proof of superior talent in negotiators.

* The practice of confiscating shipwrecked property continued in France till 1681, when it was abolished by an edict of Louis XIV. It was at one time common in Germany, to use the words of M. Bouchaud, "pour les prédicateurs de prier Dieu en chaire, qu'il se fasse bien des naufrages sur leurs côtes!"—(*Théorie des Traités de Commerce*, p. 118.) And the fact that the celebrated jurist Thomasius wrote a dissertation in defence of such prayers, affords, if possible, a still more striking proof of the spirit of the period.

† There is a good collection of treaties as to this point, in the Appendix to the excellent work of Lamprei, *Del Commercio de' Popoli Neutrali*.—(See *CONTRABAND*.)

In an able tract, attributed to Mr. Eden, afterwards Lord Auckland, published in 1787 (*Historical and Political Remarks on the Tariff of the French Treaty*), there is the following outline of the qualifications necessary in the negotiator of a commercial treaty:—
 "Besides a general knowledge of the trade and reciprocal interests of the contracting parties, he ought to be precisely acquainted with their several kinds of industry and skill; to discover their wants, to calculate their resources, and to weigh with nicety the state of their finances, and the proportionate interest of their money: nay, further, he should be able to ascertain the comparative population and strength of each country, together with the price and quality both of first materials, and also of the labour bestowed upon them: for this purpose he should inquire into the operations of every class of merchants and manufacturers concerned in the trade; should consult their expectations on each of its several branches; and collect their hopes and fears on the effect of such commercial revolution, on the competition of rival nations. A good treaty of commerce, independent of the art of negotiation, is pronounced, by one who well knew the extent and difficulty of the subject, to be a 'masterpiece of skill.'"—(p. 10.)

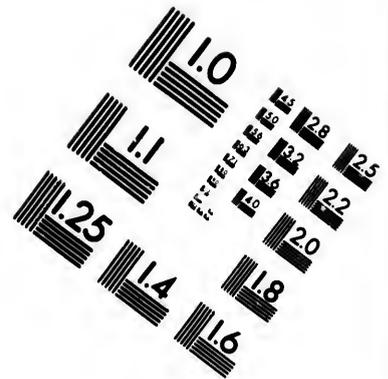
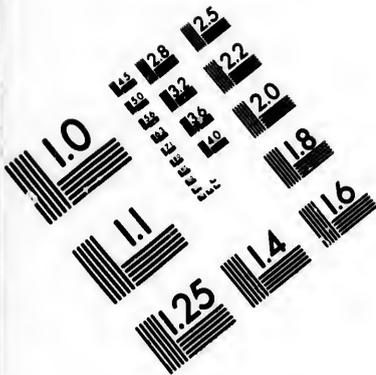
Had Mr. Eden concluded by stating, that no individual, or number of individuals, ever possessed, or ever would possess, the various qualifications which in his estimation were required in negotiating a "good commercial treaty," he would only have affirmed what is most certainly true. We believe, however, that he had formed a too false estimate, not only of the qualifications of a negotiator, but of the objects he ought to have in view. It was the opinion of the Abbé Mably—(*Droit Public de l'Europe*, p. 561.)—an opinion in which we are disposed, with very little modification, to concur, that when a few general rules are agreed upon for the effectual security of trade and navigation, including the importation and exportation of all commodities not prohibited by law; the speedy adjustment of disputes; the regulations of pilotage, harbour, and light-house duties; the protection of the property and effects of merchants in the event of a rupture, &c.; all is done that ought to be attempted in a commercial treaty. It may, indeed, be properly stipulated that the goods of the contracting powers shall be admitted into each other's ports on the same terms as "those of the most favoured nations,"—that is, that no higher duties shall be charged upon them than on those of others. But here stipulations ought to cease. It is an abuse and a perversion of commercial treaties, to make them instruments for regulating duties or proscribing Custom-house regulations.

We admit, indeed, that occasions may occur, in which it may be expedient to stipulate for a reduction of duties or an abolition of prohibitions on the one side, in return for similar concessions on the other. But all arrangements of this sort ought to be determined by a convention limited to that particular object; and a fixed and not very distant term should be specified, when the obligation in the convention should expire, and both parties be at liberty to continue or abandon the regulations agreed upon. Generally speaking, all treaties which determine what the duties on importation or exportation shall be, or which stipulate for preferences, are radically objectionable. Nations ought to regulate their tariffs in whatever mode they judge best for the promotion of their own interests, without being shackled by engagements with others.* If foreign powers be all treated alike, none of them has just grounds of complaint; and it can never be for the interest of any people to show preferences to one over another. Those, for example, by whom we may be most advantageously supplied with foreign products, require no preferences; and if we exclude them, or give a preference to others, we incontestably injure ourselves: and yet 19 out of 20 of the regulations as to duties in commercial treaties have been founded on this preposterous principle. They have been employed to divert trade into channels, where it would not naturally flow; that is, to render it less secure and less profitable than it would otherwise have been.

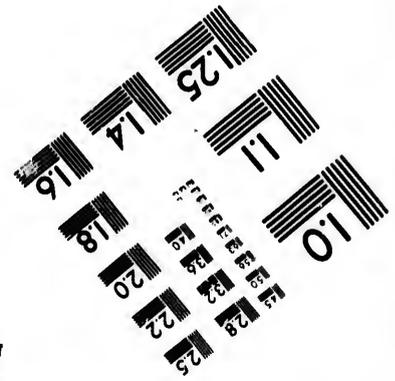
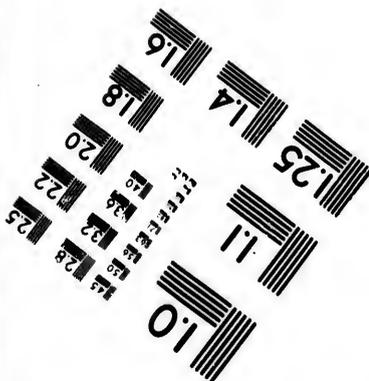
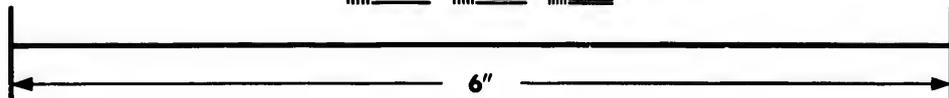
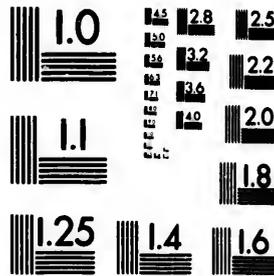
A great deal of stress has usually been laid upon the advantages supposed to be derived from the privileges sometimes conceded in commercial treaties. But we believe that those who inquire into the subject will find that such concessions have, in every case, been not only injurious to the party making them, but also to the party in whose favour they have been made. The famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen in 1703, was almost universally regarded, for a very long period, as admirably calculated to promote the interests of this country; but it is now generally admitted, by every one who has reflected upon such subjects, that few transactions have taken place by which these interests have been more deeply injured. It stipulated for the free admission of British woollens into Portugal, from which they happened, at the time, to be excluded; but in return for this concession—a concession far more advantageous to the Portuguese than to us—we bound ourselves "for ever hereafter" to admit wines of growth of Portugal into Great Britain at $\frac{3}{4}$ of the duty payable on the wines of France! Thus, in order to open an access for our woollens to the limited market of Portugal, we consented, in all time to come, to drink inferior wine, bought at a comparatively high price!—(See WINE.) This, however, was not all: by excluding one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our com-

* This principle is laid down as fundamental by a very high authority, Sir Henry Parnell, in his tract *Sur les Avantages des Relations Commerciales entre la France et l'Angleterre*.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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modities, we necessarily lessened their ability to deal with us; at the same time that we provoked them to adopt retaliatory measures against our trade. It is owing more to the stipulations in the Methuen treaty than to any thing else, that the trade between England and France—a trade that would naturally be of vast extent and importance—is confined within the narrowest limits; and is hardly, indeed, of as much consequence as the trade with Sweden and Norway.—(See *ante*, p. 644.)

It is visionary to imagine that any nation will ever continue to grant to another any exclusive advantage in her markets, unless she obtain what she reckons an equivalent advantage in the markets of the other. And if a commercial treaty stipulating for an exclusive privilege be really and *bonâ fide* observed by the country granting the privilege, we may be sure that the concessions made by the country in whose favour it is granted are sufficient fully to countervail it. Those who grasp at exclusive privileges in matters of this sort, or who attempt to extort valuable concessions from the weakness or ignorance of their neighbours, are uniformly defeated in their object. All really beneficial commercial transactions are bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity; and that nation will always flourish most, and have the foundations of her prosperity best secured, who is a universal merchant, and deals with all the world on the same fair and liberal principles.

The justness of these principles, we are glad to observe, is now beginning to be very generally admitted. Stipulations as to duties and Custom-house regulations are disappearing from commercial treaties; and it is to be hoped that, at no distant period, every trace of them may have vanished.

A good work on the principles, style, and history of commercial treaties is a desideratum. The best we have seen are *Mancovius De Fœderibus Commercialibus*, 4to. Lipsie, 1735.; and Bouchaud, *Théorie des Traités de Commerce*, 12mo. Paris, 1777. But these are principally works of erudition, and were written before the sound principles of commercial policy had been unfolded. There is no good collection of treaties in the English language; but Mr. Hertlet's work is valuable, as containing the recent treaties in an accessible form. A work containing new treaties and state papers is annually compiled at the Foreign Office; it used to be distributed to a few official persons only, but it is now sold to the public.

We subjoin copies of some of the commercial treaties and conventions existing at this moment between Great Britain and other powers.

AUSTRIA.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between His Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of Austria, signed at London, December 31, 1830.

Article 1. From the 1st day of February, 1830, Austrian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Austria, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports of Austria, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Austrian ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Austrian ships.

4. All goods which can legally be imported into the ports of either country shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting in its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the national character of the vessel in which such article may be imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. In respect to the commerce to be carried on in Austrian vessels with the British dominions in the East Indies, or now held by the East India Company in virtue of their charter, his Britannic Majesty consents to grant the same facilities and privileges, in all respects, to the subjects of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, as are or may be enjoyed under any treaty or act of parliament by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; subject to the laws and regulations which are, or may be, applicable to the ships and subjects of any other foreign country enjoying the like facilities and privileges of trading with the said dominions.

7. All the possessions of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, except the British possessions in the Mediterranean Sea, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be considered as forming part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

8. That clause of article 7. of the convention concluded at Paris on the 5th of November, 1815, between the courts of Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, which relates to the commerce between the dominions of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty and the United States of the Ionian Islands, is hereby confirmed.

9. The present convention shall be in force until the 18th day of March, 1836; and further, until the end of twelve months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, on or at any time after the said 18th day of March, 1836; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall

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11. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 21st day of December,
in the year of our Lord 1829.

ABERDEEN.
W. F. VESSEY FITZGERALD.
ESTERHARY.

British ships may import from the dominions of his Majesty the Emperor of Austria into any of the British possessions abroad, goods the produce of such dominions, and export goods from such British possessions abroad, to be carried to any foreign country whatever.—(*Order in Council*, April 7, 1831.)

DENMARK.

Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and Denmark, signed at London, the 16th of June, 1824.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of July next, Danish vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Danish Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

1. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Denmark respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

2. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports and dominions of the King of Denmark, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Danish ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed with regard to Danish vessels in the ports of the said United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Danish Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in British ships.

3. All goods which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

4. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

5. The high contracting parties having mutually determined not to include, in the present convention, their respective colonies, in which are comprehended, on the part of Denmark, Greenland, Iceland, and the islands of Ferroe; it is expressly agreed that the intercourse which may at present legally be carried on by the subjects or ships of either of the said high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, shall remain upon the same footing as if this convention had never been concluded.

6. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

7. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 16th of June, 1824.

GEORGE CANNING.
W. HUSKISSON.
C. E. MOLTKE.

Separate Article.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending, even beyond what is comprehended in the convention of this date, the commercial regulations of their respective subjects and dominions, upon the principles either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be. And in the event of any articles or article being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed, that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the aforesaid convention.

Additional Article.

Their Britannic and Danish Majesties mutually agree, that no higher or other duties shall be levied in either of their dominions (their respective colonies being excepted from the convention of this date), upon any personal property of their respective subjects, on the removal of same from the dominions of their said Majesties reciprocally, either upon the inheritance of such property, or otherwise, than are or shall be payable in each state, upon the like property, when removed by a subject of such state, respectively.

FRANCE.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the Most Christian King, together with two additional Articles thereto annexed, signed at London, January 20, 1820.

Article 1. French vessels coming from or departing for the ports of France, or, if in ballast, coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of the United Kingdom, either on arriving in or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which British vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; and, reciprocally, from and after the same period, British vessels coming from or departing for the ports of the United Kingdom, or, if in ballast,

coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of France, either in entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which French vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; whether such duties are collected separately, or are consolidated in one and the same duty:—his Most Christian Majesty reserving to himself to regulate the amount of such duty or duties in France, according to the rate at which they are or may be established in the United Kingdom; at the same time, with a view of diminishing the burdens imposed upon the navigation of the two countries, his Most Christian Majesty will always be disposed to reduce the amount of the said burdens in France, in proportion to any reduction which may hereafter be made of those now levied in the ports of the United Kingdom.

3. Goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of the United Kingdom, from the ports of France, if so imported in French vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in British vessels; and, reciprocally, goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of France, from the ports of the United Kingdom, if so imported in British vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in French vessels. The produce of Asia, Africa, and America, not being allowed to be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in French vessels, nor from France in French, British, or any other vessels, into the ports of the United Kingdom, for home consumption, but only for warehousing and re-exportation, his Most Christian Majesty reserves to himself to direct that, in like manner, the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, shall not be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in British vessels, nor from the United Kingdom in British, French, or any other vessels, into the ports of France, for the consumption of that kingdom, but only for warehousing and re-exportation.

With regard to the productions of the countries of Europe, it is understood between the high contracting parties, that such productions shall not be imported, in British ships, into France, for the consumption of that kingdom, unless such ships shall have been laden therewith in some port of the United Kingdom; and that his Britannic Majesty may adopt, if he shall think fit, some corresponding restrictive measure, with regard to the productions of the countries of Europe imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in French vessels: the high contracting parties reserving, however, to themselves the power of making, by mutual consent, such relaxations in the strict execution of the present article, as they may think useful to the respective interests of the 2 countries, upon the principle of mutual concessions, affording each to the other reciprocal or equivalent advantages.

3. All goods which can or may be legally exported from the ports of either of the 2 countries, shall, on their export, pay the same duties of exportation, whether the exportation of such goods be made in British or in French vessels, provided the said vessels proceed, respectively, direct from the ports of the one country to those of the other. And all the said goods so exported in British or French vessels, shall be reciprocally entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, which are granted by the regulations of each country, respectively.

4. It is mutually agreed between the high contracting parties, that in the intercourse of navigation between their 2 countries, the vessels of any third power shall, in no case, obtain more favourable conditions than those stipulated, in the present convention, in favour of British and French vessels.

5. The fishing-boats of either of the 2 countries, which may be forced by stress of weather to seek shelter in the ports, or on the coast of the other country, shall not be subject to any duties or port charges of any description whatsoever; provided the said boats, when so driven in by stress of weather, shall not discharge or receive on board any cargo, or portion of cargo, in the ports, or on the parts of the coast where they shall have sought shelter.

6. It is agreed that the provisions of the present convention between the high contracting parties shall be reciprocally extended and in force, in all the possessions subject to their respective dominions in Europe.

7. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years, from the 5th of April of the present year; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate its operation; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is agreed between them that, at the expiration of the 12 months' extension agreed to on both sides, this convention, and all the stipulations thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

8. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London, within the space of 1 month, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1826.

GEORGE CANNING,
WILLIAM HOBHOUSE.

LE FRANCE DE POLIGNAC.

Additional Articles.

Article 1. French vessels shall be allowed to sail from any port of the United Kingdom under the dominion of his Most Christian Majesty, to all the colonies of the United Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company), and to import into the said colonies all kinds of merchandise (being productions the growth or manufacture of France, or of any country under the dominion of France), with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the British dominion; and the said French vessels, as well as the merchandise imported in the same, shall not be subject, in the colonies of the United Kingdom, to other or higher duties than those to which British vessels may be subject, on importing the same merchandise from any foreign country, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself.

The same facilities shall be granted, reciprocally, in the colonies of France with regard to the importation, in British vessels, of all kinds of merchandise, (being productions the growth and manufacture of the United Kingdom, or any country under the British dominion,) with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the dominion of France. And whereas all goods, the produce of any foreign country, may now be imported into the colonies of the United Kingdom, in the ships of that country, with the exception of a limited list of specified articles, which can only be imported into the said colonies in British ships, his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom reserves to himself the power of adding to the said list of excepted articles any other, the produce of the French dominions, the addition whereof may appear to his Majesty to be necessary for placing the commerce and navigation to be permitted to the subjects of each of the high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, upon a footing of full reciprocity.

3. French vessels shall be allowed to export from all the colonies of the United Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company), all kinds of merchandise which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of Great Britain; and the said vessels, as well as the merchandise exported in the same, shall not be subject to other or higher duties than those to

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LE PRINCE DE POLIGNAC.

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which British vessels may be subject, on exporting the said merchandise, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself; and they shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, to which British vessels would be entitled, on such exportation.

The same facilities and privileges shall be granted, reciprocally, in all the colonies of France, for the exportation, in British vessels, of all kinds of merchandise, which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of France.

These 3 additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the convention signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Jan. 26, 1826.

GEORGE CANNING.

WILLIAM HUSKISSON.

LE PRINCE DE POLIGNAC.

A Treasury letter, dated 28th of March, 1826, directs that French vessels, and their cargoes legally imported or exported on board the same, according to the terms of the convention in the preceding pages, are, from the 6th of April, 1826, to be charged with such and the like duties only, of whatever kind they may be, that are charged on British vessels, and similar cargoes laden on board thereof; and in like manner the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances are to be paid on articles exported in French vessels, that are paid, granted, or allowed on similar articles exported in British vessels. The necessary instructions are to be transmitted to the officers in the colonies for carrying into effect the stipulations contained in the 3 additional articles of the said convention, respecting French vessels and their cargoes, from the 1st of October, 1826.

HANSE TOWNS.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the Free Hanseatic Republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, signed at London, Sept. 29, 1825.

Article 1. From and after the date hereof, British vessels entering or departing from the ports of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg; and Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; shall not be subject to any other or higher ship duties or charges than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

1. All goods, whether the production of the territories of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or of any other country, which may be legally imported from any of the ports of the said republics into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in British vessels, shall, in the manner, be permitted to be imported in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels; and all goods, whether the production of any of the dominions of His Britannic Majesty, or of any other country, which may be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom in British vessels, shall in like manner, be permitted to be exported from the said ports, in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels. And all goods, which may be legally imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, in national vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, in British vessels.

2. All goods which can be legally imported into the ports of the United Kingdom directly from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or either of them, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in British vessels, or in vessels belonging to either of the said republics; and all goods which can be legally exported from the United Kingdom, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in British or Hanseatic vessels. And the like reciprocity shall be observed, in the ports of the said republics, in respect to all goods which can be legally imported into or exported from any or either of the said ports in vessels belonging to the United Kingdom.

3. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by any or either of the contracting parties, nor by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on their behalf or under their authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of their states respectively, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

4. In consideration of the limited extent of the territories belonging to the republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, and the intimate connection of trade and navigation subsisting between these republics, it is hereby stipulated and agreed, that any vessel which shall have been built in any or either of the ports of the said republics, and which shall be owned exclusively by a citizen or citizens of any or either of them, and of which the master shall also be a citizen of either of them, and provided 3-4ths of the crew shall be subjects or citizens of any or either of the said republics, or of any or either of the states comprised in the Germanic Confederation, such vessel, so built, owned, and navigated, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be taken to be and be considered as a vessel belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg.

5. Any vessel, together with her cargo, belonging to either of the three free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, and coming from either of the said ports to the United Kingdom, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be deemed to come from the country to which such vessel belongs; and any British vessel and her cargo trading to the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, directly or in succession, shall, for the like purposes, be on the footing of a Hanseatic vessel and her cargo making the same voyage.

6. It is further mutually agreed, that no higher or other duties shall be levied, in any or either of the states of the high contracting parties, upon any personal property of the subjects and citizens of each respectively, on the removal of the same from the dominions or territory of such state, (either upon inheritance of such property, or otherwise), than are or shall be payable, in each state, upon the like property when removed by a subject or citizen of such state respectively.

7. The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending, even beyond what is comprehended in the convention of this date, the commercial relations of their respective subjects and dominions, citizens and territories, upon the principle either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be; and, in the event of any article or articles being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the present convention.

8. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the one part, or the governments of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or either of them, on the other part, shall have given notice of their intention to terminate the same; each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either of the parties from the

other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine, as far as regards the states giving and receiving such notice; it being always understood and agreed, that, if one or more of the Hisseanic republics aforesaid shall, at the expiration of 10 years from the date hereof, give or receive notice of the proposed termination of this convention, such convention shall, nevertheless, remain in full force and operation as far as regards the remaining Hisseanic republics or republic which may not have given or received such notice.

10. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratification shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Sept. 29, 1825.

GEORGE CANNING.
W. HUNTSLAW.
JAMES COLQUHOUN.

Mexico.

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between Great Britain and Mexico, signed at London, December 26, 1826.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the dominions and subjects of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the United States of Mexico, and their citizens.

2. There shall be, between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe and the territories of Mexico, a reciprocal freedom of commerce. The inhabitants of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come, with their ships and cargoes, to all places and rivers in the territories aforesaid, saving only such particular ports to which other foreigners shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and, generally, the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce.

In like manner, the respective ships of war, and post-office packets of the 2 countries, shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbours, rivers, and places, saving only such particular ports (if any) to which other foreign ships of war and packets shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, to anchor, and to remain there and rest; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers, mentioned in this article, the privileges of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood, in which national vessels only are permitted to engage.

3. His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland engages further, that the inhabitants of Mexico shall have the like liberty of commerce and navigation stipulated for in the preceding article, in all his dominions situated out of Europe, to the full extent in which the same is permitted at present, or shall be permitted hereafter, to any other nation.

4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of Mexico, or any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed in the territories or dominions of either of the contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, or of the said territories of Mexico, to or from the said dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or to or from the said territories of Mexico, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

5. No higher or other duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed, in any of the ports of Mexico, on British vessels, than those payable in the same ports by Mexican vessels; nor, in the ports of his Britannic Majesty's territories, on Mexican vessels, than shall be payable, in the same ports, on British vessels.

6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of Mexico, of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such importation shall be in Mexican or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, whether such importation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels. The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to Mexico of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in Mexican or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels.

7. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Mexican vessel, it is hereby agreed that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or vessels which shall have been captured from an enemy by his Britannic Majesty's ships of war, or by subjects of his said Majesty furnished with letters of marque by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and regularly condemned in one of his said Majesty's prize courts as a lawful prize, or which shall have been condemned in any competent court for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of Mexico, or captured from the enemy by the ships of Mexico, and condemned under similar circumstances, and which shall be owned by any citizen or citizens thereof, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners are citizens of Mexico, excepting where the laws provide for any extreme case, shall be considered as Mexican vessels.

And it is further agreed, that every vessel, qualified to trade as above described, under the provisions of this treaty, shall be furnished with a register, passport, or sea letter, under the signature of the proper person authorised to grant the same, according to the laws of the respective countries (the form of which shall be communicated), certifying the name, occupation, and residence of the owner or owners, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or in the territories of Mexico, as the case may be; and that he, or they, is, or are, the sole owner or owners, in the proportion to be specified; together with the name, build, and description of the vessel as to built and measurement, and the several particulars constituting the national character of the vessel, as the case may be.

8. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of Mexico, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit

* See additional articles at the end of this treaty.

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 W. HUBERTSON.
 JAMES COLQUHOUN.

Mexico, signed at London,

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them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other person for those purposes than those employed by Mexicans, nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid, in like cases, by Mexican citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed, in all cases, to the buyer and seller, to bargain and fix the price of any goods, imported into or exported from Mexico, as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, by the citizens of Mexico, under the same conditions.

The citizens and subjects of the contracting parties, in the territories of each other, shall receive and enjoy the full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries, respectively, for the prosecution and defence of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ, in all causes, the advocates, attorneys, or agents of whatever description, whom they may think proper; and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

9. In whatever relates to the succession to personal estates, by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, exchange, or testament, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the subjects and citizens of the contracting parties shall enjoy, in their respective dominions and territories, the same privileges, benefits, and rights, as native subjects; and shall not be charged, in any of these respects, with any higher imposts or duties than those which are paid, or may be paid, by the native subjects or citizens of the power in whose dominions or territories they may be resident.

10. In all that relates to the police of the ports, the lading and unlading of ships, the safety of merchandise, goods, and effects, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, and the citizens of Mexico, respectively, shall be subject to the local laws and regulations of the dominions and territories in which they may reside. They shall be exempted from all compulsory military service, whether by sea or land. No forced loans shall be levied upon them; nor shall their property be subject to any other charges, regulations, or taxes, than such as are paid by the native subjects or citizens of the contracting parties in their respective dominions.

11. It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but, before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and neither of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as either of them may judge fit to be excepted. The Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls shall enjoy, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or shall be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favoured nation; and, in like manner, the diplomatic agents and consuls of his Britannic Majesty in the Mexican territories shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or may be granted to the Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty.

12. For the better security of commerce between the subjects of his Britannic Majesty and the citizens of the Mexican States, it is agreed that if, at any time, any interruption of friendly intercourse, or any rupture, should unfortunately take place between the two contracting parties, the merchants residing upon the coast shall be allowed six months, and those of the interior a whole year, to wind up their accounts, and dispose of their property; and a safe-conduct shall be given them to embark at the port which they shall themselves select. All those who are established in the respective dominions and territories of the two contracting parties, in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing such trade and employment therein, without any manner of interruption, in full enjoyment of their liberty and property, as long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offence against the laws; and their goods and effects, of whatever description they may be, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charges or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native subjects or citizens of the respective dominions or territories in which such subjects or citizens may reside. In the same case, debts, between individuals, public funds, and the shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, or detained.

13. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty, residing in the Mexican territories, shall enjoy, in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government; and, continuing in possession of what they now enjoy, they shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed, in any manner, on account of their religion, provided they respect that of the nation to which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the country. They shall continue to enjoy, to the full, the privilege already granted to them of burying, in the places already assigned for that purpose, such subjects of his Britannic Majesty as may die within the Mexican territories; nor shall the funerals and sepulchres of the dead be disturbed in any way or upon any account. The citizens of Mexico shall enjoy, in all the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, the same protection, and shall be allowed the free exercise of their religion, in public or private, either within their own houses, or in the chapels and places of worship set apart for that purpose.

14. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall, on no account or pretext whatsoever, be disturbed or molested in the peaceable possession and exercise of whatever rights, privileges, and immunities they have at any time enjoyed within the limits described and laid down in a convention signed between his said Majesty and the King of Spain, on the 14th of July, 1788; whether such rights, privileges, and immunities shall be derived from the stipulations of the said convention, or from any other concession which may, at any time, have been made by the King of Spain, or his predecessors, to British subjects and settlers residing and following their lawful occupations within the limits aforesaid: the two contracting parties reserving, however, for some more fitting opportunity, the further arrangements on this article.

15. The government of Mexico engages to co-operate with his Britannic Majesty for the total abolition of the slave trade, and to prohibit all persons inhabiting within the territories of Mexico, in the most effectual manner, from taking any share in such trade.

16. The two contracting parties reserve to themselves the right of treating and agreeing hereafter, from time to time, upon such other articles as may appear to them to contribute still further to the improvement of their mutual intercourse, and the advancement of the general interests of their respective subjects and citizens; and such articles as may be so agreed upon, shall, when duly ratified, be regarded as forming a part of the present treaty, and shall have the same force as those now contained in it.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within the space of six months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.
 WILLIAM HUBERTSON, SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.
 JAMES J. MORIER.

Additional Articles.

1. Whereas in the present state of Mexican shipping, it would not be possible for Mexico to receive the full advantage of the reciprocity established by the articles 5, 6, 7, of the treaty signed this day, if that part of the 7th article which stipulates that, in order to be considered as a Mexican ship, a ship shall actually have been built in Mexico, should be strictly and literally observed, and immediately brought into operation; it is agreed that, for the space of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, any ships *wherever* built, being *bound for* the property of and wholly owned by one or more citizens of Mexico, and whereof the master and 3/4ths of the mariners, at least, are also natural born citizens of Mexico, or persons domiciliated in Mexico, by act of the government, as lawful subjects of Mexico, to be certified according to the laws of that country, shall be considered as Mexican ships; his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland reserving to himself the right, at the end of the said term of ten years, to claim the principle of reciprocal restriction stipulated for in the article 7, above referred to, if the interests of British navigation shall be found to be prejudiced by the present exception to that reciprocity, in favour of Mexican shipping.

2. It is further agreed that, for the like term of ten years, the stipulations contained in articles 5. and 6. of the present treaty shall be suspended; and in lieu thereof, it is hereby agreed that, until the expiration of the said term of ten years, British ships entering into the ports of Mexico, from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any of the said dominions, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and, reciprocally, it is agreed, that Mexican ships entering into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, from any port of the States of Mexico, and all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said States, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and that no higher duties shall be paid, or bounties or drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of either country, in the ships of the other, than upon the exportation of the like articles in the ships of any other foreign country.

It being understood that, at the end of the said term of ten years, the stipulations of the said 5th and 6th articles shall, from thenceforward, be in full force between the two countries.

The present additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 90th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.

WILLIAM HARRISON.
JAMES J. MORRIS.

SEBASTIAN CANACHO.

An order in council, dated September 3, 1827, orders, that vessels of the United States of Mexico, entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in ballast, or laden direct from any of the ports of Mexico, or departing from the ports of the said United Kingdom, together with the cargoes on board the same, such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports, or on similar articles when imported into, or exported from, such ports in British vessels; and also such articles, when exported from the said ports in vessels of the United States of Mexico respectively, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances that are granted on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

N. B.—Treaties similar to the above have been negotiated with Colombia, Buenos Ayres, &c.

NETHERLANDS.

Treaty between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Netherlands, respecting Territories and Commerce in the East Indies, signed at London, March 17, 1824.

Article 1. The high contracting parties engage to admit the subjects of each other to trade with their respective possessions in the Eastern Archipelago, and on the continent of India, and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favoured nation; their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement.

2. The subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay, upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other in the Eastern seas, any duty at a rate beyond the double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, are charged.

The duties paid on exports or imports at a British port, on the continent of India, or in Ceylon, on Dutch bottoms, shall be arranged so as, in no case, to be charged at more than double the amount of the duties paid by British subjects, and on British bottoms.

In regard to any article upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects, or on the vessels, of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other shall, in no case, exceed 6 per cent.

3. The high contracting parties engage, that no treaty hereafter made by either, with any native power in the Eastern seas, shall contain any article tending, either expressly, or by the imposition of unequal duties, to exclude the trade of the other party from the ports of such native power; and that if, in any treaty now existing on either part, any article to that effect has been admitted, such article shall be abrogated upon the conclusion of the present treaty.

It is understood that, before the conclusion of the present treaty, communication has been made by each of the contracting parties to the other, of all treaties or engagements subsisting between each of them, respectively, and any native powers in the Eastern seas; and that the like communication shall be made of all such treaties concluded by them, respectively, hereafter.

4. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties engage to give strict orders, as well to their civil and military authorities, as to their ships of war, to respect the freedom of trade, established by articles 1, 2, and 3; and, in no case, to impede a free communication of the natives in the Eastern Archipelago, with the ports of the two governments, respectively, or of the subjects of the two governments with the ports belonging to native powers.

5. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties, in like manner, engage to concur effectually in repressing piracy in those seas; they will not grant either asylum or protection to vessels engaged in piracy, and they will, in no case, permit the ships or merchandise captured by such vessels, to be introduced, deposited, or sold, in any of their possessions.

responsible for Mexico to receive the treaty signed this day, and as a Mexican ship, a ship observed, and immediately reckoned from the date of being bound, the property of the master and 2-4ths of the netted in Mexico, by act to the laws of that country, Kingdom of Great Britain in years, to claim the privilege, if the interests of British that reciprocity, in favour of

contained in articles 5. and 6. agreed that, until the expiration of Mexico, from the United Majesty's dominions, and all of any of the said dominions, may hereafter be payable, in or manufacture of the most entering into the ports of the Majesty's dominions, from or manufacture of the said re or may hereafter be payable, or manufacture of the or drawbacks allowed, on dominions of either country, the ships of any other foreign

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36. SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.

the United States of Mexico, ballast, or laden direct from Kingdom, together with the y be legally imported or re- whatever that are or shall be similar articles when imported from, when exported from the entitled to the same bounties, as in British vessels. Bahia, Buenos Ayres, &c.

respecting Territories and 17, 1824.

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of India, or in Ceylon, on than double the amount of

or exported by the subjects, upon the subjects or vessels

be by either, with any native only, or by the imposition of such native power; and that been admitted, such article

application has been made by subsisting between each of the like communication shall

ers, as well to their civil and ed, established by articles 1, in the Eastern Archipelago, of the two governments with

to concur effectually in re- spective to vessels engaged in led by such vessels, to be in-

4. It is agreed that orders shall be given by the two governments, to their officers and agents in the East, not to form any new settlement on any of the Islands in the Eastern sea, without previous authority from their respective governments in Europe.

7. The Molucca Islands, and especially Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and their immediate dependencies, are excepted from the operation of the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th articles, until the Netherland government shall think fit to abandon the monopoly of spices; but if the said government shall, at any time previous to such abandonment of the monopoly, allow the subjects of any power, other than an Asiatic native power, to carry on any commercial intercourse with the said Islands, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall be admitted to such intercourse, upon a footing precisely similar.

8. His Netherland Majesty cedes to his Britannic Majesty all his establishment on the continent of India; and renounces all privileges and exemptions enjoyed or claimed in virtue of those establishments.

9. The factory of Fort Marlborough, and all the English possessions on the island of Sumatra, are hereby ceded to his Netherland Majesty; and his Britannic Majesty further engages that no British settlement shall be formed on that island, nor any treaty concluded by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

10. The town and Fort of Malacca, and its dependencies, are hereby ceded to his Britannic Majesty; and his Netherland Majesty engages, for himself and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

11. All the colonies, possessions, and establishments which are ceded by the preceding articles, shall be delivered up to the officers of the respective sovereigns on the 1st of March, 1825. The fortifications shall remain in the state in which they shall be at the period of the notification of this treaty in India; but no claim shall be made, on either side, for ordnance, or stores of any description, either left or removed by the ceding power, nor for any arrears of revenue, or any charge of administration whatever.

12. It is agreed that all accounts and reclamations, arising out of the restoration of Java, and other possessions, to the officers of his Netherland Majesty in the East Indies,—as well those which were the subject of a convention made at Java on the 24th of June, 1817, between the commissioners of the two nations, as all others,—shall be finally and completely closed and satisfied, on the payment of the sum of 100,000*l.*, sterling money, to be made in London on the part of the Netherlands, before the expiration of the year 1825.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at London, within 3 months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 17th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1824.

GEORGE CANNING. CHARLES WATKINS WILLIAMS WYNN. H. FAGEL. A. K. FALCK.

PORTUGAL.

Treaty of Commerce between Great Britain and Portugal, signed at Lisbon, December 27, 1703.

Article 1. His Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name and that of his successors, to admit, forever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accustomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheless, upon this condition:

2. That is to say, that her Sacred Royal Majesty of Great Britain shall, in her own name and that of her successors, be obliged forever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; as that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the Kingdoms of Britain and France, anything more shall be demanded for these wines, by the name of custom or duty, or by whatsoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they shall be imported into Great Britain in pipes or hogsheads, or other casks, than what shall be demanded from the like quantity or measure of French wine deducting or abating a third part of the custom or duty; but if at any time this deduction or statement of customs, which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

3. The most excellent lords the Plenipotentiaries promise, and take upon themselves, that their above named masters shall ratify this treaty, and that within the space of two months the ratifications shall be exchanged.

Given at Lisbon, the 27th of December, 1703.

JOHN METHUEN.

MARCUS ALEORANTENSIS.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Great Britain and Portugal, signed at Rio de Janeiro, the 19th of February, 1810.

1. Peace established.

2. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between the respective subjects of the two high contracting parties, in all the territories and dominions of either. They may trade, travel, sojourn, or establish themselves, in all the ports, cities, towns, countries, provinces, or places whatsoever, belonging to each of the two high contracting parties, except in those from which all foreigners whatsoever are generally and positively excluded, the names of which places may be hereafter specified in a separate article of this treaty. Provided, however, that it be thoroughly understood that any place belonging to either of the two high contracting parties, which may hereafter be opened to the commerce of the subjects of any other country, shall thereby be considered as equally opened, and upon correspondent terms, to the subjects of the other high contracting party. In the same manner as if it had been expressly stipulated by the present treaty. And his Britannic Majesty, and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, do hereby bind themselves not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunity in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects of any other state, which shall not be also at the same time respectively extended to the subjects of the high contracting parties, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state should have been gratuitous, and on giving, *quam proxime*, the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession should have been conditional.

3. The subjects of the two sovereigns respectively shall not pay, in the ports, harbours, roads, cities, towns, or places whatsoever, belonging to either of them, any greater duties, taxes, or impost (under whatsoever names they may be designated or included), than those that are paid by the subjects of the most favoured nation; and the subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall enjoy, within the dominions of the other, the same rights, privileges, or exemptions, in matters of commerce and navigation, that are granted, or may hereafter be granted, to the subjects of the most favoured nation.

4. His Britannic Majesty and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal do agree, that there shall be a perfect reciprocity on the subject of the duties and imposts to be paid by the vessels of the high contracting parties, within the several ports and anchoring places belonging to each of them; to wit, that the vessels or the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not pay any higher duties or imposts

(under whatsoever name they be designated or implied,) within the dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, than the vessels belonging to the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal shall be bound to pay within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versa*. And this agreement shall particularly extend to the payment of the duties known by the name of *Port Charges, Tonnage, and Anchorage Duties*, which shall not, in any case, or under any pretext, be greater for British vessels within the dominions of Portugal, than for Portuguese vessels within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versa*.

5. The two high contracting parties do also agree, that the same rates of bounties and drawbacks shall be established in their respective ports upon the exportation of goods, whether those goods be exported in British or Portuguese vessels; that is, that British vessels shall enjoy the same favour in this respect, within the dominions of Portugal, that may be shown to Portuguese vessels within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versa*. The two high contracting parties do also agree, that goods coming respectively from the ports of either of them, shall pay the same duties, whether imported in British or Portuguese vessels; or otherwise, that an increase of duties may be imposed upon goods coming into the ports of the dominions of Portugal from those of his Britannic Majesty in British ships, equivalent, and in exact proportion, to any increase of duties that may hereafter be imposed upon goods coming into the ports of his Britannic Majesty from those of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, imported in Portuguese ships. And in order that this matter may be settled with due exactness, and that nothing may be left undetermined concerning it, it is agreed, that Tables shall be drawn up by each government, respectively, specifying the difference of duties to be paid on goods so imported; and the Tables (which shall be made applicable to all the ports within the respective dominions of each of the contracting parties) shall be adjudged to form part of this present treaty.

In order to avoid any differences or misunderstandings with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Portuguese vessel, the high contracting parties agree in declaring, that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the countries belonging to Portugal, or ships taken by any of the vessels of war belonging to the Portuguese government, or any of the inhabitants of the dominions of Portugal, having commissions or letters of marque and reprisal from the government of Portugal, and condemned as lawful prize in any court of admiralty of the Portuguese government, and owned by the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners, at least, are subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall be considered as Portuguese vessels.

6. The mutual commerce and navigation of the subjects of Great Britain and Portugal, respectively, in the ports and seas of Asia, are expressly permitted, to the same degree as they have heretofore been allowed by the two Crowns: and the commerce and navigation thus permitted, shall be placed on the footing of the commerce and navigation of the most favoured nation trading in the ports and seas of Asia; that is, that neither of the high contracting parties shall grant any favour or privilege in matters of commerce and navigation to the subjects of any other state trading within the ports and seas of Asia, which shall not be also granted, *quæ proxime*, on the same terms, to the subjects of the other contracting party. His Britannic Majesty engages not to make any regulation which may be prejudicial or inconvenient to the commerce and navigation of the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal within the ports and seas of Asia, to the extent which is or may hereafter be permitted to the most favoured nation. And his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal does also engage not to make any regulations which may be prejudicial or inconvenient to the commerce and navigation of the subjects of his Britannic Majesty within the ports, seas, and dominions opened to them by virtue of the present treaty.

13. Packets shall be established for the purpose of furthering the public service of the two courts, and facilitating the commercial intercourse of their respective subjects. A convention shall be concluded forthwith on the basis of that which was signed at Rio de Janeiro, on the 14th day of September, 1808, in order to settle the terms upon which the Packets are to be established, which convention shall be ratified at the same time with the present treaty.

15. All goods and articles whatsoever of the produce, manufacture, industry, or invention of the dominions and subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall be admitted into all the ports and dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, as well in America, Africa, and Asia, whether consigned to British or Portuguese subjects, on paying, generally and solely, duties to the amount of 15 per cent. according to the value which shall be set upon them by a tariff or table of valuations, called in the Portuguese language *pesta*, the principal basis of which shall be the sworn invoice cost of the aforesaid goods, merchandises, and articles, taking also into consideration (so far as may be just or practicable) the current prices thereof in the country into which they are imported. This tariff or valuation shall be determined and settled by an equal number of British and Portuguese merchants of known integrity and honour, with the assistance, on the part of the British merchants, of his Britannic Majesty's consul general, or consul; and on the part of the Portuguese merchants, with the assistance of the superintendent, or administrator general of the customs, or of their respective deputies. And the aforesaid tariff shall be made and promulgated in each of the ports belonging to his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, in which there are or may be custom-houses. And it shall be revised and altered if necessary, from time to time, either in the whole, or in part, whenever the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, resident within the dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall make a requisition to that effect through the medium of his Britannic Majesty's consul general, or consul, or whenever the trading and commercial subjects of Portugal shall make the same requisition on their own part.

If any British goods should hereafter arrive in the ports of the Portuguese dominions, without having been specifically valued and rated in the new tariff or *pesta*, they shall be admitted on paying the same duties of 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, according to the invoices of the goods, which shall be duly presented and sworn to by the parties importing the same. And in case that any suspicion of fraud, or unfair practices, should arise, the invoices shall be examined, and the real value of the goods ascertained by a reference to an equal number of British and Portuguese merchants of known integrity and honour; and in case of a difference of opinion amongst them, followed by an equality of votes upon the subject, they shall then nominate another merchant, likewise of known integrity and honour, to whom the matter shall be ultimately referred, and whose decision thereon shall be final and without appeal. And in case the invoice should appear to have been fair and correct, the goods specified in it shall be admitted, on paying the duties above mentioned of 15 per cent.; and the expenses, if any, of the examination of the invoice, shall be defrayed by the party who called its fairness and correctness into question. But if the invoice should be found to be fraudulent and unfair, then the goods and merchandises shall be bought up by the officers of the customs on the account of the Portuguese government, according to the value specified in the invoice, with an addition of 10 per cent. to the sum so paid for them by the officers of the customs, the Portuguese government engaging for the payment of the goods so valued and purchased by the officers of the customs within the space of 15 days; and the expenses, if any, of the examination of the fraudulent invoice shall be paid by the party who presented it as just and fair.

sons of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, which the Portuguese government may be desirous of taking for its own use, shall be paid for without delay at the prices appointed by the proprietors, who shall not be compelled to sell such articles on any other terms.

If the Portuguese government shall take into its own care and custody any cargo, or part of a cargo, with a view to purchase, or otherwise, the Portuguese government shall be responsible for any damage or injury that the same may receive while in the care and custody of the officers of the Portuguese government.

If the Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to grant to the subjects of Great Britain the privilege of being assignees for the duties to be paid in the Custom-houses of his Majesty's dominions, on the same terms, and on giving the same security, as was required from the subjects of Portugal.

On the other hand, the subjects of the Crown of Portugal shall receive, as far as it may be just or level, the same favour in the custom-houses of Great Britain as is shown to the natural subjects of his Majesty.

If the British Majesty does premise and engage, that all goods and articles whatsoever, of the produce, manufacture, industry, or invention of the dominions or subjects of the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall be admitted into the ports and dominions of his Majesty, on paying generally not only the same duties that are paid upon similar articles by the subjects of the most favoured nation.

If any reduction of duties should take place exclusively in favour of British goods imported into the dominions of Portugal, an equivalent reduction shall take place on Portuguese goods and merchandise imported into his Majesty's dominions, and *vice versa*; the articles upon which such equivalent reduction is to take place being settled by previous concert and agreement between the 2 contracting parties.

It is understood, that any such reduction so granted by either party to the other, shall not be granted upwards (except upon the same terms and for the same compensation) in favour of any other state or nation whatsoever. And this declaration is to be considered as reciprocal on the part of the 2 contracting parties.

But as there are some articles of the growth and production of Brazil, which are excluded from the markets and home consumption of the British dominions, such as sugar, coffee, and other articles similar to the produce of the British colonies; his Majesty, willing to favour and protect (as far as possible) the commerce of the subjects of his Majesty, reserves to himself the right of imposing duties and permits that the said articles, as well as all others the growth and produce of Brazil, and of other parts of the Portuguese dominions, may be received and warehoused in all the ports of his dominions, which shall be by law appointed to be warehousing ports for those articles, for the purpose of re-exportation, under due regulation, exempted from the greater duties with which they would be charged were they destined for consumption within the British dominions, and liable only to the reduced duties and expenses on warehousing and re-exportation.

In like manner, notwithstanding the general privilege of admission thus granted in the 15th article of the present treaty by the Prince Regent of Portugal, in favour of all goods the produce and manufacture of the British dominions, his Majesty reserves to himself the right of imposing duties, and even prohibitory duties on all articles known by the name of *British East Indian Goods*, and *East Indian Produce*, such as sugar and coffee, which cannot be admitted for consumption in the Portuguese dominions, by reason of the same principle of colonial policy which prevents the free admission into the British dominions of corresponding articles of Brazilian produce.

But his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal consents that all the ports of his dominions, where there are or may be Custom-houses, shall be free ports for the reception and admission of all articles whatsoever, the produce and manufacture of the British dominions, not destined for the consumption of the place at which they may be received or admitted, but for re-exportation, either for other parts of the dominions of Portugal, or for those of other states. And the articles thus received and admitted (subject to due regulations) shall be exempted from the duties with which they would be charged, if destined for the consumption of the place at which they may be imported or warehoused, and liable only to the same expenses that may be paid by articles of Brazilian produce received and warehoused for re-exportation in the ports of his Majesty's dominions.

his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to declare the port of St. Catherine to be a *Free Port*, according to the terms mentioned in the preceding article of the present treaty.

his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to render Goa a *Free Port*, and to permit the free toleration of all religious sects whatever in that city and its dependencies.

All trade with the Portuguese possessions situated upon the eastern coast of the continent of Africa (in articles not included in the exclusive contracts possessed by the Crown of Portugal) which may have been formerly allowed to the subjects of Great Britain, is confirmed and secured to them now, and for ever, in the same manner as the trade which has hitherto been permitted to Portuguese subjects in the ports and seas of Asia is confirmed and secured to them by virtue of the 6th article of the present treaty.

his Majesty consents to waive the right of creating factories or incorporated bodies of British merchants, within the dominions of Portugal; provided, however, that this shall not deprive the subjects of his Majesty, residing within the dominions of Portugal, of the full enjoyment, as individuals engaged in commerce, of any of those rights and privileges which they did or might possess as members of incorporated commercial bodies; and also that the commerce and trade carried on by British subjects shall not be restricted, or otherwise affected, by any commercial company whatever, possessing exclusive privileges and favours within the dominions of Portugal. And his Majesty consents to waive the right of creating factories or incorporated bodies of merchants within his dominions, in so far as British factories shall not be established therein.

The two high contracting parties agree, that they will forthwith proceed in the revision of all other former treaties subsisting between the 2 Crowns, for the purpose of ascertaining what stipulations contained in them are, in the present state of affairs, proper to be confirmed or renewed.

It is agreed that the stipulations contained in former treaties concerning the admission of the wines of Portugal on the one hand, and the woollen cloths of Great Britain on the other, shall at present remain unaltered. In the same manner it is agreed, that the privileges and immunities granted by either contracting party to the subjects of the other, whether by treaty, decree, or *alms*, shall remain unaltered, except the power granted by former treaties, of carrying in the ships of either country goods of any description whatsoever, the property of the enemies of the other country, which power is now mutually and publicly renounced and abrogated.

The reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation, declared by the present treaty, shall be considered to extend to all goods whatsoever, except those articles the property of the enemies of either power, or contraband of war.

Under the name of contraband or prohibited articles shall be comprehended not only arms, cannon, arquebuses, mortars, petards, bombs, grenades, saucisses, carcases, carriages for cannon

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market-rests, bandollers, gunpowder, match, saltpetre, ball, pikes, swords, hand-pieces, helmets, cuirasses, halberts, javelins, holsters, belts, borses, and their harness, but generally all other articles that may have been specified as contraband in any former treaties concluded by Great Britain or by Portugal with other powers. But goods which have not been brought into the form of warlike instruments, or which cannot become such, shall not be reputed contraband, much less such as have been already wrought and made up for other purposes, all which shall be deemed not contraband, and may be freely carried by the subjects of both sovereigns, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting only such pieces as are besieged, blockaded, or invested by sea or land.

29. In case any vessels of war, or merchantmen, should be wrecked on the coasts of either of the high contracting parties, all such parts of the vessels, or of the furniture or appurtenances thereof, as also of goods as shall be saved, or the produce thereof, shall be faithfully restored upon the same being claimed by the proprietors or their factors duly authorised, paying only the expenses incurred in the preservation thereof, according to the rate of salvage settled on both sides (saving at the same time the rights and customs of each nation, the abolition or modification of which shall, however, be treated upon in the cases where they shall be contrary to the stipulations of the present article); and the high contracting parties will mutually interpose their authority, that such of their subjects as shall take advantage of any such misfortune may be severely punished.

30. It is further agreed, that both his Britannic Majesty and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal shall not only refuse to receive any pirates or sea-rovers whatsoever into any of their havens, ports, cities, or towns, or permit any of their subjects, citizens, or inhabitants, on either part, to receive or protect them in their ports, to harbour them in their houses, or to assist them in any manner whatsoever; but further, that they shall cause all such pirates and sea-rovers, and all persons who shall receive, conceal, or assist them, to be brought to condign punishment for a terror and example to others. And all their ships, with the goods or merchandises taken by them, and brought into the ports belonging to either of the high contracting parties, shall be seized, as far as they can be discovered, and shall be restored to the owners, or the factors duly authorised or deputed by them in writing, proper evidence being first given to prove the property, even in case such effects should have passed into other hands by sale, if it be ascertained that the buyers knew or might have known that they had been piratically taken.

31. If at any time there should arise any disagreement, breach of friendship, or rupture between the Crowns of the high contracting parties, which God forbid (which rupture shall not be deemed to exist until the recalling or sending home of their respective ambassadors and ministers), the subjects of each of the 2 parties residing in the dominions of the other, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing their trade therein, without any manner of interruption, so long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offence against the laws and ordinances; and in case their conduct should render them suspected, and the respective governments should be obliged to order them to remove, the term of 12 months shall be allowed them for that purpose, in order that they might retire with their effects and property, whether intrusted to individuals or to the state.

At the same time it is to be understood that this favour is not to be extended to those who shall act in any manner contrary to the established laws.

32. The present treaty shall be unlimited in point of duration, that the obligations and conditions expressed or implied in it shall be perpetual and immutable; and they shall not be changed or affected in any manner in case his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal should again establish the seat of the Portuguese monarchy within the European dominions of that Crown.

33. But the 2 high contracting parties do reserve to themselves the right of jointly examining and revising the several articles of this treaty at the end of 15 years, counted in the first instance from the date of the exchange of the ratifications thereof, and of then proposing, discussing, and making such amendments or additions, as the real interest of their respective subjects may seem to require. It being understood that any stipulation which at the period of revision of the treaty shall be objected to by either of the high contracting parties, shall be considered as suspended in its operation until the discussion concerning that stipulation shall be terminated, due notice being previously given to the other contracting party of the intended suspension of such stipulation, for the purpose of avoiding mutual inconvenience.

34. The several stipulations and conditions of the present treaty shall begin to have effect from the date of his Britannic Majesty's ratification thereof; and the mutual exchange of ratifications shall take place in the city of London, within the space of 4 months, or sooner if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature of the present treaty.

Done in the city of Rio de Janeiro, on the 19th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1810.

STANHOPE.

CONDÉ DE LITANES.

Agreement between the British and Portuguese Commissioners, on Four Points connected with the Execution of the Treaty of 1810. Signed at London, 18th of December, 1812.

1. The official certificate of registry, signed by the proper officer of the British customs, shall be deemed sufficient to identify a British built ship; and on the production of such certificate she shall be admitted as such in any of the ports within the dominions of Portugal.

2. Upon the importation of any goods from the United Kingdom, into any of the ports in the dominions of Portugal, all such goods shall be accompanied by the original caskets, signed and sealed by the proper officers of the British customs at the port of shipping, and the caskets belonging to each ship shall be numbered progressively, the total number stated on the first and last casket, by the proper officers of customs, at the final clearance of each vessel at the British port; and it is further agreed, that prior to the final clearance by the searchers at the shipping port, the caskets for each ship must be collected and fastened together, to which shall be annexed a paper, with the number of the caskets, sealed with the official seal, and signed by the searchers; the caskets, when collected, shall be produced, together with the manifest sworn to by the captain, to the Portuguese consul, who shall certify the same on the manifest; the caskets, thus secured together, and the manifest, so authenticated, to be returned to the searcher, in order to the final clearance of the ship.

3. It is agreed to place the Portuguese merchant on the same footing with the British, both with regard to the duties of scavage and package payable to the corporation of London, and the duties payable on shipping to the corporation of the Trinity House in London. To effect this, and at the same time to preserve the chartered rights of the corporation of London, and of the Trinity House, it will be necessary that those duties should, in the first instance, be paid as at present; and in all cases where it shall appear that the Portuguese merchants shall have paid more than the British, the difference to be returned without expense, in such manner as the British government shall direct.

4. The importer shall, on making the entry at the Portuguese Custom-house, sign a declaration of the value of his goods, to such amount as he shall deem proper; and in case the Portuguese examining officers should be of opinion that such valuation is insufficient, they shall be at liberty to take

* These ratifications were exchanged in London, on the 19th of June, 1810.

the goods, on paying the importer the amount, according to his declaration, with the addition of 10 per cent., and also return: g the duty paid.
The amount to be paid on the goods being delivered to the Portuguese officer, which must be within 10 days from the first detention of the goods.
London, 10th of December, 1812.

R. FRENCH.
Wm. BURN.

A. T. SM. PAYO.
A. I. DA COSTA.

Prussia.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the King of Prussia, signed at London, April 2, 1806.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of May next, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Prussian Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Prussia, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, into the ports of Prussia, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Prussian ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian ships.

4. All goods, which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted, at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, imported into the other, on account of, or in reference to, the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or preference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

7. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.
In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the second day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
GEORGE CANNING. W. HUSKISSON. WARTHAU.

An order in council, dated May 25, 1804, directs that from May 1, 1804, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports; that all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from the said ports in Prussian vessels; that all articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported from Prussia into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian vessels, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in British ships; that all goods which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, when imported in Prussian vessels, that is charged on similar articles imported in British vessels; and that all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, when exported in Prussian vessels, that are granted, paid, or allowed on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

A Treasury letter, dated October 13, 1804, directs, that with respect to pilotage and all other duties charged on vessels belonging to Prussia, Sweden, and Norway, Denmark, Hanover, and Hamburg, which have entered, or which may enter, the ports of the United Kingdom, either from stress of weather or from any other cause, it was the intention of the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, that such duties should not be higher than are charged upon British vessels; and that it is only in the case of goods imported into this kingdom, and not brought direct from the country to which the vessel belongs, that the equality of duty does not apply.

An order in council, dated May 3, 1823, states, that his Majesty is pleased to declare, that the ships of war belonging to the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia are entitled to the privileges granted by the law of navigation, and may import from the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia, into any of the British possessions abroad, goods the produce of such dominions, and may export goods from such British possessions abroad, to be carried to any foreign country whatever.

Russia.

Convention between His Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of Russia, signed at Petersburg, in February, 1825.

Article 1. It is agreed that the respective subjects of the high contracting parties shall not be troubled or molested, in any part of the ocean commonly called the Pacific Ocean, either in navigating the same, or in fishing therein, or in landing at such parts of the coasts as shall not have been already occupied, in order to trade with the natives, under the restrictions and conditions specified in the following articles.

2. In order to prevent the right of navigating and fishing, exercised upon the ocean by the subjects of the high contracting parties, from becoming the pretext for an illicit commerce, it is agreed that the

ords, head-pieces, helmets, &c. generally all other articles used by Great Britain or by the form of warlike instruments less such as have been used not contraband, and may engage to an enemy, excepting

in the coasts of either of the or appurtenances thereof, as restored upon the same being the expenses incurred in the sea (saying at the same time shall, however, be treated present article); and the high their subjects as shall take

Highness the Prince Regent whatsoever into any of their or inhabitants, on either part, seas, or to assist them in any and sea-coasters, and all punishment for a terror and taken by them, and brought delinquency, as far as they can be or deputed by them in case such effects should have w or might have known that

ship, or rupture between the shall not be deemed to exist (in ministers), the subjects of e privileges of remaining and as they behave peaceably, or conduct should render them to remove, the term of 12 retire with their effects and tended to those who shall act

the obligations and conditions shall not be changed or affected t should again establish the Crown.

right of jointly examining and ed in the first instance from being, discussing, and making subjects may seem to require. of the treaty shall be objected ed in its operation until the wing previously given to the, for the purpose of avoiding

begin to have effect from the change of ratifications shall if possible, to be computed the year of our Lord 1810.

CONDÉ DE LIGNÈRES.

the points connected with the of December, 1812.

the British customs, shall be in of such certificate she shall

any of the ports in the domi- cketts, signed and sealed by the cketts belonging to each at and last cket, by the prop- 1 and it is further agreed, the cketts for each ship must with the number of the cketts, n collected, shall be produced, consular, who shall certify the mifest, so authenticated, to be

ing with the British, both with of London, and the duties pay- to effect this, and at the same of the Trinity House, it will at present; and in all cases at than the British, the differ- ment shall direct.

house, sign a declaration of case the Portuguese exami- ners shall be at liberty to take

th of June, 1810.

subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not land at any place where there may be a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor or commandant of the same, on the other hand, that Russian subjects shall not land, without permission, at any British establishment on the north-west coast.

3. The line of demarcation between the possessions of the high contracting parties, upon the coast of the continent, and the islands of America to the north-west, shall be drawn in the manner following:—

Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 131st and 133d degree of west longitude (meridian of Greenwich) the said line shall ascend to the north along the channel, as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude; from this last mentioned point, the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude (of the same meridian); and, finally, from the said point of intersection, the said meridian line of the 141st degree, in its prolongation as far as the Frozen Ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the north-west.

4. With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding article, it is understood:—

1st. That the island called Prince of Wales Island shall belong wholly to Russia.

2d. That wherever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56th degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than 10 marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast which is to belong to Russia, an above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of 10 marine leagues therefrom.

5. It is moreover agreed, that no establishment shall be formed by either of the 2 parties, within the limits assigned by the preceding 3 articles in the possessions of the other; consequently, British subjects shall not form any establishment either upon the coast, or upon the border of the continent comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions, as designated in the two preceding articles; and, in like manner, no establishment shall be formed by Russian subjects beyond the said limits.

6. It is understood, that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, from whatever quarter they may arrive, whether from the ocean, or from the interior of the continent, shall for ever enjoy the right of navigating freely, and without any hindrance whatever, all the rivers and streams which, in their course towards the Pacific Ocean, may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in article 3, of the present convention.

7. It is also understood that, for the space of 10 years from the signature of the present convention, the vessels of the 2 powers, or those belonging to their respective subjects, shall mutually be at liberty to frequent, without any hindrance whatever, all the inland seas, the gulfs, havens, and creeks, on the coast mentioned in article 3, for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives.

8. The port of Sitka, or Novo Archangelsk, shall be open to the commerce and vessels of British subjects for the space of 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention. In the event of an extension of this term of 10 years being granted to any other power, the like extension shall be granted also to Great Britain.

9. The above-mentioned liberty of commerce shall not apply to the trade in spirituous liquors, in fire-arms or other arms, gunpowder, or other warlike stores; the high contracting parties reciprocally engaging not to permit the above-mentioned articles to be sold or delivered, in any manner whatever, to the natives of the country.

10. Every British or Russian vessel navigating the Pacific Ocean, which may be compelled, by storms or by accident, to take shelter in the ports of the parties, shall be at liberty to rest therein, to provide itself with all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any other than port and light-house dues, which shall be the same as those paid by national vessels. In case, however, the master of such vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray his expenses, he shall conform himself to the regulations and tariffs of the place where he may have landed.

11. In case of complaint of an infraction of the articles of the present convention, the civil and military authorities of the high contracting parties, without previously acting or taking any forcible measure, shall make an exact and circumstantial report of the matter to their respective courts, who engage to settle the same, in a friendly manner, and according to the principles of justice.

12. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within the space of 6 weeks, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at St. Peterburgh, the 26th [16th] of February, 1825.

STAFFORD CANNING.
THE COUNT DE NESSELEDE.
PIRRAR DE POLETICA.

THE TWO SICILIES.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Two Sicilies, signed at London, September 26, 1816.

Article 1. His Britannic Majesty consents, that all the privileges and exemptions which his subjects, their commerce and shipping, have enjoyed, and do enjoy, in the dominions, ports, and domains of his Sicilian Majesty, in virtue of the treaty of peace and commerce concluded at Madrid on the 10th of May, (23d of May), 1667, between Great Britain and Spain; of the treaty of commerce between the same powers, signed at Utrecht, the 9th of December, 1713, and at Madrid, the 13th of December, 1715; and of the convention concluded at Utrecht, the 8th of March, 1712-1713, between Great Britain and the kingdom of Sicily, shall be abolished; and it is agreed upon in consequence, between their said Britannic and Sicilian Majesties, their heirs and successors, that the said privileges and exemptions, whether of persons, or of flags and shipping, are and shall continue for ever abolished.

2. His Sicilian Majesty engages not to continue, nor hereafter to grant, to the subjects of any other power whatever, the privileges and exemptions abolished by the present convention.

3. His Sicilian Majesty promises that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not be subjected, within his dominions, to a more rigorous system of examination and search by the officers of customs, than that to which the subjects of his said Sicilian Majesty are liable.

4. His Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies promises that British commerce in general, and the British subjects who carry it on, shall be treated throughout his dominions upon the same footing as the most favoured nation, not only with respect to the persons and property of the said British subjects, but also with regard to every species of article in which they may traffic, and the taxes or other charges payable on the said articles, or on the shipping in which the importation shall be made.

5. With respect to the personal privileges to be enjoyed by the subjects of his Britannic Majesty in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, his Sicilian Majesty promises that they shall have a free and

subjected right to travel, and to reside in the territories and dominions of his said Majesty, subject to the same precautions of police which are practised towards the most favoured nations. They shall be entitled to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of their personal property of every kind and description, by sale, gift, exchange, or will, and in any other way whatever, without the smallest loss or hindrance being given them on that head. They shall not be obliged to pay, under any pretence whatever, other taxes or rates than those which are paid, or that hereafter may be paid, by the most favoured nations in the dominions of his said Sicilian Majesty. They shall be exempt from all arbitrary service, whether by land or sea; their dwellings, warehouses, and every thing belonging appertaining thereto for objects of commerce or residence, shall be respected. They shall not be subjected to any vexatious search or visits. No arbitrary examination or inspection of their books, papers, or accounts, shall be made under the pretence of the supreme authority of the state, but these shall alone be executed by the legal sentence of the competent tribunals. His Sicilian Majesty engages on all these occasions to guarantee to the subjects of his Britannic Majesty who shall reside in his states and dominions, the preservation of their property and personal security, in the same manner as those are guaranteed to his subjects, and to all foreigners belonging to the most favoured and most highly privileged nations.

According to the tenor of the articles 1. and 2. of this treaty, his Sicilian Majesty engages not to annul and void the privileges and exemptions which actually exist in favour of British commerce within his dominions, till the same day, and except by the same act, by which the privileges and exemptions, whatsoever they are, of all other nations, shall be declared null and void within the same.

His Sicilian Majesty promises, from the date when the general abolition of the privileges according to the articles 1, 2, and 5. shall take place, to make a reduction of 10 per cent. upon the amount of the duties payable according to the tariff in force the 1st of January, 1816, upon the total of the merchandise or production of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, her colonies, possessions, and dependencies, imported into the states of his said Sicilian Majesty, according to the tenor of article 4. of the present convention; it being understood that nothing in this article shall be construed to prevent the King of the Two Sicilies from granting, if he shall think proper, the same reduction of duty to other foreign nations.

The subjects of the Ionian Islands shall, in consequence of their being actually under the immediate protection of his Britannic Majesty, enjoy all the advantages which are granted to the commerce and to the subjects of Great Britain by the present treaty; it being well understood that, to prevent all abuses, and to prove its identity, every Ionian vessel shall be furnished with a patent, signed by the Lord High Commissioner or his representative.

The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof exchanged in London, within the space of 6 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEBAGH.

CASTELOICALA.

Separate and Additional Articles.

In order to avoid all doubt respecting the reduction upon the duties in favour of British commerce, which his Sicilian Majesty has promised in the 7th article of the convention signed this day between his Britannic Majesty and his Sicilian Majesty, it is declared, by this present separate and additional article, that by the concession of 10 per cent. of diminution, it is understood that in case the amount of the duty should be 30 per cent. upon the value of the merchandise, the effect of the reduction of 10 per cent. is to reduce the duty from 30 to 18; and so for other cases in proportion. And that for the articles which are not taxed *ad valorem* in the tariff, the reduction of the duty shall be proportionate; that is to say, a deduction of a tenth part upon the amount of the sum payable shall be granted.

The present separate and additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it had been inserted word for word in the convention of this day—it shall be ratified, and the ratification thereof shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEBAGH.

CASTELOICALA.

TURKEY.

Capitulations and Articles of Peace between Great Britain and the Ottoman Empire, as agreed upon, augmented, and altered, at different Periods, and, finally, confirmed by the Treaty of Peace concluded at the Dardanelles, in 1809.

SULTAN MEHEMED,

MAY HE LIVE FOR EVER.

"Let every thing be observed in conformity to these capitulations, and contrary thereto let nothing be done."

1. The English nation and merchants, and all other merchants sailing under the English flag, with their vessels and merchandises of all descriptions, may pass safely by sea, and go and come into our dominions, without any least prejudice or molestation being given to their persons, property, or effects, by any person whatsoever, but they shall be left in the undisturbed enjoyment of their privileges, and be at liberty to attend to their affairs.

2. If any of the English coming into our dominions by land be molested or detained, such persons shall be instantly released, without any further obstruction being given to them.

3. English vessels entering the ports and harbours of our dominions shall and may at all times safely and securely abide and remain therein, and at their free will and pleasure depart therefrom, without any opposition or hindrance from any one.

4. If it shall happen that any of their ships suffer by stress of weather, and not be provided with necessary stores and requisites, they shall be assisted by all who happen to be present, whether the crews of our Imperial ships, or others, both by sea and land.

5. Being come into the ports and harbours of our dominions, they shall and may be at liberty to purchase at their pleasure, with their own money, provisions and all other necessary articles, and to provide themselves with water, without interruption or hindrance from any one.

6. If any of their ships be wrecked upon any of the coasts of our dominions, all boys, eads, governours, commandants, and others our servants, who may be near or present, shall give them all help, protection, and assistance, and restore to them whatsoever goods and effects may be driven ashore; and in the event of any plunder being committed, they shall make diligent search and inquiry to find out the property, which, when recovered, shall be wholly restored by them.

7. The merchants, interpreters, bankers, and others, of the said nation, shall and may, both by sea and land, come into our dominions, and there trade with the most perfect security; and in coming and going, neither they nor their attendants shall receive any the least obstruction, molestation, or injury, either in their persons or property, from the beys, cadis, sea captains, soldiers, and others our slaves.

17. Our ships and galleys, and all other vessels, which may fall in with any English ships in the seas of our dominions, shall not give them any molestation, nor detain them by demanding any thing, but shall show good and mutual friendship the one to the other, without occasioning them any prejudice.

19. If the corsairs or galliots of the Levant be found to have taken any English vessels, or robbed or plundered them of their goods and effects, also if any one shall have forcibly taken any thing from the English, all possible diligence and exertion shall be used and employed for the discovery of the property, and inflicting condign punishment on those who may have committed such depredations; and their ships, goods, and effects, shall be restored to them without delay or intrigue.

21. Duties shall not be demanded or taken of the English, or the merchants sailing under the flag of that nation, on any piastres and sequias they may import into our sacred dominions, or on those they may transport to any other place.

36. English merchants, and all others sailing under their flag, may, freely and unrestrictedly, trade and purchase all sorts of merchandises (prohibited commodities alone excepted), and convey them, either by land or sea, or by way of the river Tanais, to the countries of Muscovy or Russia, and bring huck thence other merchandises into our sacred dominions, for the purposes of traffick, and also transport others to Persia and other conquered countries.

38. Should the ships bound for Constantinople be forced by contrary winds to put into Caffa, or any other place of those parts, and not be disposed to buy or sell any thing, no one shall presume forcibly to take out or seize any part of their merchandise, or give to the ships or crews any molestation, or obstruct the vessels that are bound to those ports.

40. On their ships arriving at any port, and landing their goods, they may, after having paid their duties, safely and securely depart, without experiencing any molestation.

41. English ships bound to Constantinople, Alexandria, Tripoli of Syria, Scanderoon, or other parts of our sacred dominions, shall in future be bound to pay duties, according to custom, on such goods only as they shall, of their own free will, land with a view to sale; and for such merchandises as they shall not discharge, no duty shall be demanded, neither shall the least molestation or hindrance be given to them.

44. English and other merchants navigating under their flag, who trade to Aleppo, shall pay such duties on the silks, brought and laden by them on board their ships, as are paid by the French and Venetians, and not one asper more.

55. The Imperial fleet, galleys, and other vessels, departing from our sacred dominions, and falling in with English ships at sea, shall in no wise molest or detain them, nor take from them any thing whatsoever. English ships shall no longer be liable to any further search, or exaction at sea under colour of search or examination.

70. English ships coming to the ports of Constantinople, Alexandria, Smyrna, Cyprus, and other parts of our sacred dominions, shall pay 300 aspers for anchorage duty, without an asper mora being demanded of them.

72. No molestation shall be given to any of the aforesaid nation buying camlets, mohatra, or program yarn, at Angora, and Beghazar, and desirous of exporting the same from thence, after having paid the duty of 3 per cent, by any demand of customs for the exportation thereof, neither shall one asper more be demanded of them.

75. That it being represented to us that English merchants have been accustomed hitherto to pay no custom or scale duty, either on the silks bought by them at Brusa and Constantinople, or on those which come from Persia and Georgia, and are purchased by them at Smyrna from the Armenians; if such custom or usage really exists, and the same be not prejudicial to the empire, such duty shall not be paid in future.

(N. B.—These capitulations may be found entire in *Hertslet's Treaties*; and in *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. II. pp. 290—311. Appen.)

Treaty between Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, concluded at the Dardanelles, the 5th of January, 1809.

1. From the moment of signing the present treaty, every act of hostility between England and Turkey shall cease.

5. In return for the indulgence and good treatment afforded by the Sublime Porte to English merchants, with respect to their goods and property, as well as in all matters tending to facilitate their commerce, England shall reciprocally extend every indulgence and friendly treatment to the fleet, subjects, and merchants of the Sublime Porte, which may hereafter frequent the dominions of his Britannic Majesty for the purposes of commerce.

6. The last Custom-house tariff established at Constantinople, at the ancient rate of 3 per cent, and particularly the article relating to the interior commerce, shall continue to be observed, as they are at present regulated, and to which England promises to conform.

10. English patents of protection shall not be granted to dependants, or merchants who are subjects of the Sublime Porte, nor shall any passport be delivered to such persons, on the part of ambassadors or consuls, without permission previously obtained from the Sublime Porte.

Done near the Castles of the Dardanelles, the 5th of January, 1809, which corresponds with the year of the Hegira 1223, the 19th day of the Moon Zilkande.

SEYD MEHEMMED ENIN VAHID EFFENDI.
ROBERT ADAIR.

UNITED STATES.

Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and the United States of America, signed at London, the 3d of July, 1815.

Article 1. There shall be between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, and the territories of the United States, a reciprocal liberty of commerce. The inhabitants of the 2 countries respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes in all such places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; and also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and generally the merchants and traders of each nation respectively shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce; but subject always to the laws and statutes of the 2 countries respectively.

2. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, than are or shall be

must necessarily, in the end, be productive of measures that will do more than any thing else to develop the hitherto almost latent, but vast resources of the Austrian empire. The clause as to the navigation of the Danube may have important political consequences, should Russia attempt to throw any obstacles in its way; though we are not certainly of the number of those who think that this is a matter of sufficient importance to British interests for us to involve ourselves in any very serious responsibilities with respect to it. Subjoined is a copy of the treaty.

"In the name of &c. His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, and Her Majesty the Queen of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, animated with a desire to develop, extend, and strengthen the commercial relations between their dominions and possessions, and thereby to afford to their subjects who take a part in those commercial relations every facility and encouragement possible; and convinced that nothing could more conduce to the accomplishment of this desire than to continue the suppression of all inequalities in the tariff of duties which, previous to the conclusion of the convention signed in London on the 31st of December, 1820, were levied in the harbours of one state on the vessels of the other, have appointed plenipotentiaries to conclude a treaty to that effect—namely: &c.—

"Who, after the exchange of their full powers, agreed to, and signed, the following articles:—

"Art. 1. From the date of the ratification of the present treaty, the vessels of the two Powers, on entering and quitting the respective harbours of the two contracting Powers, shall pay no other duties than those to which are subjected or may hereafter be subjected the national vessels of each of the two Powers.

"2. All the productions of the dominions of His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, including those exported to the north by the river Elbe, and to the east by the Danube, and which may be imported into the harbours of Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom, as also all the productions of the soil and manufactures of the kingdom of Great Britain, which may be imported into the harbours of His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, shall enjoy the same privileges and immunities, and *vis versa*.

"3. All the articles which are not the produce of the soil and manufactures of the dominions of the two contracting Powers, but shall be imported in a regular manner from the harbours of Austria into those of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland, Malta, Gibraltar, and other possessions of Her Britannic Majesty, shall be held to pay no other duties than those they would have to discharge if they were imported in English vessels. Her Britannic Majesty grants by the present treaty to the trade and navigation of Austria the advantages secured by the two acts of Parliament of the 25th of August, 1833, to the vessels and productions of the United Kingdom and of its possessions, and those enjoyed by the most favoured nations.

"4. All Austrian vessels proceeding from the harbours of the Danube, as far as Galatz, inclusive, as well as their cargoes, may sail direct for the ports of Great Britain, and of all other the possessions of Her Britannic Majesty, as if they came direct from the harbours of Austria; and, reciprocally, all English vessels, as well as their cargoes, shall be admitted into the Austrian harbours, and depart therefrom, with the same immunities as Austrian vessels.

"5. Whereas English vessels coming direct from other countries may enter Austrian harbours, agreeably to the tenour of the present treaty, without paying any other duties than those to which Austrian vessels are liable, the productions of the soil and industry of those parts of Asia and Africa which are within the Straits of Gibraltar, and which, after being carried in a right line into the ports of Austria, are thence sent in Austrian vessels to the ports of Great Britain, shall enjoy the same advantages as if they had been imported by English vessels into Austrian ports.

"6. All articles of commerce imported or exported into or from the ports of the contracting countries, under the flag of either, whether in British or Austrian bottoms, are to be subjected to the same duties and premiums.

"7. All goods in bond from either country are to be subjected to the same duties on re-exportation.

"8. The Governments of the two states undertake not to inquire into the origin of the products introduced into the ports of either.

"9. With regard to trade with the East Indies in Austrian bottoms, the same privileges are granted by England to Austria as to the most favoured nations, but under the same conditions and legal prescriptions.

"10. The treaty does not apply to coasting navigation and trade between the ports of the same state in vessels belonging to the other of the two contracting states, as far as regards the transport of passengers and goods, because this navigation and trade are reserved to natives of each country respectively.

"11. The vessels and subjects of the contracting Powers, in their trade and navigation, are to enjoy reciprocally all the rights and privileges of the most favoured nations in the ports of either—that is to say, Austria is to have in the United Kingdom and all British possessions the full advantage of the Navigation Act passed 23rd of April, 1833, and of another act of the same date for regulating the trade of the foreign possessions of England, or of any future acts or Orders in Council to the same effect; and England is to have in Austrian ports all advantages insured by treaties to other Powers. The two Powers also bind themselves not to grant any favours and privileges of trade and navigation to the subjects of other Powers which shall not be at the same time granted to Austrian and British subjects reciprocally, either gratuitously or upon equivalent compensation, according to the nature of the privileges so granted to other Powers.

"12. The stipulations contained in the 7th article of the treaty concluded at Paris on the 5th of November, 1815, between the Courts of Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, and Russia, for the trade between the Austrian states and the Ionian Islands, continue in force.

"13. The present treaty, which replaces that of the 31st of December, 1820, between the Austrian and British Governments, is to remain in force until the 31st of December, 1848, and after that time for twelve months from the date when one of the contracting Powers shall signify to the other its intention of limiting the duration of the treaty. At the expiration of such twelve months after the reception of such notice, the treaty is to cease to be of effect.

"14. Done at Vienna, July 3, 1838.

"METTERNICH.
"FREDERICK JAMES LAURIE."

We have great pleasure in directing the attention of our readers to the following treaty. They are aware, as we have elsewhere shown (art. CONSTANTINOPLE), that nothing can be more liberal than the policy of the Turkish government, as to importation. But the freedom of exportation is quite as necessary to the successful prosecution of commerce as that of importation. A country prohibited from selling, that is, from exporting, cannot, how much soever it may be disposed, import, or buy; and hitherto this has been in a great degree

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the case with Turkey. The government has been in the habit of monopolising the trade in
silk and opium; and the exportation of a great many important articles, as corn, copper,
hemp, and flax, &c., has either been wholly prohibited, or sold or jobbed, by the divan or
the pacha of the province to the highest bidder, or some favoured minion. The subjoined
treaty expressly stipulates for the suppression of this wretched system. "The Sublime
Porte" formally engaging "to abolish all monopolies of agricultural produce, or of any
other articles whatsoever, as well as all permits from the local governors, either for the pur-
chase of any article or for its removal from one place to another when purchased;" and all
viziers, or other officers, who may act contrary to such stipulations are to be punished. If
this condition be *bonâ fide* enforced, it will effect one of the most salutary reforms that it
was possible to introduce. We confess, indeed, that we have little, or rather no hope, in the
regeneration or real improvement of Turkey, and should be glad to see her territories occu-
pied by any European power. But still the liberty freely to export will do something for
the inhabitants; and, by opening new markets for their products, will in so far stimulate
their industry, and promote civilisation. The benefits that may grow out of this treaty to
Great Britain and other commercial nations are but trifling compared to those that will
probably result from it to Turkey herself: and it is on this account, indeed, that it is espe-
cially deserving of eulogy. The treaty takes effect from the 1st of March, 1839.

*Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, with
two additional articles therunto annexed.*

Art. 1.—All rights, privileges, and immunities which have been conferred on the subjects or ships of
Great Britain by the existing capitulations and treaties are confirmed now and for ever, except in as
far as they may be specifically altered by the present convention; and it is, moreover, expressly stipu-
lated that all rights, privileges, or immunities which the Sublime Porte now grants, or may here-
after grant, to the ships and subjects of any other foreign power, or which it may suffer the ships and
subjects of any other foreign power to enjoy, shall be equally granted to, and exercised and enjoyed
by, the subjects and ships of Great Britain.

Art. 2.—The subjects of her Britannic Majesty, or their agents, shall be permitted to purchase at all
places in the Ottoman dominions (whether for the purposes of internal trade or exportation) all articles,
without any exception whatsoever, the produce, growth, or manufacture of the said dominions;
and the Sublime Porte formally engages to abolish all monopolies of agricultural produce, or of any
other articles whatsoever, as well as all permits from the local governors, either for the purchase of
any article or for its removal from one place to another when purchased; and any attempt to compel
the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty to receive such permits from the local governors shall be consid-
ered as an infraction of treaties, and the Sublime Porte shall immediately punish with severity any
vizier and other officers who shall have been guilty of such misconduct, and render full justice to British
subjects for all injuries or losses which they may duly prove themselves to have suffered.

Art. 3.—If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased by the British mer-
chant or his agent, for the purpose of selling the same for internal consumption in Turkey, the British
merchant or his agent shall pay, at the purchase and sale of such articles, and in any manner of trade
therein, the same duties that are paid, in similar circumstances, by the most favoured class of Turkish
subjects engaged in the internal trade of Turkey, whether Mussulmans or Rayas.

Art. 4.—If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased for exportation, the
same shall be conveyed by the British merchant or his agent, free of any kind of charge or duty what-
soever, to a convenient place of shipment, on its entry into which it shall be liable to one fixed duty
of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, in lieu of all other interior duties.

Subsequently, on exportation, the duty of 3 per cent., as established and existing at present, shall
remain. But all articles bought in the shipping ports for exportation, and which have already paid
the interior duty at entering into the same, will only pay the 3 per cent. export duty.

Art. 5.—The regulations under which firmans are issued to British merchant vessels for passing the
Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, shall be so framed as to occasion to such vessels the least possible
delay.

Art. 6.—It is agreed by the Turkish government that the regulations established in the present con-
vention shall be general throughout the Turkish empire, whether in Turkey in Europe, in Turkey in
Asia, in Egypt, or other African possessions belonging to the Sublime Porte, and shall be applicable to
all the subjects, whatever their description, of the Ottoman dominions; and the Turkish government
does agree not to object to other foreign powers settling their trade upon the basis of this present
convention.

Art. 7.—It having been the custom of Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, with a view to prevent
all difficulties and delay in estimating the value of articles imported into the Turkish dominions, or
exported therefrom, by British subjects, to appoint, at intervals of fourteen years, a commission of
men well acquainted with the traffic of both countries, who have fixed by a tariff the sum of money
in the coin of the Grand Signior which should be paid as duty on each article; and the term of four-
teen years, during which the last adjustment of the said tariff was to remain in force, having expired,
the said contracting parties have agreed to name conjointly fresh commissioners to fix and determine
the amount in money which is to be paid by British subjects, as the duty of 3 per cent. upon the value
of all commodities imported and exported by them; and the said commissioners shall establish an
equitable arrangement for estimating the interior duties which, by the present treaty, are established
on Turkish goods to be exported, and shall also determine on the places of shipment where it may be
most convenient that such duties should be levied.

The new tariff thus established to be in force for seven years after it has been fixed, at the end of
which time it shall be in the power of either of the parties to demand a revision of that tariff; but if
no such demand be made on either side within the six months after the end of the first seven years,
then the tariff shall remain in force for seven years more, reckoning from the end of the preceding
seven years; and so it shall be at the end of each successive period of seven years.

Art. 8.—The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Con-
stantinople within the space of four months.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed their
seals thereunto.

Done at Balta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 16th day of August, 1839.

FOR BRITAIN.

MUSTAFA RESCHID, &c.

(Signed in the Turkish Original)

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES.

Certain difficulties having arisen between the ambassador of Her Britannic Majesty and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, in fixing the new conditions which should regulate the commerce in British goods imported into the Turkish dominions, or passing through the same in transit, it is agreed between his Excellency the British ambassador and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, that the present convention should receive their signatures, without the articles which have reference to the above-mentioned subjects forming part of the body of the said convention.

But at the same time it is also agreed—the following articles having been consented to by the Turkish government—that they shall be submitted to the approbation of Her Majesty's government, and, should they be approved and accepted by Her Majesty's government, they shall then form an integral part of the treaty now concluded.

The articles in question are the following:—

Art. 1.—All articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and its dependencies, and all merchandises, of whatsoever description, embarked in British vessels, and being the property of British subjects, or being brought overland, or by sea, from other countries by the same, shall be admitted, as heretofore, into all ports of the Ottoman dominions, without exception, on the payment of 3 per cent. duty, calculated upon the value of such articles.

And in lieu of all other and interior duties, whether levied on the purchaser or seller, to which these articles are at present subject, it is agreed that the importer, after receiving his goods, shall pay, if he sells them at the place of reception, or if he send them thence to be sold elsewhere in the interior of the Turkish empire, one fixed duty of 2 per cent.; after which such goods may be sold and resold in the interior, or exported without any further duty whatsoever being levied or demanded on them.

But all goods that have paid the 3 per cent. import duty at one port shall be sent to another free of any further duty, and it is only when sold there, or transmitted thence into the interior, that the second duty shall be paid.

It is always understood that Her Majesty's government do not pretend, either by this article or any other in the present treaty, to stipulate for more than the plain and fair construction of the terms employed; nor to preclude in any manner the Ottoman government from the exercise of its rights of internal administration, where the exercise of those rights does not evidently infringe upon the privileges accorded by ancient treaties, or the present treaty, to British merchandises or British subjects.

Art. 2.—All foreign goods brought into Turkey from other countries shall be freely purchased and traded in, in any manner, by the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, or the agents of the same, at any place in the Ottoman dominions; and if such foreign goods have paid no other duty than the duty paid on importation, then the British subject or his agent shall be able to purchase such foreign goods on paying the extra duty of 2 per cent., which he will have to pay on the sale of his own imported goods, or on their transmission for sale into the interior; and after that such foreign goods shall be resold in the interior, or exported, without further duty; or, should such foreign goods have already paid the amount of the two duties (i. e. the import duty and the one fixed interior duty), then they shall be purchased by the British subject or his agent, and afterwards resold or exported, without being ever submitted to any further duty.

Art. 3.—No charge whatsoever shall be made upon British goods (such being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom or its dependencies, or the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, and charged in British vessels, and belonging to British subjects) passing through the straits of the Dardanelles, of the Bosphorus, and of the Black Sea, whether such goods shall pass through those straits in the ships that brought them, or are transhipped in those straits, or, destined to be sold elsewhere, are landed with a view to their being transferred to other vessels (and thus to proceed on their voyage) within a reasonable time.

All merchandises imported into Turkey for the purposes of being transmitted to other countries, or which, remaining in the hands of the importer, shall be transmitted by him for sale to other countries, shall only pay the duty of 3 per cent. paid on importation, and no other duty whatsoever.

Done at Balta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 10th day of August, 1838.

PONSOMBY.

(Signed in the Turkish original)

MUSTAFA REŞİD, &c.

Official Note delivered to Lord Ponsomby by his Excellency Nourse Effendi, on the 27th of August, 1838, relative to the 2d Article of the preceding Convention.

(Translation.)

It is stipulated by the 2d article of the Treaty of Commerce concluded between the Sublime Porte and the British government on the 25th Djémaszulével, 1254 (August 16, 1838), that English merchants are at liberty to purchase all kinds of merchandises in the Ottoman empire.

But in order that the right of English merchants to sell within the Ottoman empire, or to export, the merchandises which they may purchase, may not be liable to misconception, the embassy of Her Britannic Majesty has desired that an explanation should be given on this point, either in the treaty itself, or in a special note.

The meaning of the passage of which an elucidation is requested is clear, from the relation which the subsequent points in the 2d article bear to each other. But we nevertheless repeat, that English merchants may, in virtue of the treaty, purchase within the Ottoman empire all kinds of merchandises; may, if they think proper, send the same abroad after having paid the duty thereon stipulated by the treaty, or may, if they think fit, resell the same within the Ottoman empire on conforming to the arrangements established by the said treaty with reference to internal commerce.

Such are the arrangements of the treaty; and we give this explanation to the ambassador, referring to his Excellency the assurances of our sincere and perfect friendship.

The 7th Djémaszul-akir, 1254 (August 27, 1838).

[For the commercial treaties between the United States and other nations, the reader is referred to *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*. In all these treaties the government of the Union has acted on the most liberal principles. It has aimed to place its commerce with other countries, on the basis of an entire reciprocity, asking from others such privileges only as it was willing in its turn to grant to them; and it has uniformly endeavoured to observe as strict an impartiality, in reference to them, as was consistent with a proper regard for its own dignity.—*Am. Ed.*]

TREBISOND, anciently Trapezus, from its resemblance to a trapezium, a town of Asia Minor, on the south-east coast of the Black Sea, lat. 40° 1' N., lon. 39° 44' 52" E. Population variously estimated at from 15,000 to 30,000. The town is built on the declivity of a hill rising gently from the sea. It is a place of great antiquity; and, from the year

1293 to the final subversion of the Eastern empire by Mohammed II, in the 15th century, was the seat of a dukedom, or, as it was sometimes called, an empire, comprising the country between the Phasis and the Halys. Its fortifications are still of considerable strength, at least for a Turkish city. The space included within the walls is of great extent; but it is principally filled with gardens and groves. The houses are mean in their outward appearance, and comfortless within.—(Tournfort, *Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. pp. 231—239; *Leont's Journey through Asia Minor*, &c. p. 338.)

Harbour.—Trebusond has two ports, one on the W. and one on the E. side of a small peninsula, or point of land, projecting a short way into the sea. That on the east is the best sheltered, and is the place of anchorage for the largest ships. It is, however, exposed to all but the southerly gales; but it does not appear, that, with ordinary precaution, any danger need be apprehended. The ground, from a mile E. from the point, is clean, and holds extremely well. Ships moor with open haws to the N., and a good hawser and stream anchor on shore, as a stern-fast. At night, the wind always comes off the land. Captain Middleton says that the only bad weather is from the N. W.; but that, though the swell be considerable, it does not cause any heavy strain upon the cables.—(*Nautical Magazine*, vol. ii. p. 181.)—At Platana, near Trebusond, and quite as exposed, Turkish vessels have from time immemorial rode in safety the whole winter; a satisfactory proof that the dangers supposed to be incident to the roads along the coast are wholly visionary.—(*Ibid.* p. 244.)

Navigations of the Black Sea.—We are happy to have this opportunity to state that Captain Middleton, who has been repeatedly in the Black Sea, agrees entirely with Tournfort—(see *ant.* p. 251.)—as to the groundlessness of the notions that have got abroad of its navigation being peculiarly dangerous. It shows that the "thick weather," supposed to prevail in this sea, is "quite imaginary."—There are fogs in it occasionally, but the *severest* last long; and, like fogs every where else, are unaccompanied by much wind. Unless sometimes occur, but they rarely amount to storms, and their duration is short. Except on its northern coast, it has deep water all over. It may, in fact, be considered a sea almost without a hidden danger. The only difficulty attaching to its navigation consists, as formerly asserted (*ant.* p. 251.), in making the Bosphorus. But this, also, has been much exaggerated; and ships able to keep out to sea, and properly navigated, quit it without encountering any considerable risk.—(For further particulars as to this interesting subject, the reader is referred to Captain Middleton's paper in the 3d volume of the *Nautical Magazine*,—a useful and excellent publication, well entitled to the public patronage.)

Trade.—In antiquity, and in more modern times, previously to the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, and the exclusion of all foreign vessels from the Black Sea, Trebusond was the seat of an extensive trade. Any one, indeed, who casts his eye over the map of Asia, must be satisfied that this city is the natural emporium of all the countries to the S. E. of the Black Sea, from Kars on the east, beyond Diarbeker to Amasia, on the west. Erzerum, the principal city of Armenia, is only about 30 miles S. E. from Trebusond. Its merchants are distinguished by their superior attainments, and by their enterprise and activity. For a lengthened period, they have derived most part of their supplies of European commodities by way of Smyrna or Constantinople; nothing, however, but the impossibility of obtaining them at so convenient a port as Trebusond, could have made them resort to so distant markets as those now mentioned; and it may well excite surprise, considering the period long which the Black Sea has been open, that efforts were not sooner made to establish an intercourse with Armenia, Georgia, and the north-western parts of Persia, through this channel. We are glad, however, to have to state, that within these few years this has been done; and notwithstanding the difficulties that necessarily attach to every attempt to open new channels of commerce with semi-civilized nations, the experiment has proved more than ordinarily successful.

The policy of Russia has recently, also, given to Trebusond an importance it did not formerly possess. Previously to 1831, foreign commodities were admitted at the low duty of 5 per cent. into the Russian port of Redoutkalé, and others on the coast of Mingrelia, whence they were distributed over Georgia, and as far as Persia. But a ukase, issued at the epoch referred to, put an end to all the immunities with respect to duties enjoyed by the Russian provinces to the south of Mount Caucasus, and extended to them the same customs' regulations that obtain in the other parts of the empire. Considerable difficulties are, it is true, made from the duties charged on certain articles imported into these provinces, provided they are carried in the first instance to Odessa, and there reshipped for Mingrelia; but those that go direct to the latter are subject to the same duties and conditions as if they went to Petersburg or Riga. Printed cottons, and some other important articles, are in all cases prohibited.

The opening of a port on the S. E. extremity of the Black Sea, to which goods might be sent direct from Europe, and be thence conveyed to Armenia, Persia, &c., has, under these circumstances, become the object of a good deal of interest to the commercial world. There can be no doubt, indeed, did any thing like order or regular government prevail in the Turkish provinces of Asia Minor, Armenia, &c., that Trebusond would speedily become a considerable emporium. At present, however, and for a long time back, these beautiful provinces, in common with most other parts of the Turkish empire, have been in a state of extreme disorder; and, owing to the imbecility and ignorance of the government, there seems but little prospect of improvement so long as it is suffered to exist.

The principal articles of import are manufactured cottons, mostly from Great Britain, sugar, coffee, iron, salt, tin, wine, &c. Cottons are sold at long credits; sugar, coffee, &c. are sold at shorter credits, and are more regularly paid. The exports consist of silk, sheep's wool, tobacco, shawls, and carpets, &c. and drugs of various sorts, box wood, nuts, &c. There are very rich copper mines in the mountains to the south of Trebusond; but they are but little wrought; and the Turks are so blind to their own interests, as to prohibit the exportation of copper, as well as of corn, and wax. It is difficult, therefore, to obtain return cargoes. More than half the articles imported, are destined for Persia. In 1832, no fewer than 9,189 packages passed through Trebusond for Tabreez; and it is believed, that of these, fully 8,000 consisted of British manufactures.

Arms, Weights, and Measures, same as at Constantinople; which see.
Arrivals.—In 1832, there arrived at Trebusond, 6 ships under the British flag, of the burden of 718 tons.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 756. Sess. 1833.)—During the same year, there arrived 19 foreign vessels, of the burden of 3,433 tons; of these, 10 were Austrian; 5 Sardinian; and 4 Russian. The total imports may, perhaps, be valued at about 300,000*l.* The exports are comparatively trifling.

Transit Trade with Persia.—We noticed, under the article TAKRISOON, in the *December*, the importance that the trade with this place was likely to attain from its becoming a channel through which to carry on trade with Persia. Previously to the 1st of January, 1832, the trade between Europe and Persia, by way of the Black Sea, principally centered in the Russian port of Redout Kalé, at the mouth of the Phasis. This was a consequence of the exemption granted in 1822 to the Russian provinces to the south of the Caucasus from the duties charged in the other parts of the empire. But the exemption having ceased

at the period referred to, and the Trans-Caucasian provinces having been subjected to the same duties as the other provinces, the transit trade to Persia by way of Redout Kalé, Tefflis, Erzeroum, and Tabreez. In consequence, the increase of trade at Trebisond has been very remarkable. In 1830, about 5,000 packages, valued at 250,000*L.*, were imported and forwarded for Persia; in 1834 about 12,000 packages, valued at 600,000*L.*, were so received and forwarded; and in 1835 the number of packages had increased to 19,327, valued at 966,350*L.* We subjoin a

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Value of their Cargoes, and distinguishing the Countries to which the same belonged, which entered and cleared at the Port of Trebisond in the Year 1835.—(Consular Returns.)

Countries.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
British	16	1,918	164,200	17	1,851	<i>L.</i> 30,167
Turkish	119	16,844	618,398	108	15,212	604,864
Russian	16	2,061	167,439	14	2,375	34,084
Austrian	11	2,309	64,018	11	2,329	2,315
Greek	6	918	3,161	6	912	1,723
Sardinian	6	881	4,184	6	881	16,777
Sardinian	1	118	16,540	1	112	112
Total	170	96,444	1,611,638	156	94,572	690,320

Most of the vessels from Constantinople had on board British produce; and it is believed that from 7-10ths to 9-10ths of the goods imported to be forwarded to Persia are of British origin, consisting principally of cotton goods, woollen, hardware, tin, sugar, &c. Previously to 1831 no British iron had ever been seen at Trebisond; but it was then introduced, and is now imported, to the exclusion of all other sorts. M. de Hagemeister admits that it has entirely superseded the iron of Russia in this and other markets on the southern side of the Black Sea.—(Report on the Commerce of the Black Sea, p. 207.)

In Persia, as in almost all Eastern countries, foreign products are admitted, on paying a low duty. Lately, however, the schah has evinced a disposition to restrict the importation of English goods, and to load them with heavier duties. This conduct, so unusual in an Eastern prince, may, it is probable, have been suggested by the foreign agents at his court.

Direct Trade with Trebisond.—The transit trade of Trebisond is by far the most important; but, as the goods destined for Persia by this channel are cleared out for Turkey, they appear in the list of exports to it, and, consequently, make our trade with Turkey appear much greater than it really amounts to.

The trade with Trebisond itself is, however, far from inconsiderable, and might be indefinitely extended. The iron of Great Britain is now, as stated above, imported to the exclusion of that of Russia, which was formerly the only sort made use of. Considerable quantities of cotton yarn are also supplied through Trebisond to the looms in the eastern part of Asia Minor that used to be wholly supplied with native yarn, and a taste for British cottons is beginning to spread among the population.

We carry away from Trebisond Persian silk, wool, tobacco, wax, opium, boxwood, nuts, &c. But, owing to the restrictions on exportation, the trade has hitherto laboured under many difficulties; and numbers of ships have sailed in ballast for Odessa, Galacs, and other ports where they load.

A Statement of the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels, with the Nature and Value of their Cargoes, which entered and cleared at the Port of Trebisond, distinguishing the Ports to and from which the same sailed in the Year 1835.

Ports.	Entered.						Cleared.						
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Val. of Cargoes.	Nature of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Val. of Cargoes.	Nature of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Val. of Cargoes.	Nature of Cargoes.	
London	3	430	<i>L.</i> 6,350	<i>L.</i> 96,900	Colonial prod., iron, cottons, woollens.	Cottons and Woollens.	British &c.	Do.	1	118	1,302	2,478	Do.
Constantinople	12*	1,173	15,325	67,981	Iron, sugar, hemp, beer, oil, silical prod., British manufactures.	Do.	Do.	Do.	19*	1,173	26,187	Do.	Boxwood, galls, tinseed, galls, tobacco, wax, silk, copper, beans, wool, &c. 1 in ballast.
London and Constantinople	1	118	7,368	3,167	Colonial prod., British manufactures.	Do.	Do.	Do.	1	118	1,302	2,478	Galls, yellow berries, silk, carpets.
Liverpool & Constantinople	1	100	3,104	15,000	Iron, sugar, spirits, British manufactures.	Do.	Do.	Do.	1	100	-	-	Do.
Bilgoron	1	100	800	-	Boxwood	Do.	Do.	Do.	1	100	-	-	In ballast.
Bilgoron	1	100	-	-	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	1	100	-	-	Do.
Tagnary	1	-	-	-	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	1	918	800	-	1 in ballast, part of imported cargo, salt, and oil.
Totals	18	1,916	22,228	123,028					17	1,851	27,699	2,478	

* Note.—In these numbers are included 6 entries and 7 clearances of one vessel of 64 tons burden.

• We have elsewhere referred (art. ODessa) to this valuable publication. Though in the review of Russia, the author has not scrupled to point out errors in her policy & has justly censured the extension of the tariff to the Trans-Caucasian provinces in 1833.—(Sup.)

TRIESTE, a large city and sea-port of the Austrian dominions, the capital of a district of Illyria, situated near the N. E. extremity of the Gulf of Venice, lat. 45° 38' 37" N., lon. 13° 46' 27" E. Population 48,000. It is divided into the old and new towns. The former is built upon elevated ground; the latter, which is lower down, is laid out with greater regularity, and is partly intersected by a canal, into which vessels not drawing more than 9 or 10 feet water enter to load and unload.

Harbour.—The harbour of Trieste, though rather limited in size, is easy of access and convenient. It is protected from southerly gales by the *Molo Teresiano*, so called from the Empress Maria Theresa, at the extremity of which the new light-house, mentioned below, has been constructed. The port, with the mole, forms a crescent 14 mile in length, being a continued quay, faced with hewn stones, with stairs and jetties for the convenience of embarkation. On the north side of the port is a dock or harbour, appointed exclusively for vessels performing quarantine. It is walled round, and is furnished with boats, warehouses, and every sort of accommodation required for the use of passengers and goods. Ships under 300 tons burden lie close to the quays; those of greater size mooring a little further out. The principal defects of the port are, its limited size, and its being exposed to the N. W. winds, which sometimes blow with much violence, and throw in a heavy sea. The gales, however, are seldom of long continuance; and the holding ground being good, when the anchors are backed and proper precautions taken, no accidents occur. The tide at Trieste is scarcely perceptible; but the depth of water is influenced by the wind, being increased by a long continued sirocco or S. E. wind, and diminished by the prevalence of the E. N. E. wind, known by the name of *Bora*. The access to the port is not obstructed by any bar or shallow; and there is good anchorage in the roads, in from 6 to 8 and 10 fathoms water. A good sailing vessel may beat in by night or by day, except it blow hard from the N. E. or E. N. E., when she had better anchor in the Bay of Roses, or Pirano, where she will ride in perfect safety.

Pilots.—Ships bound for Trieste are under no obligation to take pilots; but those entering the port for the first time would do well to take one on making the coast of Istria. Boats are always hovering off Koiolino; they are not manned by regular pilots, but by fishermen, who, though unfit to be trusted with the management of the ship, know the bearings of the places and the depth of water. The fee usually paid them for piloting is 20 dollars; in addition to which, they are supported at the ship's expense during the performance of quarantine.

Light-houses.—The light-house at the extremity of the Theresian mole is 106 feet (Eng.) high. The light is intermittent; and may be seen, supposing the eye of the observer to be elevated 15 feet above the level of the sea, about 12 nautical miles, or from Pirano on the side of Istria, and the shoals of Gado on the Italian coast. A light-house has also been erected on the point of Salvora, bearing from Trieste W. by S., distant about 18 miles. The lantern is elevated about 103 feet above the level of the sea. From this point Pirano Bay opens, where vessels may anchor in all sorts of weather.

Trade.—Trieste has no command of internal navigation; but being the most convenient, or rather the only sea-port, not merely of the Illyrian provinces, but of the duchy of Austria, and the greater part of Hungary, she possesses an extensive commerce. This has been increased by the facilities afforded to all sorts of mercantile transactions by the privilege of *porta franco* conferred on the town, and a considerable extent of contiguous country. Under this franchise, all goods, with but very few exceptions, may be imported into and exported from the city free of all duties whatever. Foreign products, when taken for consumption into the interior, are subject to the duties mentioned under the head *Tariff*, in a subsequent part of this article.

Exports.—These are very various, consisting partly of the raw, and partly of the manufactured products of Austria Proper, Illyria, Dalmatia, Hungary, and Italy; with foreign articles imported and re-exported. Among the principal articles of raw produce may be specified, corn, chiefly wheat and maize, with rice, wine, oil, shumac, tobacco, wax, &c.; silk, silk rags and waste, hemp, wool, flax, linen rags, hides, furs, skins, &c.; the produce of the mines makes an important item, consisting of quicksilver, cinabar, iron, lead, copper, brass, litharge, alum, vitriol, &c.; the forests of Carniola furnish timber, for ship building and other purposes, of excellent quality and in great abundance, with staves, cork wood, box, hoops, &c.; marble also ranks under this head. Of manufactured articles, the most important are, thrown silk, silk stuffs, printed cottons from Austria and Switzerland, coarse and fine linens, and all sorts of leather; under this head are also ranked soap, Venetian treacle, laceras, &c. with jewellery, tools and utensils of all sorts, glass ware and mirrors, Venetian beads, refined sugar, and a host of other articles. Of foreign articles imported and reshipped, the most important are sugar, coffee, and dye stuffs. Trieste is also a considerable depot for all sorts of produce from the Black Sea, Turkey, and Egypt.

It is not possible to obtain any accurate account of the quantity and value of the exports; but Mr. Money, the British consul, who has carefully inquired into the subject, supposes that they may amount in all, exclusive of those shipped for Venice, Fiume, and other Austrian ports, to about 1,000,000*l.* a year, which he divides as follows:—

Raw Produce, viz.—Grain, rice, oil, honey, wax, shumac, tobacco, &c.	350,000
Silk, hemp, wool, rags, hides and skins	360,500
Metals, mineral and other products; as, quicksilver, iron, lead, copper, brass, zinc, litharge, argol, antimony, arsenic, alum, vitriol, potash, turpentine, marbles, &c.	230,000
Timber, plank, boards, &c.	160,000
Manufactures of silk, cotton, wool, linen, leather, &c.	235,000
Soap, candles, Venetian treacle, and medicines	80,000
Tools, machinery, arms, &c.	25,000
Household furniture, musical instruments, glass and glass wares, porcelain, &c.	20,000
Foreign Articles reshipped for exportation, exclusive of those for Lombardy and the Papal States	300,000
Total	£1,800,000

Mr. Money further supposes that these articles are distributed amongst the countries trading with Trieste, as follows:—

To Turkey and the Levant	380,000
Egypt	300,000
Greece, the Ionian Islands, and Malta	150,000
the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies	35,000
Porte in France, Sardinia, and Tuscany	100,000
Spain, Portugal, and Barbary	120,000
Great Britain	230,000
Porte in the North of Germany	150,000
the United States of America	30,000
South America and the West Indies	20,000
Total exports	£1,800,000

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Clears.	
Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
1,851	50,707
15,219	601,554
2,275	34,084
2,229	2,213
919	7,213
881	19,777
112	
54,572	690,530

and it is believed that from
of British origin, consisting
ly to 1831 no British iron had
imported, to the exclusion of
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the Ports to and from which

Clears.	
Cargoes.	Nature of Cargoes.
To Trieste to England.	In direct Trade.
To Trieste to England.	In Transit to England.
2,478	Boxwood, nuts, linseed, galls, tobacco, wax, silk, copper, bones, wool, &c. 1 in ballast.
2,478	Galls, yellow berries, silk, carpels.
	Boxwood, sulphur, ash, silk, galls.
	In ballast.
	Ditto.
	1 in ballast, part of imported cargo, ballast and oil.
2,478	

total of 84 tons burden.

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ley; and has justly censur-
ed.

Perhaps these estimates are a little below the mark. We have been assured by high mercantile authority, that the entire value of the exports from Trieste to foreign countries is not under 2,000,000 a year.

Imports.—There is a great difference between the imports into and the exports from Trieste; the value of the former being certainly not less than 4,000,000 sterling. The excess of imports is explained partly by the fact that large quantities of foreign goods imported into Trieste are subsequently re-shipped by coasting vessels to Venice, Fiume, and other ports, partly by the residence of English and other foreigners at Vienna, and partly by there being an excess of exports as compared with imports from other parts of the empire. The great articles of import are sugar, cotton goods and raw cotton, oil, coffee, wheat, silks, indigo and other dry stuffs, valonia, &c. The following Table contains all the information that can be desired as to the import trade of Trieste in 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Statement of the Quantity and Value, in British Money, Weights, and Measures, of the principal Articles imported into Trieste during each of the Three Years ending with 1831, specifying the Quantity and Value of those furnished by each Country.

Countries from which imported.	Articles.	1829.		1830.		1831.	
		English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.
Great Britain.	Coffee	cwt.	30,360	£	98,280	£	12,290
	Sugar	—	72,776	108,868	82,908	129,640	76,564
	Spices	gallons	4,200	15,200	—	—	41,200
	Indigo	lbs.	65,000	24,170	—	17,450	—
	Drugs	—	18,000	18,120	70,000	25,200	62,300
	Tin	cwt.	4,000	8,000	—	—	18,000
	Tin	—	—	32,877	—	7,500	33,000
	Cotton goods	—	—	845,000	—	481,000	—
	Woolen goods	—	—	1,100	—	15,200	—
	Hardware	packages	180	6,000	135	7,750	110
America, U. S.	Barbenware	—	809	3,000	850	5,800	180
	Coffee	cwt.	28,731	73,600	51,527	92,885	68,380
	Sugar	—	143,578	219,368	185,284	269,280	153,000
	Cotton	—	26,880	50,200	32,750	30,800	88,400
	Rum	gallons	40,000	4,000	46,800	5,000	42,100
Brazil.	Tin	lbs.	11,000	1,600	700	85	—
	Sugar	cwt.	148,620	228,418	108,700	281,250	161,220
	Coffee	—	48,260	25,510	78,290	163,148	36,200
	Indigo	—	—	—	—	86,100	—
West Indies.	Dyeing woods	cwt.	62,878	28,508	94,064	14,770	45,842
	Drugs	—	71,123	44,000	81,600	61,000	—
	Sugar	cwt.	18,200	125,000	31,400	178,000	—
	Coffee	—	19,200	30,200	31,200	44,250	10,200
	Pimento	gallons	1,743	5,770	1,578	4,110	1,650
Levant.	Macjee	cwt.	6,850	550	4,000	700	6,500
	Cotton	cwt.	22,790	20,800	36,980	106,850	54,310
	Curran	—	25,000	61,250	161,500	125,400	90,800
	Gum	—	5,000	35,700	5,918	29,010	6,200
	Furs	skins	30,000	8,000	78,000	700	106,000
Black Sea.	Galls	cwt.	4,480	14,080	7,718	20,430	7,538
	Violain	—	60,000	40,000	300,000	44,000	150,000
	Wax	—	5,000	25,000	5,000	30,000	5,500
	Wheat	quarters	24,015	24,254	108,178	107,190	118,100
	Cotton	—	16,285	44,250	17,010	55,400	28,250
Egypt.	Gum	quarters	65,000	70,400	65,000	78,000	43,000
	Faba	—	20,000	80,000	45,000	80,000	30,000
	Seed	cwt.	60,000	81,000	18,000	23,000	12,000
	Macjee	cwt.	1,158	1,784	6,668	11,110	5,800
Sicily.	Fruita	—	10,000	—	12,000	—	500
	Oil	tuns	6,700	207,000	8,900	308,000	6,700
Naples.	Cotton	cwt.	500	2,000	550	2,250	600
	Fruita	—	—	1,000	—	1,500	—
Main.	Hemp	cwt.	30,000	36,000	39,000	42,000	30,000
	Rice	—	48,000	36,000	31,000	41,000	54,000
Italy.	Silk, raw	—	4,000	11,000	8,000	34,000	3,000
	Codfish	—	47,000	24,000	60,000	40,000	20,000
Sweden.	Wines	—	—	2,000	—	—	2,000
	Silks	—	—	100,000	—	120,000	—
France.	Lead	cwt.	18,000	15,000	14,000	8,200	7,000
	Fruita	—	—	6,000	—	8,000	—
Spain.	Sugar	cwt.	25,000	27,000	25,000	110,000	60,000
	Coffee	—	15,000	26,000	18,000	25,000	14,000
Portugal.	Cocoa	—	2,500	2,100	3,200	4,600	6,000
	Pepper	—	8,000	8,500	—	—	10,800
Sonntra.	Oil	tuns	1,600	60,800	2,500	78,000	1,100
	Wax	cwt.	2,500	17,500	3,000	18,000	2,500
Greece.	Figs	—	—	3,000	—	8,500	—
	Currants	cwt.	42,500	20,110	18,500	18,000	37,000

Money.—Mercantile accounts are usually kept at Trieste in what is commonly called *continental* money, from an agreement entered into with respect to it by some of the German princes, in 1763. The current coins that are legal tender are dollars, $\frac{1}{2}$ dollar or forin, and zwanzigers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers. Ten dollars are coined out of the Cologne marc (3,608 gr. Eng.) of pure silver, so that the value of the dollar is 4s. 3d. sterling.

The forin, or $\frac{1}{2}$ dollar = 2s. 1d. sterling; zwanzigers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers (60 to the marc), = 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling. Hence it follows that 1s. sterling = 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ kreutzers (60 to a forin); and the pound sterling = 9 fl. 24 kr., or, as it is commonly taken, 9 fl. 25 kr. All contracts are either expressly declared, or are understood, to be in silver money; gold coins, not being legal tender, pass only as merchandise.

Weights and Measures.—Those chiefly in use at Trieste are those of Vienna and Venice. The commercial pound contains 4 quarters, 16 ounces, or 32 loths: it is = 8,639 English grains. Thus, 100 lbs. at Trieste = 123 lb. avoirdupois; or 90 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of Trieste = 112 lbs. avoirdupois.

The principal dry measure is the stajo or storo = 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ Winch. bushels. The Vienna metzen, which is sometimes used, = 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Winch. bushel. The polonick = 0.861 Winch. bushel.

The principal liquid measure is the orna or elmer = 40 boccali = 15 wine or 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ Imperial gallons very nearly. The barite = 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ English wine gallons.

The orna of oil contains 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ cafiat, and weighs about 107 commercial pounds. It is = 17 wine or 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ Imperial gallons.

The oil woolen measure = 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ English inches. The oil for silk = 25 $\frac{1}{2}$ English inches.

Tariff.—Trieste being a free port, goods destined for its consumption, and that of the adjoining territory, by duties whatever, and are exported and imported without notice by the customs. Goods brought from the interior for export at Trieste, are charged an export duty on passing the Customs-house line. Goods imported at Trieste, to be conveyed through the Austrian dominions to those of any other power, are charged a small transit duty. The principal foreign goods taken for consumption in the interior of the empire, pay the duties specified in the subjoined Table.

Statement of the Customs' Duties on the principal Articles imported from Trieste into the Interior of the Austrian Empire.

Articles.		Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.	Articles.		Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.
		Fl. Kr.	L. s. d.			Fl. Kr.	L. s. d.
Almonds, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna (equal to 123 1-8 lbs. avoirdupois)		6 6	0 12 0	Oats, for every 100 lbs. wt. of Vienna		0 11	0 0 4-4
Amalgam, do.		1 15	0 3 6	Oil, olive, do.		4 0	0 8 0
Barley, do.		0 15	0 0 0	Pepper and pimento, do.		80 0	8 0 0
Beans, French, do.		0 13 1-8	0 0 4-4	Raisins and currants, do.		4 0	0 8 0
Bismuth, for every lb. weight of Vienna		10 0	1 0 0	Rice, do.		0 54	0 1 0 6-6
Cann. do.		0 18	0 0 8-8	Rum, do.		13 21	1 8 8-4
Cassia, do.		1 30	0 3 0	Sax, do.		0 18	0 0 6-4
Cocoa, do.		0 18	0 0 8-8	Siam, do.		0 8	0 0 3-8
Coffee, do.		1 3	0 2 1-8	Soda, do.		0 11	0 0 4-1-8
Gold and silver, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		5 0	0 4 0	Spirits, do.		8 0	0 16 0
Corn, do.		21 0	2 2 0	Sugar, refined, crushed, and raw, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		31 0	3 2 0
Cotton, do.		0 20	0 0 0	Sugar, raw, white, for the use of the refineries in the interior, do.		14 0	1 2 0
Cross road, do.		5 30	0 5 6-4	Sugar, other qualities for same use, do.		7 0	0 14 0
Cupress, do.		1 10	0 2 4-8	Sulphur, do.		2 26	0 4 0 6-6
Frankincense, do.		0 48	0 16 0	Tin, do.		0 54	0 1 0 6-6
Gum, do.		0 25	0 1 8-8	Tin, do.		4 30	0 9 0
Gum, medicinal, do.		0 30	0 13 0	Twine, made, to No. 30, inclusive, do.		81 0	8 8 0
Herbs, do.		0 48	0 1 7-8	Wax, to No. 12, do.		80 0	6 0 0
Iron, do.		0 12	0 0 4-8	Wax, white, above those numbers respectively, do.		30 0	2 0 0
Iron, for every hide		0 6 1-8	8 0 2-8	Wax, yellow, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 3 1-8	0 0 1-4
Lapis, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		7 30	0 15 0	Wax, yellow, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		8 0	0 10 0
Lard, do.		0 18	0 0 7-8	Wax, white, do.		12 0	1 4 0
Linen, do.		0 8	0 0 8	Wheat, do.		0 2 1 8	0 0 4-8
Liquorice, do.		0 30	0 0 8	Woods, dyeing, do.		0 18	0 0 4-8
Malabar root, do.		0 17	0 0 8-8	Wool, do.		0 30	0 1 0
Mace, do.		1 18	0 3 4-8				
Madder, do.		0 30	0 1 4				

N.B.—It is observable, that in Austria almost all articles (except such as are rated as *culorum*) are charged by weight, including even grain, and liquors, wine, oil, spirits, &c.

Tariff of the Customs Duties on the principal Articles brought from the Interior of the Austrian Empire to Trieste for Shipment.

Articles.		Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.	Articles.		Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.
		Fl. Kr.	L. s. d.			Fl. Kr.	L. s. d.
Alm. for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 4 1-8	0 0 1-8	Musical instruments, for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0-1
Amalgam, do.		0 1 1-8	0 0 1	Oats, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 10 1-8	0 0 2-2
Asp. do.		0 2 1-8	0 0 0 9	Pitch and tar, do.		0 4 1-8	0 0 1-2
Iron nails, for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1	Potash, do.		0 18	0 0 7-8
Amalg. for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 0 1-4	0 0 2-3	Quicksilver, do.		0 37 1-2	0 1 2 0
Barley, do.		0 0 1-8	0 0 0 2	Rice, do.		0 2 1-4	0 0 0 9
Beans, do.		0 0 1-8	0 0 7-8	Rye, do.		0 0 3-4	0 0 0 3
Cashmere, do.		0 43 3-4	0 1 8 1-3	Siam, do.		0 1 1-8	0 0 0 6
Clock watches, &c. for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1	Silk, raw, do.		45 0	4 10 0
Copper, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 30	0 1 0	Silk, thrown, do.		22 30	2 5 0
Crossroad, do.		0 4 1-4	0 0 1-7	Silk, &c. for every lb. weight of Vienna		0 1 1-3	0 0 0 5-8
Cotton manufactures, for every lb. weight of Vienna		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1	Skins, lamb and kid, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		2 37 1-2	0 7 3
Cutlery, for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1	Staves, pipe, &c. for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1
Fine, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 0	0 0 3-4	Sugar, refined, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 16 3-4	0 0 7 1-8
Fish, dried, do.		0 1 1-8	0 0 0 6	Timber, ship, for every florin value		0 2	0 0 1-2
Glass ware, do.		0 4	0 0 1-8	other sorts		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 2
Do crystal and mirrors, for every florin value		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1	Vitriol, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 7	0 0 0 6
Hemp, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 8	0 0 2	Wax, do.		0 30	0 1 0
Iron, sawtooth, do.		0 1 3-4	0 0 0 7	Wheat, do.		0 1	0 0 0 4
Iron, tools, &c., do.		0 0	0 0 3	Wine, common, do.		0 2	0 0 0 8
Lard, do.		0 2 3-4	0 0 1 1	Woods, rose, olive, do.		0 6 1-4	0 0 8 1-3
Linen manufactures, table linen, &c. for every lb. Vienna		0 0 1-8	0 0 0 0 6	box, do.		0 3 3-4	0 0 1 1-8
Liquor, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna		0 0 1-8	0 0 2 6	Wool, do.		1 0	0 0 2 0
Lux, do.		0 25	0 0 10				
Mace, do.		0 0 3-4	0 0 0 3				
Madder, do.		0 0 1-4	0 0 0 1				

N.B.—Trieste being without the line of customs, these duties on exportation are payable on goods entering the territory or liberties of the port, whether for consumption or for exportation by sea. The duties on raw and thrown silk are tantamount to a prohibition.

Gunpowder, salt, and tobacco, being articles monopolised by government, are not allowed to be imported into Trieste except for sale to the government or its contractors. Vessels arriving with gunpowder on board, deliver it at the arsenal, and on their clearing out it is returned to them free of expense. The utmost vigilance is exerted to prevent the introduction of tobacco; but with very little effect. The only articles, the exportation of which from the Austrian dominions is at present prohibited, are gold and silver in bars, and silk cocoons.

Smuggling.—In consequence of the prohibition of tobacco, and of the high duties imposed on refined sugar, coffee, &c., these articles are very extensively smuggled into the Austrian dominions. Most part, too, of the cotton goods sent from this country to Trieste and Venice, are sold to smugglers, by whom they are introduced into the interior with very little difficulty. It would be absurd, indeed, to suppose, seeing the extent to which smuggling is practised in England and France—(see ante, p. 516.)—that it should not be in a flourishing condition in Austria, whose frontier is so much more difficult to guard. It is, in fact, carried on to a very great extent; prohibited and overtaxed goods being introduced with the greatest regularity, either by defeating the vigilance of the officers, or, which is said to be the more common case, by making them parties to, and gainers by, the fraud. The transit of

assured by high mercantile...
...is not under 2,000,000...
...exports from Trieste...
...the residence of English...
...as compared with imports...
...following Table contains all...
...1850, 1851, and 1851—

Year	English Weight Measure	Quantity	Value Sterling
1848	...	12,990	26,470
1849	...	78,504	96,378
1850	...	41,000	51,110
1851	...	82,300	13,500
1852	...	19,000	17,818
1853	...	3,600	15,700
1854	...	110	1,400
1855	...	180	3,160
1856	...	153,000	18,350
1857	...	33,080	16,108
1858	...	42,180	5,230
1859	...	3,000	300
1860	...	181,220	97,120
1861	...	36,780	9,620
1862	...	45,840	7,700
1863	...	66,204	9,300
1864	...	10,792	9,340
1865	...	1,470	3,380
1866	...	6,100	1,100
1867	...	54,310	15,010
1868	...	8,448	26,120
1869	...	108,000	10,500
1870	...	7,538	18,280
1871	...	130,000	40,000
1872	...	5,500	2,910
1873	...	113,100	18,900
1874	...	38,250	89,124
1875	...	49,000	6,000
1876	...	30,700	36,000
1877	...	12,000	21,700
1878	...	5,800	4,900
1879	...	6,700	234,000
1880	...	900	1,900
1881	...	30,000	55,800
1882	...	54,000	42,000
1883	...	9,000	40,000
1884	...	30,000	12,000
1885	...	7,000	4,100
1886	...	60,000	9,000
1887	...	11,000	23,400
1888	...	9,000	5,800
1889	...	10,200	15,000
1890	...	1,100	33,000
1891	...	5,500	16,000
1892	...	37,000	24,000

commonly called...
...the German princes, in Fick...
...and swansgers, or pieces of...
...of pure silver, so that...
...krentzers (60 to the marc)...
...to a florin) and the pound...
...strata are either expressly...
...legal tender, only as...
...ma and Venico. The comm...
...English grains. Thus, 100 lb...
...duplois.
...The Vienna metzen, which...
...bushel.
...wine or 12 1/2 Imperial gallons...
...nds. It is = 17 wine or 14 1/2...
...English inches.

Foreign goods through the Austrian states gives considerable facilities to the smuggler. But, independently of this, their introduction is an very easy, that nothing but the repeal of the existing prohibitions, and the effectual reduction of the duties, can give any considerable check to smuggling.

We would fain hope that the Austrian government is becoming sensible of the truth. Its commercial policy is, in many respects, far from liberal; and the alterations recently made in its tariff have contributed to facilitate importation. The slightest reflection must, indeed, satisfy every one, that in such a country, restrictions on importation can be of no real advantage to the home producers; and that their only effect is to divert trade into illegitimate channels, to deprive the public treasury of the revenue it might derive from moderate duties, and to enrich those who despise and trample on the law, at the expense of the sober and industrious citizen.

Considering the vast variety of valuable and desirable products furnished by Lombardy, Hungary, Austria proper, and the other Austrian States, it is not easy to estimate the extent to which their commerce might be carried, under a free system that should develop all the resources of the country. At present, however, there is, in Austria and most other parts of the Continent, a strong disposition to believe that our recommendations of a freer system of commercial policy are dictated solely by selfish, interested motives. They naturally attach greater weight to our practice than to our professions. So long, indeed, as our present corn laws and timber duties are suffered to pollute our statute book, so long shall we make but few practical converts to our doctrine. Such a modification of the former as would render our ports always open to the importation of corn under reasonable duties, combined with the equalization of the timber duties, and the reduction of the exorbitant duties on olive oil and tallow, would show that we are disposed to practise those liberal doctrines we so freely recommend to others; and would do more to extend our trade with Italy and Austria than any measure it is in our power to adopt.

Shipping.—Since the loss of Flanders, the mercantile navy of Austria has been confined wholly to the ports on the Adriatic. But it is, notwithstanding, very considerable; and engrosses at this moment a very large share of the trade of the Mediterranean and Black Sea. The oak timber of Carniola and the Dalmatian coast is reckoned about the very best in the world; so that the Austrian ships, being built of it, are very strong, at the same time that they are particularly handsome. They are also well manned and provided. The seamen are expert, temperate, and orderly; and Mr. Money says, that the laws for the regulation of the merchant service are excellent.

By far the greater number of vessels of large burden belong to Trieste. The rest belong in Venice, Fiume, Ragusa, and the Bocche di Cattaro. On the other hand, the smaller vessels employed in the coasting trade, which is very considerable, are more equally divided; Venice having, probably, as many as Trieste, while a good number belong to the ports of Istria, Hungary, and Dalmatia.

The foreign trade of this port comprises all voyages beyond the limits of the Adriatic; and may be divided as follows:—

1. The Levant trade, including the Ionian Islands, Greece, Constantinople, Smyrna, Odessa, &c., the ports in Syria, Cyprus, Candia, and especially Alexandria.
2. The ports of the Mediterranean trade, in the west, comprising the coast of Barbary, Spain, France, and Italy; being principally carried on with Marseilles, Genoa, and Leghorn.
3. The commerce on the ocean, which the Austrian merchants have attempted with considerable success. Several ships sail for Brazil, the United States, England, Hamburg, &c.

The number of Austrian vessels at present employed in foreign trade is believed to be about 750, of the burden of about 153,000 tons, manned by about 15,000 men and boys. In the coasting trade about 20 vessels are employed, averaging 40 tons each. The fishing trade is inconsiderable.

There has been no sensible increase or diminution in the tonnage for the last five years; but there is every probability of a gradual increase in future, proportioned to the anticipated improvement of trade in the Mediterranean, which has of late years been interrupted and depressed by political events.

The following Table shows the number of ships, and their tonnage, arriving at, and sailing from Trieste during each of the three years ending with 1831, specifying the number and tonnage of those under each flag.

Movement of Shipping at Trieste, during each of the Three Years ending with 1831.

Flags.	1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.
American	Ships. 66	Tonnage. 16,873	Ships. 62	13,123	Ships. 56	11,628
Austrian	543	67,854	573	74,199	564	74,764
Bremen	—	—	—	—	341	60,330
British	129	29,776	125	29,745	100	28,745
Danish	14	4,106	14	3,300	14	3,443
Dutch	3	481	3	481	3	481
French	9	1,333	9	1,333	7	1,022
Greek	43	3,498	41	3,132	31	2,768
Holland	—	—	—	—	49	3,378
Ionian	39	3,235	35	3,718	18	1,739
Portuguese	—	—	—	—	3	415
Roman	13	775	6	376	31	678
Russian	10	1,371	10	1,306	16	3,022
Sardinian	26	2,016	26	2,029	21	4,418
Sicilian	67	11,865	71	13,016	108	17,010
Spanish	6	411	7	540	10	813
Swedish	38	4,339	39	4,956	34	3,829
Turkish	1	40	1	40	3	66
Tuscan	3	617	3	423	5	787
Total	795	143,018	826	158,440	880	157,895

Customs' Regulations.—The custom-house at Trieste has nothing whatever to do with the entry, reporting, &c. of vessels. When a ship arrives, she is reported to the Health Office; which publishes a list of arrivals and departures, with a statement of their cargoes, as they appear in the manifests. Ships are cleared by the same office; the masters being assisted by the consuls of the country to which they belong. As soon as a vessel has performed quarantine, she loads or unloads without any interference or inspection by the customs' officers, or by any one else. Goods unsusceptible of contagion may be landed during quarantine.

Being a free port, the bonding and warehousing system is, of course, unknown at Trieste. **Port Charges.**—These are paid at the office of the harbour master on clearing out. They are the same, whatever may be the ship's stay; and are, perhaps, the most moderate of any in Europe.

Port Charges paid by Austrian and Foreign Ships.		Fl. kr. Foreign ships not privileged.		Fl. kr.	
Anchorage, per ton admeasurement	0 4	Anchorage, light-house, and cargo as above, per ton admeasurement, and per ton weight of goods	0 10		
Light-house	0 3	New tonnage duty, per ton admeasurement	0 16		
Cargo duty per ton weight of goods	0 3	Abborraggio, payable by ships departing in ballast, or with less than half a cargo	0		
Fl. R.—If grain, per 30 stajls.					

duce, manufactures, &c.; 2d, bill brokers, or exchange agents; and, 3d, ship and insurance brokers. Such authorized brokers are alone allowed to extend contracts, certificates, surveys, or other documents; and they are considered as public functionaries, whose depositions are received as legal evidence.

Any one may be a commission merchant or factor, but he may not issue printed circulars or lists of prices; nor will his books, however regularly kept, be considered as evidence in a court of justice, unless he is *matriculated*, for which the possession of a certain amount of capital is required. This, however, is little more than mere form, and a great deal of business is done by persons acting both as merchants and brokers, without being duly authorized.

The usual rate of a merchant's or factor's commission on the purchase of goods is 2 per cent. On sales, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; *del credere* is sometimes added.

A merchant's commission for collecting freights, and doing other shipping business, is 2 per cent. on the inward cargo; and by custom of the place, the house to which a ship is consigned or recommended by the charterers, is entitled to a commission of 2 per cent. on the outward cargo, whether it has or has not been instrumental in procuring the goods that are laden outwards.

A broker's commission for freighting a ship, or procuring a charter, is 2 per cent. This does not include the charge for writing charter, or for any other services performed in the clearance. In case of general cargoes, when the broker has to collect goods from different merchants, he charges 3 per cent. commission. A bill broker's commission (courtage) is sometimes 1 per mille, more commonly $\frac{1}{2}$ per mille. Brokerage for the sale or purchase of merchandise varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 1 per cent., according to circumstances, and the nature of the article.

Insurance.—The insurance of ships is carried on to a considerable extent at Trieste. The security is unexceptionable, the terms more moderate than in England, and losses are said to be adjusted promptly and liberally. The oppressive duties on policies of insurance in England have been the cause that most insurances on ships for the Adriatic, and those that were formerly effected in London, Liverpool, &c., are now effected at Trieste. The insurance of houses is universal; and that of lives is also, of late years, practised to a considerable extent. House insurance is carried on by joint stock companies, of limited responsibility.

Bankruptcy is not of very frequent occurrence at Trieste. The laws with respect to it do not differ much from those in force in most other countries. Frauds are punishable by imprisonment; but here, as elsewhere, they are very difficult to detect. Honest bankrupts are discharged, on making a complete disclosure of their affairs, and a surrender of their assets. Property settled on a wife is not affected by the debts of the husband; a regulation which, it is evident, must lead to fraud.

Communications by Land.—The intercourse between Trieste and Austria, Hungary, &c. is necessarily all carried on by land. The roads leading to Vienna, and to the Hungarian towns, particularly the first, are kept in good repair, and the tolls are moderate; but owing to the rugged nature of the country, the ascent is in some places very considerable. The diligence from Trieste to Vienna, 340 English miles, performs the journey in 72 hours. The draught horses employed on the roads are excellent; but, in some of the mountainous districts, bullocks are used.

Repeated surveys have been made of the country between Vienna and Trieste, in the view of forming a canal. But the difficulties in the way of such a project seem to be all but insuperable. The ground is not only rugged, but the subsoil of the country stretching northwards to a considerable distance from Trieste is so very porous, that, unless precautions were taken to obviate it, the water in the canal would speedily escape. A rail-road has been proposed, and it might, no doubt, be accomplished. But the expense would be a very great, that it is extremely problematical whether it would ever yield any thing like a return. We subjoin a statement of the

Rates of Land Carriage from Trieste to various Places.

From Trieste to	Currency Florins.	Amount in Sterling.	From Trieste to	Currency Florins.	Amount in Sterling.
Lubitz, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 123 1/2 lbs. avoirdupois)	0 45	0 1 5	Augsburg, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 123 1/2 lbs. avoirdupois)	4 30	0 9 0
Graz, do.	1 45	0 3 5	Nuremberg, do.	5 30	0 11 0
Vienna, do.	9 45	0 5 5	Munich, do.	4 30	0 9 0
Fragas, do.	4 0	0 0 0	Innsbruck, do.	3 0	0 6 0
Lepic, do.	0 45	0 1 5	Lindau, do.	4 45	0 9 5
Dresden, do.	0 15	0 1 5	Zarich, do.	5 0	0 10 0
Berlin, do.	0 15	0 1 5	Milits, per 100 kilograms.	10 0	0 6 5
Breslaw, do.	5 45	0 11 5			

Carreasing, Stores, &c.—Timber at Trieste is excellent, workmen good, and their wages moderate; so that it is a very favourable place for carreasing and repairing. Water is very good, but rather scarce; so that, if a large supply be required, due notice must be given. Ships are served in regular rotation. Beef is very good, but rather high priced. Butter and cheese are dear; and fuel is excessively so. On the whole, therefore, Trieste cannot be considered as a favourable place for the provisioning of a ship. Subjoined is an account of the

Average Prices of the principal Articles of Provisions at Trieste in 1831.

Articles.	Prices in Currency.	Prices in Sterling.	Articles.	Prices in Currency.	Prices in Sterling.
Beef, fresh, per lb. weight of Vienna (= 123 1/2 lb. avoirdupois)	Fl. Ar. 0 8 1/2	L. s. d. 0 0 3/4	Coffee, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 123 1/2 lb. avoirdupois)	Fl. Ar. 33 0	L. s. d. 3 0 0
Do. salted, per barrel, of about 300 lbs. avoirdupois	80 0	5 0 0	Flour, wheat, do.	7 0	0 14 0
Pork, salted, do.	83 0	6 10 0	Do. maize, do.	4 0	0 8 0
Biscuit, per 100 livres Venetian weight (= 104 1/2 lb. avoirdupois)	8 0	0 10 0	Oil, per crot., equal to 14 1/8 gals. Im.	91 0	5 0 0
Bread, per lb. weight of Vienna	0 0 1/2	0 0 1/4	Rice, per 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	11 30	1 3 0
Butter, do.	0 17	0 0 8	Potatoes, do.	1 30	0 3 0
Cheese, do.	0 25	0 0 10	Vegetables (assorted), do.	1 15	0 3 0
			Sugar, refined, do.	23 0	1 8 0
			Tea, per lb. weight of Vienna	5 0	0 10 0

Average Prices of Wheat, and other sorts of Grain, at Trieste, during each of the Ten Years ending with 1831, per Imperial Quarter, and in Sterling Money.

Grain.	1812.	1813.	1814.	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.
Wheat	8 4	9 10	9 4	9 4	9 4	9 4	9 4	9 4	9 4	9 4
Maize	18 4	19 0	17 8	15 6	16 0	18 0	20 5	23 3	26 9	24 5
Rye	22 4	20 11	16 11	15 1	16 7	21 11	26 3	28 1	24 8	23 8
Barley fine	16 8	17 8	11 8	10 2	9 7	14 11	20 1	18 3	16 3	17 2
do fine	17 6	18 10	10 10	9 7	10 0	15 8	19 8	15 3	16 8	16 1

Banking.—There are no public banks at Trieste. The Bank of Vienna has an office here, but it is merely for the exchange of its notes for cash, or, more frequently, of large notes for small ones. These notes, being guaranteed by government, are legal tender, and in general circulation, but no other currency is allowed to issue notes to be used as a circulating medium. There is not, however, any deficiency of currency. Banking business is transacted by private companies, or by individuals, who are subject to certain regulations, and are obliged to lay before competent authority an attested statement of the capital embarked in their concerns. Their business principally consists in procuring bills of exchange from other places for the use of the merchants of Trieste, or in discounting, (in which latter operation they have many private competitors), at the rate of from 4 to 6 per cent. per annum, according to the nature of the paper offered, and in proportion to the scarcity or abundance of cash.

The principal bankers of Trieste are of undoubted solidity, and do not indulge in dangerous speculations; and notwithstanding the apparent want of great banking establishments, the business of buying and selling, and of making payments and remittances, whether in bills or specie, is transacted at this port with great facility; and there seldom arises any distress, pressure, or stagnation, from want of money or credit.

It is not usual for respectable bankers to give interest on deposits. The partners in joint stock companies, banks, &c. are, in general, responsible only to the extent of their declared capital; and the individuals composing them are only liable each to the extent of their share. The same individual is frequently a general merchant, a partner in a banking house, and a member of an insurance company. All these businesses may at present be said to be prosperous.

Credit.—Goods imported into Trieste are sometimes sold for ready money, a discount being usually undertaken, and allowed in such case, of 2 or 2½ per cent. But they are commonly sold at 3 months' credit, that is, by bills of that date; occasionally, but rarely, they are sold at 6 months.

Bills thus obtained, though offering no other guarantee than the signature of the drawer or acceptor, may be discounted or loaned at a moderate rate by companies who dedicate themselves to this branch of business, and who, from their extensive dealings, are good judges of the risk. This practice has become almost universal; and it not only facilitates sales, but has a tendency to prevent bankruptcies, as it is difficult for a house long to conceal its insolvency; and its credit is, by this mode of trial, soon ascertained.

Taxes.—Real tare is allowed on most articles of export; and on all articles of import, except cotton and sugar. The tare on Brazil sugar in chests depends on their length and size, but in general it amounts to from 15 to 18 per cent.; on Brazil sugar in bags the tare is 3 per cent.; on Havannah sugar a tare is allowed of 62 lb. English per box, being from 13 to 14 per cent.; on Jamaica sugar the tare is 14 per cent. Tare on American cotton, 4 per cent.

The answers to the *Circular Queries* by Mr. Taylor Money, consul general at Milan, are amongst the most valuable that have been received, and reflect the greatest credit on his industry and talent for observation. We have been largely indebted to them.

TRINITY HOUSE. This society was incorporated by Henry VIII., in 1515, for the promotion of commerce and navigation, by licensing and regulating pilots, and ordering and erecting beacons, light-houses, buoys, &c. A similar society, for the like purposes, was afterwards established at Hull; and also another at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in 1537; which three establishments, says Hakluyt, were in imitation of that founded by the Emperor Charles V. at Seville in Spain; who, observing the numerous shipwrecks in the voyages to and from the West Indies, occasioned by the ignorance of seamen, established, at the *Casa de Contratacion*, lectures on navigation, and a pilot-major for the examination of other pilots and mariners; having also directed books to be published on that subject for the use of navigators.

Henry VIII., by his charter, confirmed to the Deptford Trinity House Society all the ancient rights, privileges, &c. of the shipmen and mariners of England, and their several possessions at Deptford, from which it is plain that the society had existed long previously. The corporation was confirmed, in 1685, in the enjoyment of its privileges and possessions, by letters patent of the 1st of James II. by the name of the Master, Wardens, and Assistants of the Guild or Fraternity of the most glorious and undivided Trinity, and of St. Clement's, in the Parish of Deptford Strond, in the county of Kent. At first, the corporation appears to have consisted of seamen only; but many gentlemen, and some noblemen, are now amongst its members, or elder brethren. It is governed by a master, 4 wardens, 8 assistants, and 31 elder brothers: but the inferior members of the fraternity, named younger brethren, are of an unlimited number; for every master or mate, expert in navigation, may be admitted as such. Besides the power of erecting light-houses, and other sea-marks, on the several coasts of the kingdom, for the security of navigation—(see **LIGHT-HOUSES**),—the master, wardens, assistants, and elder brethren are invested by charter with the following powers; viz. the examination of the mathematical scholars of Christ's Hospital, and of the masters of his Majesty's ships; the appointment of pilots to conduct ships into and out of the Thames; the amercement of such unlicensed persons as presume to act as masters of ships of war, or pilots, in a pecuniary fine; settling the several rates of pilotage; granting licenses to poor seamen, not free of the city, or past going to sea, to row on the river Thames for their support; preventing aliens from serving on board English ships without licence; hearing and determining the complaints of officers and seamen of British ships, subject to an appeal to the Lords of the Admiralty, &c. To this company belongs the Ballast Office, for clearing and deepening the Thames, by taking up a sufficient quantity of ballast for the supply of all ships that sail out of the river, for which they pay certain rates.—(See **BALLAST**.) The corporation is authorised to receive voluntary subscriptions, benefactions, &c.; and to purchase, in mortmain, lands, tenements, &c. to the amount of 500*l.* per annum. The ancient Hall of the Trinity House at Deptford, where the meetings of the brethren were formerly held, was pulled down in 1787, and an elegant building erected for the purpose in London, near the Tower.

...ship and insurance brokers.
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...printed circulars or lists of
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	Currency		Amount in Sterling.	
	Fl.	Ar.	£.	s.
Right Vienna	4	30	0	9 0
Left Vienna	4	30	0	11 0
Right Trieste	4	30	0	9 0
Left Trieste	3	0	0	8 0
Right France	4	45	0	8 4
Left France	5	0	0	11 0
Right France	10	0	0	8 6

...and, and their wages moderate;
...Water is very good, but rather
...Ships are served in regular
...are dear; and fuel is excee-
...favourable place for the provi-

Trieste in 1831.

	Prices in Currency.		Prices in Sterling.	
	Fl.	Ar.	£.	s.
Right Vienna	33	0	0	14 0
Left Vienna	4	0	0	8 0
Right Trieste	11	30	1	3 0
Left Trieste	11	30	1	3 0
Right France	5	0	0	10 0
Left France	5	0	0	10 0

Each of the Ten Years ending Money.

	1829.		1830.		1831.	
	£.	s.	£.	s.	£.	s.
1829	24	4	22	0	84	0
1830	25	3	25	0	21	6
1831	25	1	24	2	25	8
1832	21	1	18	3	17	2
1833	15	3	16	2	16	1

Trinity House Revenue, &c.—The gross revenue under the management of the Trinity House amounts to about 135,000*l.* a year; but the nett revenue is rather under $\frac{1}{2}$ that sum. It arises from the dues payable to the corporation on account of light-houses, buoys, and beacons, and ballastage; and from the interest of money in the funds, and the rent of freehold property. In 1831, the receipts were as under:—

	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
<i>Light-houses</i> —Total sums received on account of light-houses		79,249 11 1-4	
Deduct commission on collection	4,174 8 9 1-4		
Charges on account of maintenance, &c.	41,148 19 7 1-2	47,323 8 4-3-4	
Nett light house revenue			31,726 5 6 1-4
<i>Buoys and Beacons</i> —gross amount of		19,094 16 11 1-2	
Deduct commission on collection	796 8 0 1-2		
Charges	7,499 18 10 1-3	8,295 4 11	
Nett buoyage, beacons, and revenue			3,061 12 0 1-2
<i>Ballastage</i> —gross amount of	30,339 17 9		
Deduct charges	23,741 15 11		
Nett ballastage revenue			4,498 1 10
<i>Rent of Land and houses, dividends on account of funded property, &c., all charges deducted</i>			10,003 2 3
Total nett revenue			58,288 1 7 3 11

By far the greater portion of this large sum is laid out on pensions to poor disabled seamen, and on the maintenance of their widows, orphans, &c. We have seen the number of persons so relieved stated at 3,000; and we believe that the fund is both judiciously and economically administered. Still, however, as we have remarked in our article—(vol. i. p. 141.)—it does appear to us, considering the vast importance to a maritime nation, like this of keeping the charges on shipping as low as possible, that it would be good policy to provide otherwise for the poor persons now dependent on the Trinity House, and to reduce the charges on account of lights, &c. to the lowest sum that would suffice to maintain the establishment in a proper state of efficiency. No one, certainly, would wish to see the poor seamen deprived of any part of the pittance they now receive; but a larger amount might be given them from other sources, and be, at the same time, less felt by the public. Every one knows that nothing contributes so much to facilitate a commercial intercourse by land as good roads and low tolls; and good lights, buoys, beacons, &c., and light charges, have precisely the same influence at sea.

TRIPANG, or SEA SLUG (*Biche de Mer*), a species of fish of the genus *Holothuria*, found chiefly on coral reefs in the Eastern seas, and highly esteemed in China, into which it is imported in large quantities. It is an unseemly looking substance, of a dirty brown colour, hard, rigid, scarcely possessing any power of locomotion, or appearance of animation. Sometimes the slug is as much as 2 feet in length, and from 7 to 8 inches in circumference. A span in length, and 2 or 3 inches in girth, is, however, the ordinary size. The quality and value of the fish, however, do not by any means depend upon its size, but upon properties in it neither obvious to, nor discernible by, those who have not been long and extensively engaged in the trade. In shallow water the animal is taken out by the hand, but in deeper water it is sometimes speared. When taken it is gutted, dried in the sun, and smoked over a wood fire; this being the only preparation it receives. The fishery is carried on from the western shores of New Guinea, and the southern shores of Australia, to Ceylon inclusive. Indeed, within the last few years it has been successfully prosecuted on the shores of the Mauritius. The whole produce goes to China. In the market of Macassar, the great staple of this fishery, not less than thirty varieties are distinguished, varying in price from 5 Spanish dollars a *picul* (133½ lbs.) to 14 times that price, each variety being distinguished by well known names! The quantity of tripang sent annually to China from Macassar is about 7,000 piculs, or 8,333 cwt.; the price usually varying from 8 dollars to a picul to 110 and 115, according to quality.—(*Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 441.) There is also a considerable export of tripang from Manila to Canton.

Besides tripang, *fish-maws* and *sharks' fins* are exported to China from every maritime country of India.

TROY WEIGHT, one of the most ancient of the different kinds used in Britain. The pound English Troy contains 12 ounces, or 5,760 grains. It is used in the weighing of gold, silver, and jewels; the compounding of medicines; in experiments in natural philosophy; in comparing different weights with each other; and is now (by 5 Geo. 4. c. 74.) made the standard of weight.

TROY WEIGHT, Scotch, was established by James VI. in the year 1618, who enacted that only one weight should be used in Scotland, viz. the French Troy stone of 16 pounds, and 16 ounces to the pound. The pound contains 7,609 grains, and is equal to 17 oz. 6 dr. avoirdupois. The cwt., or 112 lbs. avoirdupois, contains only 103 lbs. 2½ oz. of this weight, though generally reckoned equal to 104 lbs. This weight is very nearly identical with that formerly used at Paris and Amsterdam; and is generally known by the name of Dutch weight. Though prohibited by the articles of Union, it has been used in most parts of Scotland in weighing iron, hemp, flax, and other Dutch and Baltic goods, meal, butcher's meat, lead, &c.—(See **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES**.)

TRUCK SYSTEM, a name given to a practice that has prevailed, particularly in the mining and manufacturing districts, of paying the wages of workmen in goods instead of money. The plan has been, for the masters to establish warehouses or shops; and the workmen in their employment have either got their wages accounted for to them by supplies of goods from such *depôts*, without receiving any money; or they have got the money, with a tacit or express understanding that they were to resort to the warehouses or shops of their masters for such articles as they were furnished with.

* This includes a sum of 10,174*l.* laid out on new light-houses, and 1,015*l.* of incidental charges.

† See *Parl. Paper*, No. 86, Sess. 1833. For an account of the light-house revenue, see this work, vol. i. p. 14., for buoyage and beacons, see vol. i. p. 250.; and for ballastage, see vol. i. p. 65.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Truck System.—A great deal of contradictory evidence has been given, and very opposite opinions have been held, as to the practical operation and real effect of this system on the workmen. Nor is this to be wondered at, seeing that every thing depends on the mode in which it is administered, and that it may be either highly advantageous or highly injurious to the labourer. If a manufacturer of character establish a shop supplied with the principal articles required for the use of the workmen in his employment, and give them free liberty to resort to it or not as they please, it can, at all events, do them no harm, and will, most likely, render them material service. The manufacturer, having the command of capital, may, in general, lay in his goods to greater advantage than they can be laid in by the greater number of retail tradesmen in moderate-sized towns; and not being dependent on the profits of his shop for support, he is, even though he had no advantage in their purchase, able to sell his goods at a cheaper rate than they can be afforded by the majority of shopkeepers. Sometimes, also, a factory is established in a district where shops either do not exist at all, or are very deficient; and in such cases the master consults the interest and convenience of those dependent on him when he provides a supply of the principal articles required for their subsistence. It is easy, therefore, to see, that the keeping of shops by masters for the use of their workmen may be very beneficial to the latter. But to insure its being so, it is indispensable that the masters should be above taking an advantage when it is within their reach, and that their conduct towards the workmen should not be in any degree influenced by the circumstance of the latter dealing or not dealing with their shops.

Such disinterestedness is, however, a great deal more than could be rationally expected from the generality of men; and hence, though many instances may be specified in which the truck system was advantageous to the workmen, those of a contrary description were, unfortunately, far more numerous. It is obvious, indeed, that a practice of this sort affords very great facilities for fraudulent dealings. Under the old law, a manufacturer who had a shop, had means, supposing he were inclined to use them, not possessed by any ordinary shopkeeper as respects his customers, for forcing upon his workmen inferior goods at an exorbitant price. They are at first supplied on liberal terms, and are readily accommodated with goods in anticipation of wages, till they get considerably into debt. The pernicious influence of this deceitful system then begins fully to disclose itself. The workmen cease to be free agents; they are compelled to take such goods and at such prices as the master pleases; for, were they to attempt to emancipate themselves from this state of thralldom by leaving their employment, they would be exposed to the risk of prosecution and imprisonment for the debts they had incurred. It is not easy to imagine the extent to which these facilities for defrauding the labouring class were taken advantage of in various districts of the country. In many instances, indeed, the profits made by the shops exceeded those made by the business to which they were contingent; and thousands of workmen, whose wages were nominally 30s. a week, did not really receive, owing to the bad quality and high price of the goods supplied to them, more than 20s., and often not so much.

Abolition of the Truck System.—A system of dealing with the labouring classes, so very susceptible of abuse, and which, in point of fact, was very extensively abused, was loudly and justly complained of. A bill was in consequence introduced for its suppression by Mr. Littleton, which, after a great deal of opposition and discussion, was passed into a law—1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 32.—(See abstract subjoined.)

Those who opposed this act did so on two grounds;—1st, that it was improper to interfere at all in a matter of this sort; and, 2d, that the interference would not be effective. The first of these objections does not appear entitled to any weight. In suppressing the truck system, the legislature did nothing that could in anywise regulate or fetter the fair employment of capital: it interfered merely to put down abuse; to carry, in fact, the contract of wages into full effect, by preventing the workman from being defrauded of a portion of the wages he had stipulated for. The presumption no doubt is, in questions between workmen and their employers, that government had better abstain from all interference, and leave it to the parties to adjust their disputes on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. Still, however, this is merely a presumption; and must not be viewed as an absolute rule. Instances have repeatedly occurred, where the interference of the legislature, to prevent or suppress abuse, on occasions of the sort now alluded to, has been imperiously required, and been highly advantageous. Those who claim its interposition are, indeed, bound to show clearly that it is called for to obviate some gross abuse, or that it will materially redound to the public advantage; and this, we think, was done in the completest manner, by the opponents of the truck system. Regard for the interests of the more respectable part of the masters, as well as for those of the workmen, required its abolition; for, while it continued, those who despised taking an advantage of their dependents were less favourably situated than those who did. It is ludicrous, therefore, in a case of this sort, to set up a cuckoo cry about the "freedom of industry." The good incident to the truck system was in practice found to be vastly overbalanced by the abuses that grew out of it; and as these

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11-13	31,328 8 914
11	5,081 12 013
	6,469 10
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age, see vol. i. p. 65.

could not, under the existing law of debtor and creditor, be separately destroyed, the legislature did right in attempting to suppress it altogether.

It was said, indeed, that this would be found to be impracticable; that the manufacturers would enter underhand into partnerships with the keepers of shops, and that the system would really be continued, in another and, perhaps, more objectionable form. This anticipation has, we believe, been in some degree realized; but the system has notwithstanding been in many places abandoned, and is nowhere practised to any thing like the extent to which it was carried previously to the passing of Mr. Littleton's act. It will not, however, be completely rooted out, till all small debts, however they originate, be put beyond the pale of the law. We have already vindicated the expediency of this measure on other grounds—(see *CREDIT*); and the influence it would have in effectually destroying whatever is most pernicious in the truck system, is a weighty additional recommendation in its favour. Were all right of action upon debts for less than 50*l.* or 100*l.* taken away, no master would think of acquiring a control over the free agency of his workmen, by getting them in debt to him; and no workman would, under such circumstances, submit to be directed in his choice of shops or goods. The case of the Scotch colliers affords a curious illustration of what is now stated. Down to 1775, these persons were really *adscripti glebes*, or prædial slaves; that is, they and their descendants were bound to perpetual service at the works to which they belonged,—a right to their labour being acquired by any new proprietor to whom the works were sold! The 15 Geo. 3. c. 28. was passed for the emancipation of the colliers from this state of bondage. It, however, failed of practically accomplishing its object; for the masters speedily contrived, by making them advances in anticipation of their wages, to retain them as completely as ever under their control! To obviate this abuse, the 39 Geo. 3. c. 56. was passed; which most properly took from the masters all title to pursue the colliers for loans, unless advanced for the support of the collier and his family during sickness. This act had the desired effect; and the colliers have since been as free as any other class of labourers.—(See my edition of the *Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 186.) In fact, were small debts put beyond the pale of the law, it would not be necessary to interfere directly with the truck system; for it would not then be possible to pervert it to any very injurious purpose.

The following are the principal clauses in the Act 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 37, entitled, "An Act to prohibit the Payment, in certain Trades, of Wages in Goods, or otherwise than in the Current coin of the Realm."

1. In all contracts hereafter to be made for the hiring of any artificer in any of the trades hereinafter enumerated, or for the performance by any artificer of any labour in any of the said trades, the wages of such artificer shall be made payable only in the current coin of this realm, and not otherwise; any contract to the contrary being illegal, null, and void.
2. If such contract contain any stipulations as to the manner in which the wages shall be expended, it is void.
3. Wages must be paid to the workman in coin only. Payment in goods is illegal and void.
4. Artificers may receive wages, if not paid in the current coin.
5. In an action brought for wages, no set-off shall be allowed for goods supplied by the employer, or by any shop in which he is interested.
6. No employer shall have any action or suit in equity against his artificer, for goods supplied to him on account of wages, or supplied by any shop in which he has an interest.
7. If the artificer, or his wife or children become chargeable to the parish, the overseers may recover any wages earned within the 3 preceding months, and not paid in cash.
8. Nothing in this act is to invalidate the payment of wages in bank notes or drafts on any bankers within 15 miles, if artificer consents.
9. Any employer of any artificer in any of the trades hereinafter enumerated, who shall, by himself, or by the agency of any other person, directly or indirectly enter into any contract, or make any payment hereby declared illegal, shall, for the first offence, forfeit a sum not exceeding 10*l.* nor less than 5*l.*, and for the second offence any sum not exceeding 20*l.* nor less than 10*l.*, and for a third offence he shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and be punished by fine only at the discretion of the court, so that the fines shall not in any case exceed 100*l.*
10. Offences shall be inquired of and fines recovered before 2 Justices, and the amount of the fines shall be at the discretion of such justices, or in cases of misdemeanour, of the court before which the offence may be tried; and in case of a second offence, if shall be sufficient evidence of the previous conviction, if a certificate signed by the officer having the custody of the records, be produced, stating in a compendious form the general nature of the offence. But a second or third offence shall only be punished as a first or second offence, if committed within 10 days after the prior conviction; and a fourth or any subsequent offence shall be punished as a third offence. But no second or third offence shall be prosecuted after more than 2 years from the commission of the next preceding offence.
11. Justices may compel the attendance of witnesses, on the request of the parties. Penally for non-attendance without excuse, and after proof of due service of summonses at the usual place of abode for such persons, 24 hours at the least before the time appointed for appearance, a commitment to some prison within the jurisdiction of the justices, without bail or securities, for not exceeding 14 days, or until such person shall submit to be examined.
- Sections from 12. to 19. inclusive, regulate proceedings.
12. Act only to apply to the following trades:—Baking, caulding, converting, or manufacturing of iron or steel, or any parts, branches, or processes thereof; working any mines of coal, ironstone, tinestone, limestone, salt rock; or working or getting stone, slate, or clay; or making or preparing silk, beads, or quivers; or making or manufacturing any kinds of nails, chains, rivets, nails, &c., keys, &c., or any other articles of hardware made of iron or steel, or of iron and steel combined, or of any other articles of cutlery, or of any goods or wares made of brass, tin, lead, pewter, or other metal, or of

- any Japanese goods or wares whatsoever; or making, spinning, throwing, doubling, winding, weaving, combing, knitting, bleaching, dyeing, printing, or otherwise preparing any kinds of woollen, worsted, yarn, stuff, kersey, linen, fustian, cloth, serge, cotton, leather, fur, hemp, flax, mohair, or silk manufactures whatsoever, or any manufactures whatsoever made of the said last mentioned materials, whether the same be or be not mixed one with another; or making or otherwise preparing, ornamenting, or finishing, any true, silver, or precious thereof, or any materials used in any of such last mentioned trades; or making or preparing of bones, thread, silk or cotton lace, or of lace made of any mixed materials.
13. Not to extend to any domestic servant, or servant in habundant.
14. No one engaged in any of the trades or occupations enumerated, or his father, son, or brother, shall act as a justice.
15. County magistrates not to act in cases where those of towns are disqualified as above.
16. Not to prevent any employer from supplying or contracting to supply to any artificer any medicine or medical attendance, or any fuel, or any materials, tools, or implements to be by such artificer employed in his trade or occupation, if such artificer be employed in mining, or any hay, corn, or other produce to be consumed by any horse or other beast of burden employed by any such artificer in his trade and occupation; nor from desmiting to any artificer employed in any of the trades or occupations enumerated the whole or any part of any payment at any rate; nor from supplying or contracting to supply to any such artificer any victuals dressed or prepared under the roof of any such employer, and there consumed by such artificer; nor from making or contracting to make any deduction from the wages of any artificer for any such rent, or medicine, or medical attendance, or fuel, materials, tools, implements, hay, corn or produce, or such victuals, or for any money advanced to such artificer for any such purpose; nor from making any such deduction from the wages of such artificer for materials, tools, implements, hay, corn, and produce, and shall not be in any case made from the wages of such artificer unless the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing, and signed by such artificer.
17. Not to prevent any such employer from advancing to any such artificer any money to be by him contributed to any friendly society or bank for savings, or for his relief in sickness, or for the education of any child of such artificer, nor from deducting or contracting to deduct any money from the wages of such artificer, for the education of any such child, provided the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing and signed by such artificer.
18. Workmen, labourers, and other persons in any trade or occupation in any employment or occupation in or about the several trades and occupations aforesaid, shall be deemed "artificers," and all masters, foremen, managers, clerks, and other persons concerned in the hiring, employment, or superintendance of the labour of any such artificer shall be deemed to be "employers;" and any master or other thing had or contracted to be paid, or given as a remuneration for any labour done or to be done, whether within a certain time or for a certain amount, or for a time or an amount uncertain, shall be deemed to be the "wages" of such labour; and any agreement, understanding, device, contrivance, collusion, or arrangement whatsoever on the subject of wages, whether a gift or loan, whether direct or indirect, to which the employer and artificer are parties, or are assenting, or by which they are mutually bound to each other, whereby either of them shall be relieved from any obligation on the other of theirs, shall be deemed a "contract."

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TRUFFLES, a sort of vegetable production, like a mushroom, formed under ground. A few have been found in Northamptonshire; they are pretty abundant in Italy, the south of France, and several other countries. They are reckoned a great delicacy. *The pâté au truffe d'Angoulême* are highly esteemed, and are sent as presents to very distant places.—(*See Cyclopædia.*)

TUNIS, the capital of the regency of the same name, on the northern coast of Africa, the Goletta fort being in lat. 36° 48' 30" N., lon. 10° 25' 45" E. The bay of Tunis is somewhat in the form of a horseshoe. Its western extremity, Cape Carthage, is situated about 4 miles N.E. from the Goletta; and its eastern extremity, Cape Zafran, bears from Cape Carthage E. by S., distant about 13 miles. The bay is about 16 miles deep, and has good anchorage all over, in from 10 to 4 fathoms water. It is exposed to the N. and N.E. gales; but they seldom occasion any damage. Tunis lies on the west side of the bay, being separated from it by a large lagoon, having, where deepest, about 7 feet water. The port is at the Goletta, or channel, passing through the narrow belt of land separating the lagoon from the sea; the entrance to it is by a canal, in which there is at all times 15 feet water; and ships may use it on paying a fee of 3 dollars a day. It is not, however, much resorted to; all vessels of considerable burden loading and unloading from their moorings in the bay, by means of lighters. The population of Tunis has been variously estimated; and may probably amount to 100,000, being the most populous of any African city after Cairo. The streets are narrow, unpaved, and filthy. The buildings, though of stone, are mean and poor; and the inhabitants present the picture of poverty and oppression. There is a fort at the Goletta, of considerable strength.

Trade.—Notwithstanding the various drawbacks arising out of the nature of the government, and the ignorance and prejudices of the people, commerce and industry are in a more advanced state in Tunis, than in any other part of Northern Africa, Egypt excepted. Though subject to droughts, the climate is, on the whole, excellent. The soil still preserves that exuberant fertility for which it was famous in antiquity.

Non quæquid Libyæ terit
Fervens aræ mesibus.—(*Sæcæ in Thyest.*)

holland receives any other manure than that of sometimes burning the weeds and stubble; and yet, in despite of its slovenly culture, the crops are luxuriant; and there is generally a considerable surplus of wheat and barley for exportation. Corn is principally shipped at Biserta, about 30 miles W. of Tunis. Olive oil is one of the principal articles of export. It is of various qualities; and some good, and some very indifferent. Susa is said to be the best place for its shipment. Soap of an excellent quality is largely manufactured in the regency. It may be had either soft or in wedges. The soft is made of barilla and pure oil, and is much esteemed. The hard soap is made from the fecæ of oil, and is reckoned very strong. The principal soap-works are at Susa. Little, however, is prepared on a speculative anticipation of a demand for exportation; but any quantity may be had by contracting for a few months before the period when it is wanted. A sort of woollen acull-caps are largely exported. They are in extensive demand all over the Levant, and are nowhere made in such perfection as there. Ivory and gold dust, hides, wax, morocco leather, sponge, barilla, coral, dates, ostrich feathers, &c. are among the articles of export.

The imports from Europe consist of woollens, coarse German and Irish linens, cotton stuffs, hardware, sugar, coffee, spices, tin plates, lead, alum, dye stuffs, wine, silk, Spanish wool, &c. There is very little direct trade between Tunis and England; but a good deal is indirectly carried on, through the intervention of Malta and Gibraltar. Marseilles has probably the largest share of the trade with the regency. In 1830, there entered the different ports of Tunis 194 ships, of the burden of 20,747 tons, exclusive of those engaged in the trade with the other African states and Turkey.

Exclusive of the trade by sea, a considerable trade is carried on between Tunis and the interior of Africa, by means of caravans. These import slaves, gold dust, ivory, feathers, drugs, &c. They carry back cotton stuffs, linens, hardware, spices, cochineal, &c.

Naval and military stores imported into Tunis pay no duty. Other articles pay a duty of 3 per cent. ad valorem on a rated tariff. Obstructions arising out of monopolies, &c. are occasionally thrown in the way of exportation; and in general it is necessary, before proceeding to ship, to obtain a *fishery*, a licence to that effect from the bey. That, however, may be, for the most part, procured without much difficulty.

Money.—Accounts are kept in pieces of 16 carobas or 52 aspers. The asper is worth about 1s. 1d. sterling. The asper is an insignificant money. The value of foreign coins depends on the state of the exchange.

Weights.—Gold, silver, and pearls are weighed by the ounce of 8 grains; 16 of these ounces make the Tunis pound = 7,775 8 Eng. lbs. The principal commercial weight is the cantaro, containing 114, or 115, and is equivalent to 11403 lbs. avoird., or 5036 lbs.

Measures.—The principal corn measure is the *caf*, divided into 16 *minas*, and the white into 18 *minas*. One *caf* = 14 1/2 Imperial bushels. The wine measure is the *millorillo* of Marseilles = 14 1/2 Imp. gal.

RUINS OF CARTHAGE.—The famous city of Carthage, one of the greatest emporiums of the ancient world, long the mistress of the sea, and the most formidable enemy of Rome, was situated near the cape which still bears her name, about 10 miles N.E. from Tunis. Such, however, have been the alterations on the coast, that the port of the city, within whose ample embrace whole navies used to ride, is now wholly filled up; antiquaries differ as to its situation; and the sea has in some places receded from 2 to 3 miles from the ruins of the buildings by which it was formerly skirted. The common sewers are still in a very perfect state, as are several cisterns, public reservoirs, and other remains of that sort, with the fragment of a noble aqueduct that supplied the city with water. But besides these, and a very few Punic inscriptions that have been dug up, there is nothing left to attest the ancient grandeur

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of his wife, or for the maintenance

of any such artificer, for the educa-

tion of his children, or for the educa-

tion of any other person, shall be

deemed a "contract."

and magnificence of the city, or to identify it with the illustrious people by whom it was founded and occupied till its destruction by Scipio Nasica. There are no temples, no triumphal arches, no granite columns or obelisks covered with Phœnician characters, and no ancient entablatures. These have all fallen a sacrifice to hostile attacks, or to the destroying hand of time.

Nunc passim, vix reliquias, vix nomina servans,
Obruitur, propris non agnoscenda rotulis.

Such mutilated fragments of buildings as still remain, are evidently the work of a later age; of those who occupied the city between the period when a colony was sent to it by Augustus, and its final subversion by the Saracens in the 7th century.

TURBITH, or **TURPETH**, the cortical part of the root of a species of *Convolvulus*, brought from different parts of the East Indies. It is a longish root, about the thickness of the finger, resinous, heavy, of a brownish hue without and whitish within. It is imported cloven in the middle, lengthwise, and the heart or woody matter taken out. The best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. At first it makes an impression of sweetness on the taste; but, when chewed for some time, betrays a nauseous acrimony. It is used in medicine, but only to a small extent.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

TURBITH (MINERAL), the name given by chemists to the subsulphate of mercury.
TURBOT (*Pleuronectes maximus*), a well known and highly esteemed species of fish. Very considerable quantities of turbot are now taken on various parts of our coasts, from the Orkneys to the Land's End, yet a preference is given in the London markets to those caught by the Dutch. The latter are said to have sometimes drawn as much as 80,000*l.* in a single year, for turbots sold in London.

Fresh turbots, however taken, or in whatever ship imported, may be imported free of duty.—(See FISH.)

TURMERIC, the root of the *Curcuma longa*. It is externally greyish, and internally of a deep lively yellow or saffron colour; very hard; and not unlike, either in figure or size, to ginger. That should be preferred, which is large, new, resinous, difficult to break, and heavy. It is imported from Bengal, Java, China, &c.; but some of a superior quality is said to have been brought from Tobago. Small quantities of it have also been grown in England. It has a somewhat aromatic, and not very agreeable smell; and a bitterish, slightly acrid, and rather warm taste. It used to be in considerable estimation as a medicine; but in Europe it is now used only as a dye. It yields a beautiful bright yellow colour; which, however, is extremely fugitive, and no means have hitherto been discovered of fixing it. It is sometimes employed to heighten the yellows made with weld, and to give an orange tint to scarlet; but the shade imparted by the turmeric soon disappears. The Indians use it to colour and season their food.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. i. p. 276.)

The imports of turmeric from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope were, in 1830, 1,867,764 *lbs.*; in 1831, 1,232,628 *lbs.*; and in 1832, 1,004,045 *lbs.*

Its price in bond in the London market, in March, 1834, was—Bengal, per cwt., 15*s.* to 16*s.*; Java, 24*s.* to 25*s.*; China, 25*s.* to 26*s.*

The duty on turmeric is 2*s.* 4*d.* per cwt. on that brought from a British possession, and 10*s.* per cwt. on that from a foreign country. The only effect of this injurious distinction is to force the use of an inferior article.

TURPENTINE (Ger. *Turpentin*; Fr. *Térébenthine*; It. *Tremantina*; Rus. *Skipidar*; Pol. *Terpentina*). There are several species of turpentine, but all of them possess the same general and chemical properties.

1. *Common Turpentine*, is a resinous juice which exudes from the Scotch fir or wild pine (*Pinus sylvestris*). The trees which are most exposed to the sun, and have the thickest barks, yield it in the greatest abundance. They begin to produce it when about 40 years old. The bark of the tree is wounded, and the turpentine flows out in drops, which fall into a hole, or sort of cup, previously dug at the foot of the tree, holding about 1½ pint. It is purified by being exposed to liquefy in the sun's rays, in barrels perforated in the bottom, through which it filters. In the United States, the collection of turpentine is confided chiefly to negroes, each of whom has the charge of from 3,000 to 4,000 trees. The process lasts all the year, although the incisions are not made in the trees till the middle of March, and the flow of the turpentine generally ceases about the end of October. The boxes are emptied 5 or 6 times during the year; and it is estimated that 250 boxes will produce a barrel weighing 320 *lbs.* Turpentine has a strong, somewhat fragrant odour, and a bitter disagreeable taste; its consistence is greater than that of honey; its colour dirty yellow; and it is more opaque than the other sorts. We import it almost entirely from the United States.

2. *Venice Turpentine*, is the produce of the larch (*Pinus Larix*). It is obtained by boring a hole into the heart of the tree about 2 feet from the ground, and fitting into it a small tube through which the turpentine flows into vessels prepared for its reception. It is purified by straining through cloths, or hair sieves. It is more fluid, having the consistence of new honey, a yellowish colour, and is less unpleasant to the smell and taste, than the common turpentine. Genuine Venetian turpentine is principally obtained from the forests

of Baye, in Provence; but much of that to be found in the shops comes from America, and is, perhaps, obtained from a different species of fir.

3. *Canadian Balsam*, or *Turpentine*, is obtained from incisions in the bark of the *Picea Balsamea*, a native of the coldest regions of North America. It is imported in casks, each containing about 1 cwt. It has a strong, not disagreeable odour, and a bitterish taste; is transparent, whitish, and has the consistence of copaiva balsam.—(See *BALSAM*.)

4. *Chian* or *Cyprus Turpentine*, is obtained from the *Pistacia Terebinthus*, a native of the north of Africa and the south of Europe, and cultivated in Chios and Cyprus. It flows out of incisions made in the bark of the tree in the month of July; and is subsequently strained and purified. It has a fragrant odour, a moderately warm taste, devoid of acrimony or bitterness, and a white or very pale yellow colour; it is about as consistent as thick honey, is clear, transparent, and tenacious. From its comparative high price, Chian turpentine is seldom procured genuine, being for the most part adulterated either with Venetian or common turpentine. The different species of turpentine may be dissolved in rectified spirit, or pure alcohol; and, by distillation, they all give similar oils, which from their being distilled (and not from any resemblance to alcohol, or spirits properly so called), are vulgarly termed spirits of turpentine. If the distillation be performed with water, the produce is an essential oil, the common spirit of turpentine; and if the distillation be carried on in a *retort*, without water, the product is more volatile and pungent,—a concentrated oil, as it were,—and is called the ethereal spirit of turpentine. The residuum that is left, in both cases, is a brownish resinous mass, brittle, capable of being melted, highly inflammable, insoluble in water, but mixing freely with oils: it is the common rosin of commerce.—(*Lib. of Entert. Knowledge, Vegetable Substances; Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

The entries of turpentine for home consumption in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 22,239 cwt. a year. It is almost entirely imported from the United States; so much so, that of 317,995 cwt. imported in 1831, 317,095 were supplied by them: the residue came from France.

TURPENTINE OIL OF (Ger. *Terpentinöl*; Fr. *Eau de raze*, *Huile de térébenthine*; It. *Acqua di raso*; Sp. *Aguarras*), the essential oil drawn from turpentine by distillation. There are two sorts of this oil: the best, red; and the second, white. It is very extensively used by house painters, and in the manufacture of varnish, &c. The distillers have been charged with using it in the preparation of gin. Oil of turpentine is very often adulterated.

TURQUOISE (Ger. *Türkias*; Fr. *Turquoise*; It. *Turchina*; Sp. *Turquesa*), a precious stone in considerable estimation. Its colour, which is its principal recommendation, is a beautiful celestial blue, which migrates into pale blue, and is sometimes tinged with green. Specific gravity, 3.127. It is destitute of lustre, opaque, and does not admit of a very high polish. It is much worn in necklaces, and in every part of ornamental jewellery, from the size of a pin's head to that of an almond: it contrasts beautifully with brilliants, or pearls, set in fine gold, and appears to most advantage when cut spheroidal.—(*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 129.)

Real turquoisees are exclusively furnished by Persia. The mines whence they are obtained are situated near Nishapore. They are the property of the Crown, and are farmed to the highest bidder. They bring a rent of from 2,000*l.* to 2,700*l.* a year.—(*Fraser's Travels on the Shores of the Caspian*, pp. 10—317.)

TUTENAG, the name given in commercial language to the zinc or spelter of China.—(See *ZINC*.) This commodity used to be smuggled from China (the exportation of unwrought metals from that empire being prohibited) to Hindostan, the Malay Archipelago, and neighbouring countries, to the amount, it is supposed, of about 50,000 cwt. a year. In 1830, the British free traders introduced German spelter for the first time into the Indian market. In 1826, the importation of tutenag from China into Calcutta ceased; and it has now been totally superseded throughout India by spelter. Of this latter commodity there were exported from Great Britain to all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, 49,946 cwt. a year, besides the quantities furnished by Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and other continental ports.

TYRE, the principal city of Phœnicia, and the most celebrated emporium of the ancient world. This famous city was situated on the S. E. coast of the Mediterranean, where the inconsiderable town of Tsour now stands, in lat. 33° 17' N., lon. 35° 14' 35" E. The trade that is at present carried on at Tsour is too trifling to deserve notice; but as this work is intended to give some account, however imperfect, of the revolutions in the channels of commercial enterprise, we may, perhaps, be excused for submitting a few statements with respect to the commerce carried on by so renowned a people as the Tyrians.

Tyre was founded by a colony from Sidon, the most ancient of the Phœnician cities. The date of this event is not certainly known, but Larcher supposes it to have been 1,690 years before the Christian era.—(*Chronologie d'Hérodote*, cap. ii. p. 131.) It is singular, that while Homer mentions Sidon, he takes no notice of Tyre, whose glory speedily eclipsed that of the mother city; but this is no conclusive proof that the latter was not then a considerable emporium. The prophets Isalah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel, who flourished from 700 to 600 years before Christ, represent Tyre as a city of unrivalled wealth, whose "merchants

were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth." Originally, the city was built on the main land: but having been besieged for a lengthened period by the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar, the inhabitants conveyed themselves and their goods to an island at a little distance, where a new city was founded, which enjoyed an increased degree of celebrity and commercial prosperity. The old city was, on that account, entitled *Paletyre*, and the other simply *Tyre*. The new city continued to flourish, extending its colonies and its commerce on all sides, till it was attacked by Alexander the Great. The resistance made by the Tyrians to that conqueror showed that they had not been enervated by luxury, and that their martial virtues were nowise inferior to their commercial skill and enterprise. The overthrow of the Persian empire was effected with less difficulty than the capture of this single city. The victor had not magnanimity to treat the vanquished as their heroic conduct deserved. In despite, however, of the cruelties inflicted on the city, she rose again to considerable eminence. But the foundation of Alexandria, by diverting the commerce that had formerly centered at Tyre into a new channel, gave her an irreparable blow; and she gradually declined till, consistently with the denunciation of the prophet, her palaces have been levelled with the dust, and she has become "a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea."

Commerce, Colonies, &c. of Tyre.—Phœnicia was one of the smallest countries of antiquity. It occupied that part of the Syrian coast which stretches from *Aradus* (the modern *Roud*) on the north, to a little below *Tyre* on the south, a distance of about 60 leagues. Its breadth was much less considerable, being for the most part bounded by *Mount Libanus* to the east, and *Mount Carmel* on the south. The surface of this narrow tract was generally rugged and mountainous; and the soil in the valleys, though moderately fertile, did not afford sufficient supplies of food to feed the population. *Libanus* and its dependent ridges were, however, covered with timber suitable for ship building; and besides *Tyre* and *Sidon*, Phœnicia possessed the ports of *Tripoli*, *Dyblo*, *Berytus*, &c. In this situation, occupying a country unable to supply them with sufficient quantities of corn, hemmed in by mountains, and by powerful and warlike neighbours, on the one hand, and having, on the other, the wide expanse of the Mediterranean, studded with islands, and surrounded by fertile countries, to invite the enterprise of her citizens, they were naturally led to engage in maritime and commercial adventures; and became the boldest and most experienced mariners, and the greatest discoverers, of ancient times.

From the remotest antiquity, a considerable trade seems to have been carried on between the Eastern and Western worlds. The spices, drugs, precious stones, and other valuable products of Arabia and India, have always been highly esteemed in Europe, and have exchanged for the gold and silver, the tin, wines, &c. of the latter. At the first dawn of authentic history, we find Phœnicia the principal centre of this commerce. Her inhabitants are designated in the early sacred writings by the name of *Canaanites*,—a term which, in the language of the East, means merchants. The products of Arabia, India, Persia, &c. were originally conveyed to her by companies of travelling merchants, or caravans; which seem to have been constituted in the same way, and to have performed exactly the same part in the commerce of the East, in the days of Jacob, that they do at present.—(*Gen.* xxxvii. 25. &c.) At a later period, however, in the reigns of David and Solomon, the Phœnicians, having formed an alliance with the Hebrews, acquired the ports of *Elath* and *Eziongeber*, at the north-east extremity of the Red Sea. Here they fitted out fleets, which traded with the ports on that sea, and probably with those of Southern Arabia, the west coast of India, and Ethiopia. The ships are said to have visited *Ophir*; and a great deal of erudition has been expended in attempting to determine the exact situation of that emporium or country. We agree, however, with *Heeren*, in thinking that it was not the name of any particular place; but that it was a sort of general designation given to the coasts of Arabia, India, and Africa, bordering on the Indian Ocean; somewhat in the same loose way as we now use the terms *East* and *West Indies*.—(See the chapter on the *Navigations and Commerce of the Phœnicians*, in the translation of *Heeren's* work.)

The distance of the Red Sea from Tyre being very considerable, the conveyance of goods from the one to the other by land must have been tedious and expensive. To lessen this inconvenience, the Tyrians, shortly after they got possession of *Elath* and *Eziongeber*, seized upon *Rhinoculurs*, the port in the Mediterranean nearest to the Red Sea. The products of Arabia, India, &c., being carried thither by the most compendious route, were then put on board ships, and conveyed by a brief and easy voyage to Tyre. If we except the transit by Egypt, this was the shortest and most direct, and for that reason, no doubt, the cheapest, channel by which the commerce between Southern Asia and Europe could then be conducted. But it is not believed that the Phœnicians possessed any permanent footing on the Red Sea after the death of Solomon. The want of it does not, however, seem to have sensibly affected their trade; and Tyre continued, till the foundation of Alexandria, to be the grand emporium for Eastern products, with which it was abundantly supplied by caravans from Arabia, the bottom of the Persian Gulf, and from Babylon, by way of *Palmyra*.

The commerce of the Phœnicians with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean was still more extensive and valuable. At an early period, they established settlements in Cyprus and Rhodes. The former was a very valuable acquisition, from its proximity, the number of its ports, its fertility, and the variety of its vegetable and mineral productions. Having passed successively into Greece, Italy, and Sardinia, they proceeded to explore the southern shores of France and Spain, and the northern shores of Africa. They afterwards adventured upon the Atlantic; and were the first people whose flag was displayed beyond the pillars of Hercules.*

Of the colonies of Tyre, Gades, now Cadiz, was one of the most ancient and important. It is supposed by M. de St. Croix to have originally been distinguished by the name of *Tartessus* or *Tarshish*, mentioned in the sacred writings.—(*De l'Etat et du Sort des Anciennes Colonies*, p. 14.) Heeren, on the other hand, contends, as in the case of Ophir, that by *Tarshish* is to be understood the whole southern part of Spain, which was early occupied and settled by Phœnician colonists.—(See also *Huet, Commerce des Anciens*, cap. 8.) At all events, however, it is certain that Cadix early became the centre of a commerce that extended all along the coasts of Europe as far as Britain, and perhaps the Baltic. There can be no doubt that by the *Cassiterides*, or Tin Islands, visited by the Phœnicians, is to be understood the Scilly Islands and Cornwall.—(See *Trix*.) The navigation of the Phœnicians, probably, also, extended a considerable way along the western coast of Africa; of this, however, no details have reached us.

But, of all the colonies founded by Tyre, Carthage has been by far the most celebrated. It was at first only a simple factory; but was materially increased by the arrival of a large body of colonists, forced by dissensions at home to leave their native land, about 883 years before Christ.—(*St. Croix*, p. 20.) Imbued with the enterprising mercantile spirit of their ancestors, the Carthaginians rose in no very long period to the highest eminence as a naval and commercial state. The settlements founded by the Phœnicians in Africa, Spain, Sicily, &c. gradually fell into their hands; and after the destruction of Tyre by Alexander, Carthage engrossed a large share of the commerce of which it had previously been the centre. The subsequent history of Carthage, and the misfortunes by which she was overwhelmed, are well known. We shall only, therefore, observe, that commerce, instead of being, as some shallow theorists have imagined, the cause of her decline, was the real source of her power and greatness; the means by which she was enabled to wage a lengthened, doubtful, and desperate contest with Rome herself for the empire of the world.

The commerce and navigation of Tyre probably attained their maximum from 650 to 550 years before Christ. At that period the Tyrians were the factors and merchants of the civilised world; and they enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs. The prophet Ezekiel (chap. xxvii.) has described in magnificent terms the glory of Tyre; and has enumerated several of the most valuable productions found in her markets, and the countries whence they were brought. The fir trees of Senir (Hermon), the cedars of Lebanon, the oaks of Bashan (the country to the east of Galilee), the ivory of the Indies, the fine linen of Egypt, and the purple and hyacinth of the isles of Elishah (Peloponnesus), are specified among the articles used for her ships. The inhabitants of Sidon, Arvad (Aradus), Gebel (Byblos), served her as mariners and carpenters. Gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, and vessels of brass; slaves, horses, mules, sheep, and goats; pearls, precious stones, and coral; wheat, balm, honey, oil, spices, and gums; wine, wool, and silk; are mentioned as being brought into the port of Tyre by sea, or to its markets by land, from Syria, Arabia, Damascus, Greece, *Tarshish*, and other places, the exact site of which it is difficult to determine.†

Such, according to the inspired writer, was Tyre, the "Queen of the waters," before she was besieged by Nebuchadnezzar. But, as has been already remarked, the result of that siege did not affect her trade, which was as successfully and advantageously carried on from the new city as from the old. Inasmuch, however, as Carthage soon after began to rival her as a maritime and mercantile state, this may, perhaps, be considered as the era of her greatest celebrity.

It would not be easy to over-rate the beneficial influence of that extensive commerce from which the Phœnicians derived such immense wealth. It inspired the people with whom they traded with new wants and desires, at the same time that it gave them the means of gratifying them. It every where gave fresh life to industry, and a new and powerful stimulus to invention. The rude uncivilised inhabitants of Greece, Spain, and Northern Africa acquired some knowledge of the arts and sciences practised by the Phœnicians; and the advantages of which they were found to be productive secured their gradual though slow advancement.

Nor were the Phœnicians celebrated only for their wealth, and the extent of their com-

* Mons Calpe and Mons Abyla, the Gibraltar and Ceuta of modern times.

† There is, in Dr. Vincent's *Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients in the Indian Ocean* (vol. II. pp. 494-529), an elaborate and (like the other parts of that work) prolix commentary on this chapter of Ezekiel, in which most of the names of the things and places mentioned are satisfactorily explained.—(See also Heeren on the Phœnicians, cap. iv.)

merce and navigation. Their fame, and their right to be classed amongst those who have conferred the greatest benefits on mankind, rest on a still more unassailable foundation. Antiquity is unanimous in ascribing to them the invention and practice of all those arts, sciences, and contrivances that facilitate the prosecution of commercial undertakings. They are held to be the inventors of arithmetic, weights and measures, of money, of the art of keeping accounts, and, in short, of every thing that belongs to the business of a counting-house. They were, also, famous for the invention of ship building and navigation; for the discovery of glass—(see GLASS); for their manufactures of fine linen and tapestry; for their skill in architecture, and in the art of working metals and ivory; and still more for the incomparable splendour and beauty of their purple dye.—(See the learned and invaluable work of the President de Goguet, *Sur L'Origine des Loix, &c.* Eng. trans. vol. i. p. 296., and vol. ii. pp. 95—100.; see also the chapter of Heeren on the *Manufactures and Land Commerce of the Phœnicians.*)

But the invention and dissemination of these highly useful arts form but a part of what the people of Europe owe to the Phœnicians. It is not possible to say in what degree the religion of the Greeks was borrowed from theirs; but that it was to a pretty large extent seems abundantly certain. Hercules, under the name of Melcarthus, was the tutelary deity of Tyre; and his expeditions along the shores of the Mediterranean, and to the straits connecting it with the ocean, seem to be merely a poetical representation of the progress of the Phœnician navigators, who introduced arts and civilisation, and established the worship of Hercules, wherever they went. The temple erected in honour of the god at Gades was long regarded with peculiar veneration.

The Greeks were, however, indebted to the Phœnicians, not merely for the rudiments of civilisation, but for the great instrument of its future progress—the gift of letters! No fact in ancient history is better established than that a knowledge of alphabetic writing was first carried to Greece by Phœnician adventurers: and it may be safely affirmed, that this was the greatest boon any people ever received at the hands of another.

Before quitting this subject, we may briefly advert to the statement of Herodotus with respect to the circumnavigation of Africa by Phœnician sailors. The venerable father of history mentions, that a fleet fitted out by Necho king of Egypt, but manned and commanded by Phœnicians, took its departure from a port on the Red Sea, at an epoch which is believed to correspond with the year 604 before the Christian era, and that keeping always to the right, they doubled the southern promontory of Africa; and returned, after a voyage of 3 years, to Egypt, by the Pillars of Hercules.—(*Herod. lib. iv. § 42.*) Herodotus further mentions, that they related that, in sailing round Africa, they had the sun on their right hand, or to the north,—a circumstance which he frankly acknowledges seemed incredible to him, but which, as every one is now aware, must have been the case if the voyage was actually performed.

Many learned and able writers, and particularly Gosselin (*Recherches sur la Géographie Systématique et Positive des Anciens*, tome i. pp. 204—217.), have treated this account as fabulous. But the objections of Gosselin have been successfully answered in an elaborate note by Larcher (*Hérodote*, tome iii. pp. 458—464. ed. 1802.; and Major Rennell has sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the voyage (*Geography of Herodotus*, p. 692. &c.). Without entering upon this discussion, we may observe, that not one of those who question the authenticity of the account given by Herodotus, presume to doubt that the Phœnicians braved the boisterous seas on the coasts of Spain, Gaul, and Britain; and that they had, partially at least, explored the Indian Ocean. But the ships and seamen that did this much, might, undoubtedly, under favourable circumstances, double the Cape of Good Hope. The relation of Herodotus has, besides, such an appearance of good faith; and the circumstance which he doubts, of the navigators having the sun on the right, affords so strong a confirmation of its truth; that there really seems no reasonable ground for doubting that the Phœnicians preceded, by 2,000 years, Vasco de Gama in his perilous enterprise.

Present State of Syria.—The principal modern ports on the coast of Syria are Alexandria, Latakia, Tripoli, Beyrout, Seyde, and Acre. The commerce which they carry on is but inconsiderable. This, however, is not owing to the badness of the ports, the unsuitableness of the country, or to any natural cause, but wholly to long continued oppression and misgovernment. There is a passage in the dedication to Sandys' *Travels*, that describes the modern state of Syria, Asia Minor, Egypt, &c. with a force and eloquence which it is not very likely will soon be surpassed:—

“Those countries, once so glorious and famous for their happy estate, are now, through vice and ingratitude, become the most deplorable spectacles of extreme misery; the wild beasts of mankind having broken in upon them and rooted out all civility, and the pride of a stern and barbarous tyrant possessing the thrones of ancient and just dominion. Who, syring only at the height of greatness and sensuality, hath in tract of time reduced so great and goodly a part of the world, to that lamentable distresse and servitude under which (to the astonishment of the understanding beholders) it now faints and groweth. Those

rich lands at this present remain waste and overgrown with bushes, receptacles of wild beasts, of thieves and murderers; large territories dispeopled or thinly inhabited; goodly cities made desolate; sumptuous buildings become ruins; glorious temples either subverted, or prostituted to impiecy; true religion discountenanced and oppressed; all nobilitie extinguished; no light of learning permitted, nor vertue cherished; violence and rapine insulting over all, and leaving no securitie save to an sbject mind and unlook on povertie."

Those who compare this beautiful passage with the authentic statements of Volney— incomparably the best of the modern travellers who have visited the countries referred to— will find that it is as accurate as it is eloquent.

U. V.

VALONIA, a species of acorn, forming a very considerable article of export from the Morea and the Levant. The more substance there is in the husk, or cup of the acorn, the better. It is of a bright drab colour, which it preserves so long as it is kept dry: any dampness injures it; as it then turns black, and loses both its strength and value. It is principally used by tanners, and is always in demand. Though a very bulky article, it is uniformly bought and sold by weight. A ship can only take a small proportion of her registered tonnage of valonia, so that its freight per ton is always high. The price in the London market, in March, 1834, varied from 12*l.* to 15*l.* per ton.

The entries of valonia for home consumption in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 146,846 cwt. a year. Of 134,307 cwt. of valonia, imported in 1831, 102,226 were brought from Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea; 17,645 cwt. mostly at second hand, from Italy and the Italian islands; 7,461 cwt. from the Ionian Islands; 3,116 from the Morea and the Greek islands; and 3,959 cwt. from the Philippines.

VALPARAISO, the principal sea-port of Chili, in lat. 33° 1' 48" S., long. 71° 31' 8" W. Population uncertain, perhaps 6,000 or 7,000. The water in the bay is deep, and it affords a secure anchorage, except during northerly gales, to the violence of which it is exposed; but as the holding ground is good, and the pull of the anchor against a steep hill, accidents seldom occur to ships properly found in anchors and cables. There is no mole or jetty; but the water close to the shore is so deep, that it is customary for the smaller class of vessels to carry out an anchor to the northward, and to moor the ship with the stern ashore by another cable, made fast to the shore. Large ships lie a little further off, and load and unload by means of lighters. The best shelter is in that part called the Fisherman's Bay, lying between the castle and fort St. Antonio, where, close to a clear shingle beach, there is 9 fathoms water. In the very worst weather, a landing may be effected in this part of the bay.—(See *Miers's Travels in Chili and La Plata*, vol. i. p. 440., where there is a plan of Valparaiso.) The harbours of Valdivia and Concepcion are much superior to that of Valparaiso; the former being, indeed, not only the best in Chili, but second to few in any part of the world. But Valparaiso, being near the capital, Santiago, and being the central *dépôt* for the resources of the province, is most frequented. The town is inconveniently situated, at the extremity of a mountainous ridge; most of the houses being built either upon its acclivity or in its breaches. Large quantities of corn and other articles of provision are shipped here for Callao and Panama, but principally for the former. Exclusive of wheat, the principal articles of export are tallow and hides, copper, the precious metals, indigo, wool, sarsaparilla, &c. It appears from the account laid before the reader in another article—(see vol. ii. p. 345.)—that the produce of the gold mines of Chili, had materially increased during the 20 years ending with 1829, as compared with the previous 20 years. At present, the average produce of both the gold and silver mines may, we believe, be taken at about 175,000*l.* a year. There is a great want of capital in the country; and the anarchy and insecurity that have prevailed since the commencement of the revolutionary war have been very unfavourable to all sorts of industry. There can, however, be no doubt that Chili has already gained considerably, and that she will every day gain more, by her emancipation from the yoke of Old Spain. The trade we carry on with this distant country already amounts to above 1,000,000*l.* a year; and there can be no doubt that it will become far more extensive. In 1831, the declared or real value of the exports of British produce and manufactures from this country to Chili amounted to 651,617*l.*; of this sum, the exports of cotton goods amounted to about 460,000*l.*, those of woollens to 158,000*l.*, linen to 19,000*l.* &c. Chili also imports spices, tea, wine, sugar, coffee, tobacco, &c. A small part, however, of the imports are re-exported for Peru.

A country with a scanty population, which imports so extensively, cannot be in the wretched condition that Mr. Miers and other disappointed travellers would have us believe. The candour and good sense of M. de la Perouse are above all question; and every one who compares his remarks on the condition of Chili with what has now been stated, must see that its commerce, at least, has gained prodigiously by the revolution.

"The influence of the government is in constant opposition to that of the climate. The system of prohibition exists at Chili in its fullest extent. This kingdom, of which the productions would, if increased to their maximum, supply all Europe; whose wool would be sufficient for the manufactures of France and England; and whose herds, converted into salt provisions, would produce a vast revenue;—this kingdom, alas! has no commerce. Four or five small vessels bring, every year, from Lima, tobacco, sugar, and some articles of European manufacture, which the miserable inhabitants can obtain only at second or third hand, after they have been charged with heavy customs duties at Cadix, at Lima, and lastly, at their arrival in Chili; in exchange they give their tallow, hides, some deals, and their wheat, which, however, is at so low a price, that the cultivator has no inducement to extend his tillage. Thus Chili, with all its gold, and articles of exchange, can scarcely procure sugars, tobacco, stuffs, linens, cambrics, and hardware, necessary to the ordinary wants of life."—(*Perouse's Voyage*, vol. i. p. 50. Eng. ed.)

Instead, however, of 4 or 5 small ships from Lima, in 1831, 43 British ships, carrying 8,281 tons, entered Valparaiso only, besides several at the other ports! All sorts of European goods are carried direct to Chili, and are admitted at reasonable duties. The advantages resulting from this extensive intercourse with foreigners, and from the settlement of English adventurers in the country, have been already immense, and will every day become more visible. It was impossible, considering the ignorance of the mass of the people, that the old system of tyranny and superstition could be pulled to pieces without a good deal of violence and mischief; but the foundations of a better order of things have been laid; nor can there be a doubt that Chili is destined to become an opulent and a flourishing country.

Monies, Weights, and Measures of Chili are the same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ. The quintal of 4 arrobas, or 100 lbs., = 101.44 lbs. avoirdupois. The fanega, or principal corn measure, contains 2,439 English cubic inches, and is therefore = 1.599 Winch. bushels. Hence 5 fanegas = 1 Winch. quarter very nearly. The vara, or measure of length, = 33.864 Eng. inches.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, a large island belonging to Great Britain, forming part of Australia, lying between $41^{\circ} 20'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ S. lat., and $144^{\circ} 40'$ and $148^{\circ} 20'$ W. long. It is supposed to contain about 15,000,000 acres.

This land was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, in 1642, and was named in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, at that time governor-general of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. Previously to 1798, it was supposed to form part of New Holland, but it was then ascertained to be an island. It was taken possession of by the British in 1803; and in 1804, Hobart Town, the capital, was founded.

The surface is generally hilly and mountainous; but, though none of the land be of the first quality, there are several moderately fertile plains, and a good deal of the hilly ground is susceptible of being cultivated. On the whole, however, it is not supposed that more than about a third part of the entire surface of the island can be considered arable; but about a third more may be advantageously used as sheep pasture. As compared with New Holland, it is well watered. The climate, though very variable, is, generally speaking, good, and suitable for European constitutions; and it is not exposed to the tremendous droughts that occasion so much mischief in New South Wales. Wheat is raised in considerable quantities. Wool, however, is at present the staple produce of the colony.

Van Diemen's Land, like New South Wales, was originally intended to serve as a penal colony, and convicts are still sent to it; latterly, however, it has received a very considerable number of free settlers. In 1830, the total population of the island, exclusive of aborigines, amounted to 23,169, of whom about 10,000 were convicts. The disparity between the sexes is not quite so great here as in New South Wales.

The prosperity of the colony was formerly a good deal retarded by the enormities committed by a banditti of runaway convicts, known by the name of bush-rangers; and more recently by the hostilities of the natives. Vigorous measures have, however, been adopted for the suppression of such outrages, by confining the natives within a limited district; and it is to be hoped that they may be effectual.

Hobart Town is situated in the southern part of the island, on the west side of the river Derwent, near its junction with Storm Bay, in lat. $42^{\circ} 54'$ S., lon. $147^{\circ} 28'$ E. The water is deep, and the anchorage good. A jetty has been constructed, accessible to the largest ships. The situation appears to have been very well chosen; and the town has been judiciously laid out. In December, 1832, the district of Hobart Town contained 10,101 inhabitants, of which were, *free*, males 3,850, females 2,776; *convicts*, males 2,899, females 776. The population of the town itself, at the epoch referred to, was about 9,600. The houses are supposed to be worth, at an average, 50% a year. There are several printing establishments in the town, and no fewer than 9 or 10 newspapers, some of them very well conducted. There is also a Book Society, a Mechanics' Institute, and several respectable schools and academies. The Van Diemen's Land Banking Company, the Derwent Bank, and the Commercial Bank, have each offices in Hobart Town. They are joint-stock companies.

Launceston, the second town in the island, is situated in the northern part, at the head of the navigable river Tamar, which falls into Port Dalrymple. Its population may amount

is about 5,000. It has a considerable trade with Sydney and Hobart Town, and it has begun to trade direct to England.

Trade of Van Diemen's Land.—Imports.—Malt liquors, rum, brandy, and wine, form the principal part of the imports into the colony. Next to them are piece goods, hardware, tea, sugar, &c.

Account of the Exports from the United Kingdom to Van Diemen's Land during each of the Five Years ending with 1831.

Articles.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
British and Irish produce and manufactures, Declared value.					
Apparel, cloths, and haberdashery	15,028	23,351	15,474	28,119	26,618
Beer and ale	7,865	4,390	8,049	7,358	8,540
Clothes and upholstered wares	840	188	315	1,376	492
Cotton manufactures	11,107	11,298	4,534	5,285	19,013
Glass and earthenware	5,691	6,189	3,543	4,476	8,639
Iron, steel, and hardware	8,719	10,938	7,878	10,839	16,011
Leather and saddlery	1,959	5-30	1,068	2,549	2,683
Linen	4,029	2,518	1,246	3,158	3,810
Soap	236	3,399	119	163	60
Silk	840	1,954	1,273	3,291	8,761
Sugar and candles	3,078	840	832	999	959
Stationery	3,057	2,165	1,770	1,968	2,547
Woolen goods	6,734	6,387	4,849	7,918	8,376
All other articles	16,132	20,598	8,245	16,616	17,124
Total	88,008	100,781	51,981	94,430	119,444
Foreign and colonial produce, Quantities.					
Sheep	308	695	-	115	-
Spirits, brandy	13,284	26,352	7,315	1,776	9,278
Wine	3,647	4,420	4,281	1,776	1,679
Rum	75,178	77,153	31,461	30,304	56,963
of the British North American colonies	7,965	-	-	-	-
Tea	3,448	-	899	3,016	2,756
Wines	30,532	30,458	15,191	16,064	18,113

Exclusive of the imports from the mother country, Van Diemen's Land imports sugar from the Mauritius, wine and fruit from the Cape, tea from China or Singapore, piece goods from India, tobacco from Brazil, and beef, bacon, cheese, horses, &c. from New South Wales. According to the statements in the papers published by the Board of Trade (vol. i. p. 251.), the total value of the imports in 1830, was 255,398*l.*, of which, 153,478*l.* was supplied by Great Britain, 93,251*l.* by British possessions, and 108,669*l.* by foreign states.

Exports.—Wool forms by far the principal article of export, and next to it is wheat, principally sent to Sydney, whale oil, whalebone, timber, minnow bark, live stock, potatoes, &c. The increase in the exports of wool is quite extraordinary. It is almost wholly brought to England.

Account of the Imports of Wool from Van Diemen's Land into the United Kingdom from 1827 to 1833, both inclusive.

Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.
1827	131,073	1829	985,330	1831	1,259,928	1833	1,547,301*
1828	52,846	1830	993,978	1832	911,131		

In 1831, the imports of whale oil from Van Diemen's Land amounted to 848 tons; and during the same year, 39,364 cwt. of bark were imported. The total real value of the articles exported in 1830 was estimated at 170,000*l.*, distributed as follows:—

Articles.	Amount.	Articles.	Amount.
Wool	48,000	Hides	600
Wheat	40,000	Seal skins	400
Oil	17,000	Opium and kangaroo ditto	400
Whalebone	6,000	Minnow bark	2,000
Flour	3,000	Timber	1,000
Live stock	5,000	Unenumerated goods	41,000
Potatoes	4,500		
Butter and oats	500		
		Total	170,000

Coin, Weights, and Measures, same as in England. The Spanish dollar circulates at 4*s.* 4*d.*

Shipping, &c.—In 1830, there belonged to the island 26 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 2,151 tons.

Arrivals at Hobart Town in 1832.—There arrived during the year, 51 ships, of the burden of 18,214 tons; 25 brigs, of 4,201 tons; and 29 schooners, of 1,948 tons; making in all, 105 vessels, of the burden of 24,363 tons. Of these, were from England 41, New South Wales 35, India and China 3, Swan River 1, New Zealand 8, Astory 2, Mauritius 5, Launceston 10, and Desolation Island 1.

Revenue, &c.—The customs duties collected in the colony amount to about 50,000*l.* a year, and the whole ordinary revenue is about 70,000*l.*; to which has to be added, the revenue derived from the sale of land, and other sources. Government contributes about 120,000*l.* a year in aid of the colonial revenue, to defray the expenses of the convict establishments, &c.

For the regulations as to the granting of land in Van Diemen's Land, &c., see SYDNEY.

Immigrants.—Of these there arrived at Van Diemen's Land, during 1832, men 926, women 769, children 416; in all, 2,131.

* The imports of wool from New South Wales in 1833, were 1,969,608 lbs.; making the total imports from Australia in that year, 3,516,869 lbs.

in case of George Town, or the weather not permitting the going to sea, if he be not ready to show the channel by keeping his boat a fair way until the ship can be boarded, he shall forfeit 1/2 the value of the cargo.

For every number of inches below 6, no charge is to be made; for 6 to 10 upwards, 1 shilling is to be charged.

Charter receipts are exempted from the payment of pilotage, unless in master shall make the signal for a pilot and accept his service.

the payment of the foregoing dues, unless the services of the harbour master be specifically required.

At Port Dalrymple.

	L.	s.	d.
For each removal of a ship or vessel from anchorage or moorings, to other anchorage or moorings, under 200 tons	0	10	0
200 tons and under 300	0	10	0
300 tons and under 400	0	10	0
400 tons and under 500	0	2	0
500 tons and upwards	0	10	0

Each vessel entering the harbour will be charged with 2 removals. Vessels belonging to the port are not in any harbour dues. No vessels to be deemed colonial that are not registered in Van Diemen's Land.

Harbour Dues at the Derwent.

	L.	s.	d.
For securing and unmooring a vessel within the harbour per register ton	0	0	1
For each removal of the ship within the harbour, per register ton	0	0	1
Colonial vessels under 80 tons per register, to be exempted from			

These details have been principally derived from *An Account of Van Diemen's Land*, published at Robert Town in 1833; and partly from Lieut. Breton's book, and different *Parliamentary Papers*.

(Population.—Including military, the total population of Van Diemen's Land amounted, in December, 1838, to 45,846, of whom 18,133 were convicts. The males are to the females in the proportion of about 7 to 1, and the free to the convict population nearly as 7 to 18. The total estimated value of the articles of colonial produce exported from the colony in 1838 was 581,475*l.*; the value of the imports during the same year being 702,951*l.*

Statement of the Value of the different Articles exported from Van Diemen's Land in 1835.

Articles	Amount.	Articles.	Amount.
<i>L.</i>	46,064	Potatoes	2,751
Wool	37,759	Fur, seal skins, opossum and kangaroo skins	3,345
Oil	54,180	Bark	11,932
Whalebone	10,836	Unenumerated goods	41,588
Tanned	6,026		
Line and	7,188	Total	321,578

The progress of the colony during the last few years has been singularly rapid, particularly in the breeding of sheep, its most valuable branch of industry. In 1828, for example, the stock of sheep amounted to 63,000 head, whereas in 1838 it had increased to 1,314,465 head. The export of wool has increased in like proportion, having advanced from 99,415 lbs. in 1820, to 993,979 lbs. in 1830, and to 2,609,520 lbs. in 1838. The revenue of the colony was 52,483*l.* in 1827, and 136,591*l.* in 1838. In the latter year there belonged to the colony 101 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 8,362 tons.—*Sup.*

VANILLA. The fruit of the *Epidendrum Vanilla*, a species of vine extensively cultivated in Mexico. It has a trailing stem, not unlike the common ivy, but not so woolly, which attaches itself to any tree that grows near it. The Indians propagate it by planting cuttings at the foot of trees selected for that purpose. It rises to the height of 18 or 20 feet; the flowers are of a greenish yellow colour, mixed with white; the fruit is about 8 or 10 inches long, of a yellow colour when gathered, but dark brown or black when imported into Europe; it is wrinkled on the outside, and full of a vast number of seeds like grains of sand, having, when properly prepared, a peculiar and delicious fragrance. It is principally used for mixing with and perfuming chocolate, and is, on that account, largely imported into Spain; but as chocolate, owing to oppressive duties, is little used in England, vanilla is not much known in this country.

Vanilla is principally gathered in the intendency of Vera Cruz, in Mexico, at Misantla, Colipa, Vacuaton, and other places. It is collected by the Indians, who sell it to the whites (*gente de razón*), who prepare it for the market. They spread it to dry in sun for some hours, then wrap it in woollen cloths to sweat. Like pepper, it changes its colour in this operation—becoming almost black. It is finally dried by exposing it to the sun for a day. There are four varieties of vanilla, all differing in price and excellence; viz. the *vanilla fina*, the *zacate*, the *rezacate*, and the *vanura*. The best comes from the forests surrounding the villages of Zentila, in the intendency of Oaxaca. According to Humboldt, the mean exportation of vanilla from Vera Cruz may amount to from 900 to 1,000 millares, worth at Vera Cruz from 30,000 to 40,000 dollars.—Vanilla is also imported from Brazil, but it is very inferior. The finest Mexican vanilla is extremely high priced. All sorts are subjected in this country to a duty of 5*s.* per lb.—(See *Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, 2d edit. tome iii. pp. 37, 46.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 194, &c.)

VELLIUM, a species of fine parchment.—(See **PARCHMENT**.)

(VENEZUELA.—An account of the trade of La Guayra, the principal port of this republic, in 1820, 1820, and 1831, is given under the article **LA GUAYRA**. The following details with respect to the foreign trade of the republic in 1833-34, are taken from the official statements contained in the Report of the *Secretario de Hacienda*, published at Caracas in 1835.

Exports.—Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported by Sea from Venezuela in 1833-34.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Coffee	Lbs.	Dollars.	Dye-woods	Lbs.	Dollars.
11,631,094	1,283,858	17,668,858	Tobacco, hides, balise, and all other articles	-	816,837
5,344,616	766,448		Total	-	8,384,463
421,808	564,818				

Imports.—During the same year the total value of the imports was 3,296,411 dollars; of these the value of the cotton goods was 1,063,537 dollars; linens, 615,370 dollars; woollens, 75,437 dollars; silk, 99,913 dollars; flour, 140,770 dollars; pork, 123,477 dollars, &c.

Statement of the Import and Export Trade of Venekush. In 1833-34, exhibiting the Amount of the Trade with each Country.

Countries.	Imports and Exports.			Duties on Imports and Exports.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Great Britain	897,742-78	5,054,42-09	1,418,284-84	238,882-35	28,579-16	266,461-51
United States	74,081-33	1,115,490-98	1,888,551-71	37,708-88	30,824-25	68,533-13
France	61,989-31	303,750-21	365,739-42	23,732-83	5,757-43	29,490-26
Germany	3,853-236	384,627-28	711,499-63	103,548-98	10,339-60	113,888-58
Spain	82,398-01	205,760-60	288,158-67	12,550-81	9,774-36	22,325-17
New Grenada	143-30	18,794-53	18,938-23	46-87	107-49	154-36
Holland	80,507-20	158,459-48	218,966-75	27,510-65	3,467-71	31,078-36
Denmark	260,101-15	740,013-33	1,720,309-48	280,996-90	81,778-38	362,775-28
Mexico	5,030	-	5,030	-	-	5,030
Sweden	-	38,868-18	38,868-18	-	965-83	965-83
Italy	-	1,018-90	1,018-90	-	2-91	2-91
Various	66,410-30	18,316-67	84,726-97	19,163-56	821-63	19,985-19
Total	3,296,411-31	5,394,483-41	6,690,894-72	968,538-31	117,899-82	1,086,438-13

The trade under the head of Denmark is entirely carried on with the island of St. Thomas.

The total imports and exports from La Guayra in 1833-34 were 3,331,190 dollars, being more than half the trade of the republic. The imports and exports from Puerto Cabello during the same year were 1,455,721 dollars; the rest were from Maracaybo, Guiana, &c. The countries to which the shipping frequenting the ports of the republic belonged, is not specified; but, in all, there cleared out 212 foreign ships of the burden of 22,532 tons.—*Sup.*

VENICE, a famous city of Austrian Italy, formerly the capital of the republic of that name, situated on a cluster of small islands towards the northern extremity of the Adriatic, in lat. 45° 25' 53" N., lon. 12° 20' 31" E. Population about 100,000. The commerce of Venice, once the most extensive of any European city, is now comparatively trifling; and the population is gradually diminishing both in numbers and wealth. Her imports consist of wheat, and other sorts of grain, from the adjoining provinces of Lombardy and the Black Sea; olive oil, principally from the Ionian Islands; cotton stuffs and hardware from England; sugar, coffee, and other colonial products from England, the United States, Brazil, &c.; dried fish, dye stuffs, &c. The exports principally consist of grain, raw and wrought silk, paper, woollen manufactures, fruits, cheese, &c., the products of the adjoining provinces of Italy, and of her own industry; but her manufactures, so famous in the middle ages, are now much decayed.

Port.—The islands on which Venice is built lie within a line of long, low, narrow islands, running N. and S., and enclosing what is termed the lagoon, that surround the city, and separate it from the main land. The principal entrance from the sea to the lagoon is at Malamocco, about 1½ league S. from the city; but there are other, though less frequented, entrances, both to the S. and the N. of this one. There is a bar outside Malamocco, on which there are not more than 10 feet at high water at spring tides; but there is a channel between the western point of the bar and the village of San Pietro, which has 16 feet water at springs, and 14 at neaps. Merchant vessels usually moor off the ducal palace; but sometimes they come into the grand canal which intersects the city, and sometimes they moor in the wider channel of the Giudecca. Vessels coming from the south for the most part make Pirano or Rovigno on the coast of Istria, where they take on board pilots, who carry them to the bar opposite to Malamocco. But the employment of Istrian pilots is quite optional with the master, and is not, as is sometimes represented, a compulsory regulation. When one is taken, the usual fee from Pirano or Rovigno to the bar is 30 Austrian dollars, or about 4*l.* On arriving at the bar, ships are conducted across it and into port by pilots, whose duty it is to meet them outside, or on the bar, and of whose services they must avail themselves.—(For the charges on account of pilotage, see post.)

Money.—Formerly there were various methods of accounting here; but now accounts are kept, as at Genoa, in lire italiane, divided into centesimi, or 100th parts. The lira is supposed to be of the same weight, fineness, and, consequently, value as the franc. But the coins actually in circulation, denominated lira, are respectively equal in sterling value to about 3*d.* and 4½*d.* The latter are coined by the Austrian government.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are here, as at Genoa, of two sorts; and the *peso sottile* and the *peso grosso*. The French kilogramme, called the libbra italiana, is also sometimes introduced.

100 lbs. peso grosso = 105-186 lbs. avoirdupois.	100 lbs. peso sottile = 65-428 lbs. avoirdupois.
— 127-830 lbs. Troy.	— 60-728 lbs. Troy.
— 47-608 kilogrammes.	— 30-123 kilogrammes.
— 98-435 lbs. of Hamburg.	— 62-191 lbs. of Hamburg.
— 99-569 lbs. of Amsterdam.	— 60-986 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The moggio, or measure for corn, is divided into 4 staja, 16 quarts, or 64 quartaroli. The staja = 3-27 Dutch bushels.

The measure for wine, anfora = 4 bizonzi, or 8 mastelli, or 48 sechil, or 192 bozza, or 768 quartuzzi. It contains 137 English wine gallons.

The botta = 5 bizonzi. Oil is sold by weight or measure. The botta contains 3 miglaja, or 60 mudi of 25 lbs. peso grosso. The tiro = 4-028 English wine gallons.

The braccio, or long measure, for woollens = 26-6 English inches; the braccio for silks = 21-8 *d.* The foot of Venice = 13-68 English inches.—(*Netherlands*, and *Dr. Kelly*.)

Historical Notice.—Venice was the earliest, and for a lengthened period the most considerable, commercial city of modern Europe. Her origin dates from the invasion of Italy by Attila in 452. A number of the inhabitants of Aquileia, and the neighbouring territory, flying from the ravages of the barbarians, found a pure but secure asylum in the cluster of small islands opposite to the mouth of the Brenta, near the head of the Adriatic Gulf. In

36,411 dollars; of these the
dollars, 73,457 dollars; silk,

hibiting the Amount of the

Use on Imports and Exports.

	Exports.	Total.
	Dollars.	Dollars.
6	26,116 18	26,281 41
8	33,622 25	36,330 63
8	5,757 49	31,430 37
8	10,238 63	112,538 56
1	9,774 36	32,121 17
7	117 48	214 36
8	3,801 71	31,372 23
0	23,718 36	236,271 48
	965 63	965 63
	3 91	3 91
	821 63	19,923 24
1	117,699 82	1,097,236 13

and of St. Thomas.
90 dollars, being more than
bello during the same year
countries in which the ship-
in all, there cleared out 212

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extremity of the Adriatic,
00,000. The commerce
comparatively trifling; and
h. Her imports consist
Lombardy and the Black
hardware from England;
States, Brazil, &c.; dried
and wrought silk, paper,
sining provinces of Italy,
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w, narrow islands, running
round the city, and separate
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60-986 lbs. of Amsterdam.
quartzrol. The *staja* = 2 27

192 bozze, or 768 quartuzzl.

contains 2 miglaja, or 80 mirl

braccio for silks = 21 8 d.

ed period the most com-
on the invasion of Italy
the neighbouring territory,
asylum in the cluster of
f the Adriatic Gulf. In

this situation they were forced to cultivate commerce and its subsidiary arts, as the only means by which they could maintain themselves. At a very early period they began to trade with Constantinople and the Levant; and notwithstanding the competition of the Genoese and Pisans, they continued to engross the principal trade in Eastern products, till the discovery of a route to India by the Cape of Good Hope turned this traffic into a totally new channel. The crusades contributed to increase the wealth, and to extend the commerce and the possessions of Venice. Towards the middle of the 15th century, when the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II., entered Constantinople sword in hand, and placed himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian, the power of the Venetians had attained its maximum. At that period, besides several extensive, populous, and well cultivated provinces in Lombardy, the republic was mistress of Crete and Cyprus, of the greater part of the Morea, and most of the isles in the Egean Sea. She had secured a chain of forts and factories that extended along the coasts of Greece from the Morea to Dalmatia; while she monopolised almost the whole foreign trade of Egypt. The preservation of this monopoly, of the absolute dominion she had early usurped over the Adriatic, and of the dependence of her colonies and distant establishments, were amongst the principal objects of the Venetian government; and the measures it adopted in that view were at once skilfully devised, and prosecuted with inflexible consistency. With the single exception of Rome, Venice, in the 15th century, was by far the richest and most magnificent of European cities; and her singular situation in the midst of the sea, on which she seems to float, contributed to impress those who visited her with still higher notions of her wealth and grandeur. Sannazarius is not the only one who has preferred Venice to the ancient capital of the world; but none have so beautifully expressed their preference.

Viderat Adriacis Venetam Neptunus in undis,
Stare urbem, et toto ponere jura mari.
Nunc mihi Tarpeas quantumvis, Jupiter, arces
Objice, et illa tua mœnia Martia, sit:
Si Tiberim pelago præfers, urbem aspice utramque,
Illam homines dicas, hanc possuisse Deos.

Though justly regarded as one of the principal bulwarks of Christendom against the Turks, Venice had to contend, in the early part of the 16th century, against a combination of the European powers. The famous league of Cambray, of which Pope Julius II. was the real author, was formed for the avowed purpose of effecting the entire subjugation of the Venetians, and the partition of their territories. The emperor and the kings of France and Spain joined this powerful confederacy. But, owing less to the valour of the Venetians, than to dissensions amongst their enemies, the league was speedily dissolved without materially weakening the power of the republic. From that period the policy of Venice was comparatively pacific and cautious. But notwithstanding her efforts to keep on good terms with the Turks, the latter invaded Cyprus in 1570; and conquered it after a gallant resistance, continued for 11 years. The Venetians had the principal share in the decisive victory gained over the Turks at Lepanto in 1571: but owing to the discordant views of the confederates, it was not properly followed up, and could not prevent the fall of Cyprus.

The war with the Turks in Candia commenced in 1645, and continued till 1670. The Venetians exerted all their energies in defence of this valuable island; and its acquisition cost the Turks above 200,000 men. The loss of Candia, and the rapid decline of the commerce of the republic, now almost wholly turned into other channels, reduced Venice, at the close of the 17th century, to a state of great exhaustion. She may be said, indeed, to have owed the last 100 years of her existence more to the forbearance and jealousies of others than to any strength of her own. Nothing, however, could avert that fate she had seen overwhelm so many once powerful states. In 1797, the "maiden city" submitted to the yoke of the conqueror: and the last surviving witness of antiquity—the link that united the ancient to the modern world—stripped of independence, of commerce, and of wealth, is now slowly sinking into the waves whence she arose.

The foundation of Venice is described by Gibbon, c. 35.; and in his 60th chapter he has eloquently depicted her prosperity in the year 1200. Mr. Hallam, in his work on the *Middle Ages* (vol. I. pp. 470-487), has given a brief account of the changes of the Venetian government. Her history occupies a considerable space in the voluminous work of M. Siamondi on the *Italian Republics*; but his details as to her trade and commercial policy are singularly meagre and uninteresting. All previous histories of Venice have, however, been thrown into the shade by the admirable work of M. Daru (*Histoire de la République de Venise*, 2d ed. 8 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1821.) Having had access to genuine sources of information, inaccessible to all his predecessors, M. Daru's work is as superior to theirs in accuracy, as it is in most other qualities required in a history.

Trade, Navigation, and Manufactures of the Venetians in the 15th Century.—The Venetian ships of the largest class were denominated galeasses, and were fitted up for the double purpose of war and commerce. Some of them carried 50 pieces of cannon, and crews of 600 men. These vessels were sometimes, also, called argosiers or argosias. They had early an intercourse with England; and argosies used to be common in our ports. In 1326, Edward II. entered into a commercial treaty with Venice, in which full liberty is given

to them, for 10 years, to sell their merchandise in England, and to return home in safety, without being made answerable, as was the practice in those days, for the crimes or debts of other strangers.—(*Anderson's Chron. Deduction, Anno 1325.*) Sir William Monson mentions, that the last argosie that sailed from Venice for England was lost, with a rich cargo and many passengers, on the coast of the Isle of Wight, in 1587.

In the beginning of the 15th century, the annual value of the goods exported from Venice by sea, exclusive of those exported to the states adjoining her provinces in Lombardy, was estimated, by contemporary writers, at 10,000,000 ducats; the profits of the out and home voyage, including freight, being estimated at 4,000,000 ducats. At the period in question, the Venetian shipping consisted of 3,000 vessels of from 100 to 200 tons burden, carrying 17,000 sailors; 300 ships with 8,000 sailors; and 45 galleys of various size, kept afloat by the republic for the protection of her trade, &c., having 11,000 men on board. In the dock-yard, 16,000 labourers were usually employed.* The trade to Syria and Egypt seems to have been conducted principally by ready money; for 500,000 ducats are said to have been annually exported to these countries; 100,000 were sent to England.—(*Daru, tome ii. p. 189, &c.*) The vessels of Venice visited every port of the Mediterranean, and every coast of Europe; and her maritime commerce was, probably, not much inferior to that of all the rest of Christendom. So late as 1518, 5 Venetian galleasses arrived at Antwerp, laden with spices, drugs, silks, &c. for the fair at that city.

The Venetians did not, however, confine themselves to the supply of Europe with the commodities of the East, and to the extension and improvement of navigation. They attempted new arts, and prosecuted them with vigour and success, at a period when they were entirely unknown in other European countries. The glass manufacture of Venice was the first, and for a long time the most celebrated, of any in Europe; and her manufactures of silk, cloth of gold, leather, refined sugar, &c. were deservedly esteemed. The jealousy of the government, and their intolerance of any thing like free discussion, was unfavourable to the production of great literary works. Every scholar is, however, aware of the fame which Venice early acquired by the perfection to which she carried the art of printing. The classics that issued from the Aldine presses are still universally and justly admired for their beauty and correctness. The Bank of Venice was established in the 12th century. It continued throughout a bank of deposit merely, and was skilfully conducted.

But the policy of government, though favourable to the introduction and establishment of manufactures, was fatal to their progressive advancement. The importation of foreign manufactured commodities into the territories of the republic for domestic consumption was forbidden under the severest penalties. The processes to be followed in the manufacture of most articles were regulated by law.—“*Dès l'année 1172, un tribunal avoit été créé pour la police des arts et métiers, la qualité et la quantité des matières furent soigneusement déterminées.*”—(*Daru, tome iii. p. 153.*) Having, in this way, little to fear from foreign competition, and being tied down to a system of routine, there was nothing left to stimulate invention and discovery; and during the last century the manufactures of Venices were chiefly remarkable as evincing the extraordinary perfection to which they had early arrived, and the absence of all recent improvements. An unexceptionable judge, M. Berthollet, employed by the French government to report on the state of the arts of Venice, observed, “*Que l'industrie des Vénitiens, comme celle des Chinois, avoit été précoce, mais étoit restée stationnaire.*”—(*Daru, tome iii. p. 161.*)

M. Daru has given the following extract from an article in the statutes of the State Inquisition, which strikingly displays the real character of the Venetian government, and their jealousy of foreigners:—“If any workman or artisan carry his art to a foreign country, to the prejudice of the republic, he shall be ordered to return; if he do not obey, his nearest relations shall be imprisoned, that his regard for them may induce him to come back. If he return, the past shall be forgiven, and employment shall be provided for him at Venice. If, in despite of the imprisonment of his relations, he persevere in his absence, an emissary shall be employed to despatch him; and after his death his relations shall be set at liberty!”—(*Tom. iii. p. 150.*)

The 19th book of M. Daru's history contains a comprehensive and well-digested account of the commerce, manufactures, and navigation of Venice. But it was not possible, in a work on the general history of the republic, to enter so fully into the details as to these subjects as their importance would have justified. The *Storia Civile e Politica del Commercio de' Veneziani*, di Carlo Antonio Marin, in 8 vols. 8vo., published at Venice at different periods, from 1798 to 1808, is unworthy of the title. It contains, indeed, a great many curious statements; but it is exceedingly prolix; and while the most important and trivial subjects are frequently discussed at extreme length, many of great interest are either entirely omitted, or are treated in a very brief and unsatisfactory manner. The commercial history of Venice remains to be written; and were it executed by a person of competent attainments, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

Present Trade of Venice.—From the period when Venice came into the possession of Austria, down to 1830, it seems to have been the policy of the government to encourage Trieste in preference to Venice; and the circumstance of the former being a free port, gave her a very decided advantage over

* This is the statement of the native authorities; but there can be no doubt that it is much exaggerated;—1,500 would be a more reasonable number.

to return home in safety, for the crimes or debts of Sir William Monson and was lost, with a rich crew, in 1587.

Goods exported from Venice to the provinces in Lombardy, was the profits of the out and home at the period in question, 200 tons burden, carrying various size, kept afloat by on board. In the dock-eryria and Egypt seems to be scarce are said to have been from the island.—(Daru, tome ii. p. terranean, and every coast inferior to that of all the ed at Antwerp, laden with

the latter. Latterly, however, a more equitable policy has prevailed. In 1830, Venice was made a free port; and has since fully participated in every privilege conferred on Trieste. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the latter still continues to preserve the ascendancy; and the revival of trade that has taken place at Venice has not been so great as might have been anticipated. The *7*th in that respect is so far as she is the entrepôt of the adjoining provinces of Lombardy, Venice has no considerable natural advantage as a trading city; and her extraordinary prosperity during the middle ages is more to be ascribed to the comparative security enjoyed by the inhabitants, and to their success in engrossing the principal share of the commerce of the Levant, than to any other circumstance. Still, however, the trade is far from inconsiderable. But, unfortunately, there are no means by which to ascertain its precise amount. The statements subjoined are to be regarded merely as rough approximations; they have, however, been obtained from the best sources, and come as near the mark as it is perhaps possible to attain. By far the largest part of the exports from Venice are made through Trieste by coasting vessels, that are every day passing between the two cities. The smuggling of prohibited and overtaxed articles into Austrian Lombardy is also practised to a great extent. It is believed that fully 2-3ds of the coffee made use of in Lombardy is clandestinely introduced; and sugar, British cottons, and hardware, with a variety of other articles, are supplied through illegitimate channels. The facilities for smuggling, owing to the nature of the frontier, and the ease with which the officers are corrupted, are such, that the articles passing through the hands of the fair trader afford no test of the real extent of the business done. It is to be hoped that the Austrian government will take an enlightened view of this important matter. It cannot but be anxious for the suppression of smuggling; and it may be assured that this is not practicable otherwise than by a reduction of the duties. The regulations as to the payment of the duties on goods destined for the interior, the clearing of ships, &c., are the same at Venice as Trieste; which see.

Shipping.—There belonged in Venice in 1832—

Vessels.	No.	Tonnage.	Men.
for foreign trade	104	21,841	1,114
coasting do.	107	8,208	646
	211	30,049	1,760

Fishing boats are not of a size to be rated as vessels of tonnage; but Mr. Money thinks that not less than 10,000 of the population subsist by fishing near the port and over the lagoon. The tonnage of Venice has not recently been either on the increase or the decline. Its inconsiderable amount, compared with what it once was, is a striking proof of the decline of this famous emporium.

Arrivals of Ships in the Port of Venice during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Under what Flag.	1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	10	1,537	28	3,520	25	3,098
Hooerian	1	108	2	320	1	10
Italian	1	44				
Austrian	108	25,323	157	29,404	170	35,829
French	1	99	4	369	1	87
Dutch	1	318	5	1,009	3	458
Spanish	1	978	2	1,043	7	1,125
Swedish	5		3	367	3	440
Hopollian	45	19,565	30	7,630	22	8,609
Papal	1	62	5	409	5	569
Portugalian	1	368	2	625	3	468
Greek	4	123	4	320	7	434
Yanica			1	51	2	481
Rumanian			4	615	1	200
Turkish						

A steam-packet has been established between Venice and Trieste; but it is of indifferent construction, and has not succeeded so well as might have been expected.

Shipping Charges in the Port of Venice on Ships of different Nations of the Burden of 300 Tons.

Description of Charge.	If Austrian, or of a Nation having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.		If of a Nation not having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.	
	Austrian <i>Livres</i> .	<i>L. s. d.</i>	Austrian <i>Livres</i> .	<i>L. s. d.</i>
<i>Wharfage.</i> From the bar to the place of finally mooring	81	57	2	1 0 1-2
Out of the port of departure	81	57	2	1 0 1-2
<i>Tonnage Duty.</i> On Austrian <i>livres</i> (8d. sterling) per ton (Originally levied on all ships not Austrian.)	Free.		300	0 10 0 0
<i>Clearing Charge.</i> If in a port out of the Gulf of Venice (but if in a port in the Gulf, 1s. 2 1-4d. less in all cases)	8	30	0	1 6 1-2
<i>Quarantine Charge.</i> If performing 7 days, being the usual time for vessels from England	29	37	1	8 3
Total of ordinary charges	104	71	5	9 9 1-2
If in long quarantine, all ships pay extra	35	74	0	17 2
If departing in ballast, or with less than 1 2 a cargo, all ships not Austria, or not under treaty to be charged as such, pay extra tonnage duty, 4s cents (about 5 1 2d. sterling) per ton, being, on a 300 ton ship	Free.		135	0 4 10 0
Total of extreme charges	190	45	6	8 11 1-2

well-digested account of the state, in a work on the general state as their importance would be Carlo Antonin Nordin, in 8 worth of the title. It is con- coll; and while the most un- many of great interest are in manner. The commercial in of competent attainments, possession of Austria, down ge Trieste in preference is very decided advantage over

about that it is much exagg-

Imports.—A Statement of the Quantity and Value in British Sterling Money, Weights, &c. of the different Articles furnished by each of the subjoined Places, and imported into Venice, during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Places.	Articles.	1829.			1830.			1831.			
		English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling.	
England	Coffee	—	—	£.	cwt.	885	751	cwt.	811	£.	856
	Cotton wool	—	—	—	—	890	1,108	—	—	—	812
	Dye woods	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	642
	Fish, herrings, pickards	—	—	—	barrels	11,900	13,131	value	—	—	2,737
	Indigo	—	—	—	—	3,367	3,501	—	—	—	5,462
	Iron	—	—	—	lbs.	18,400	2,776	—	—	—	7,600
	Manuf. cotton	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,827
	Sugar	—	—	—	sup. value	—	50,000	sup. value	—	—	8,155
	Tinned plates	—	—	—	tons	718	17,403	—	—	—	52,010
	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,100	—	—	—	1,205
Ionian Islands	Olive oil	tons	4,819	121,908	—	—	—	—	—	—	834
	Fish and tar	—	6,323	4,300	—	—	—	—	—	—	228,080
Norway	Stockfish	—	8,161	88,783	—	—	—	—	—	—	5,928
France (Marseilles)	Coffee	—	—	—	tons	173	2,607	—	—	—	172
	Cinnamon	—	—	—	cwt.	880	1,734	—	—	—	258
	Pepper	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,100
Portugal (Lisbon)	Coffee	—	—	—	cwt.	900	1,613	—	—	—	196
	Sugar	—	—	—	—	1,110	1,404	—	—	—	1,124
Amer. (Bahia & Rio)	Do.	—	—	—	—	10,635	12,188	—	—	—	11,317
	Do.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	34,164
Alexandria	Coffee	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	31,658
—	Cotton wool	value	—	1,500	—	1,010	3,010	—	—	—	65
	Linnæal, &c.	—	—	—	quarters	4,600	3,300	—	—	—	1,240
Ancona	Indian corn	—	—	—	quarters	8,798	9,315	—	—	—	1,258
Naples	Do.	—	—	—	—	9,368	3,741	quarters	6,968	5,225	
Sicily	Do.	quarters	10,000	7,500	—	20,370	15,377	—	—	—	2,930
	Linnæal, &c.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,390
Fuglia	Olive oil	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,984
Odessa	Wheat	tons	8,109	55,488	—	10,356	78,541	—	—	—	70,340
	Do.	—	—	—	—	10,356	30,568	—	—	—	6,813
Trieste	Coffee	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13,718
	Do.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	31,658
—	Cotton wool	—	—	—	—	10,356	30,568	—	—	—	10,223
	Grain, wheat	—	—	—	—	10,356	12,400	—	—	—	9,284
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	858
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,603
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14,500
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,075
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,218
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25,570
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	18,170
—	Iron	—	—	—	—	1,804	1,804	—	—	—	83,010
	Manuf. silk	—	—	—	sup. value	—	80,000	sup. value	—	—	433
—	Wool	—	—	—	—	—	23,000	—	—	—	8,516
	Stockfish	—	—	—	—	—	90,000	—	—	—	83,010
—	Sugar	—	—	—	—	65	836	—	—	—	433
—	—	—	—	—	—	1,831	46,372	—	—	—	53,181

Exports.—An approximate Statement of the Quantities and Value in British Weights, Money, &c. of the principal Articles exported from the Venetian Provinces, during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Articles.	1829.			1830.			1831.		
	English Weight.	Quantity.	Value Pounds Sterling.	English Weight.	Quantity.	Value Pounds Sterling.	English Weight.	Quantity.	Value Pounds Sterling.
Wool	value	—	7,272	value	—	8,687	value	—	5,332
Brick and stone	cwt.	10,445	478	cwt.	17,768	8,862	cwt.	138,418	7,512
Cattle (for Venice)	value	—	10,832	value	—	7,142	value	—	11,495
Cream of tartar	cwt.	678	1,708	cwt.	31	278	cwt.	4	15
Cotton manufactures	—	—	5,959	—	—	176	—	—	17,768
Grain: wheat	—	126,314	58,485	—	55,068	25,434	—	52,414	24,420
	maize	—	14,827	4,455	—	36,210	18,310	—	33,827
rice	—	53,152	20,886	—	24,581	22,581	—	25,474	
seeds	—	327	392	—	—	439	—	301	
Hemp, raw	—	797	1,105	—	708	1,104	—	1,268	
	ropes, &c.	—	8,626	4,650	—	412	759	—	218
cloth, &c.	—	536	4,533	—	1,713	15,860	—	2,000	
Iron bars and plates	—	1,839	1,983	—	2,980	2,827	—	1,947	
	beaten (steel)	—	804	3,707	—	1,945	2,861	—	1,116
manufactures	—	1,508	3,598	—	5,179	6,177	—	308	
Oil of low quality	—	301	2,787	—	79	696	—	67	
Silk, raw	—	122	3,088	—	128	8,417	—	231	
	sewing	—	247	21,085	—	940	85,488	—	404
spin	—	358	20,897	—	131	8,783	—	314	
manufactures	—	—	—	—	41	6,828	—	90	
Salted fish	cwt.	7,438	3,306	—	1,312	978	—	3,171	
Timber, &c.	value	—	46,233	value	—	11,483	value	—	8,129
Wax, manufactured	cwt.	865	7,781	cwt.	190	1,443	—	—	
Woolen, manufactured	—	1,321	54,888	—	763	22,990	cwt.	1,004	
Yarn, twisted	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
paper	—	18,321	71,748	—	24,688	90,828	cwt.	91,950	

Banking Establishments.—The old bank of Venice was founded so far back as 1171, being the most ancient establishment of the kind in Europe. It was a bank of deposit; and such was the estimation in which it was held, that its paper continued to bear an agio as compared with coin down to 1757, when the bank fell with the government by which it had been guaranteed. At present there are no corporate banking establishments in the city; and no bank notes are in circulation. There are, however, several private banking houses, which buy, sell, and discount bills; and make advances on land and other securities. They are under no legal regulations of any sort, except formally declaring the amount of their capital to the authorities when they commence business. The legal and usual rate of interest and discount is 6 per cent. It is not the practice to allow interest on deposits. Bills on London are usually drawn at 3 months, and on Trieste at 1 month.

Brokers, Commission, &c.—The number of brokers is limited, and they are licensed by government; but the business of commission merchant and factor is open to every one. Before, however, commencing any trade or profession at Venice, a petition must be presented for leave to the authorities; but this is more a matter of form than anything else; its prayer being rarely, if ever, refused.

The usual rate of commission and brokerage on the purchase or sale of colonial produce is 3 per cent.

* With the above exceptions, Trieste may be said to have wholly supplied Venice in the year 1830.

Money, Weights, &c. of the
 into Venice, during the

1831.			
English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling.	
751	cwt.	811	2,96
3,131	barrels	2,797	3,738
5,776	lbs.	7,600	15,64
280	tons	1,627	8,155
1,000	sup. value	1,205	50,400
7,988	tons	5,928	228,090
2,007	tons	1,722	2,513
1,734	cwt.	286	50
1,813	lbs.	11,320	15,117
1,404	cwt.	24,164	42,718
2,188	—	65	127
107	—	1,240	5,965
3,200	quarters	0,968	5,212
3,741	—	8,208	5,652
5,377	—	3,100	1,00
9,941	—	2,964	70,540
10,000	sup. value	8,243	118,76
10,568	cwt.	31,566	53,951
2,800	quarters	10,228	17,800
658	—	2,064	1,518
5,850	—	1,813	3,725
7,170	lbs.	14,504	4,218
8,180	value	—	100
10,000	sup. value	—	75,350
10,000	—	—	152,9
10,000	—	—	80,0
10,000	—	—	8,5,0
16,272	—	2,102	53,11

British Weights, Money, &c.,
 during the Years 1829, 1830,

1831.			
English Weight.	Quantity.	Value in Sterling.	
value	—	—	5,332
cwt.	135,418	—	7,52
value	—	—	11,02
cwt.	—	—	15
—	477	—	17,769
—	52,414	—	34,50
—	33,527	—	15,124
—	25,274	—	23,339
—	361	—	402
—	1,000	—	2,572
—	2,8	—	478
—	2,000	—	18,307
—	1,047	—	1,979
—	1,118	—	5,331
—	908	—	300
—	47	—	759
—	231	—	14,691
—	404	—	46,707
—	314	—	25,078
—	90	—	15,017
—	1,171	—	1,014
value	—	—	9,129
—	1,004	—	20,759
cwt.	21,560	—	81,292

back as 1171, being the most
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 ed. At present there are no
 circulation. There are, how-
 and make advances on land
 except formally desiring the
 The legal and usual rate of
 on deposits. Bills on Lon-

are licensed by government;
 one. Before, however, com-
 for leave to the authorities;
 rely, if ever, refused.
 of colonial produce is 2 per

ied Venice in the year 1820.

ent, and on manufactured goods 3 per cent., inclusive of broker's commission, 1 per cent. A ship
 broker's commission on the freight of a whole cargo is 2 per cent., and on a general cargo 4 per cent.
 By the custom of the place, merchants charge 2 per cent. on the inward, and 2 per cent. on the out-
 ward, freight of all ships consigned to them; and this, though they had done no more than recommend
 the master to a broker! A bill broker's commission is 4 per mille. Merchants and bankers charge a
 commission on internal bills of 4 per cent., and on foreign do. of 1 per cent.

Insurance are effected by companies and individuals. The government charges no duty on the
 policies.

Communications with Lombardy are effected by flat-bottomed vessels, which, passing through the
 lagoons, enter the canals and rivers, and make their way through most part of the country watered by
 the Po and its tributaries. The freight of goods from Milan to Venice, distant about 170 miles, is about
 11 per ton. The principal products they bring down are grain, silk, hemp, and flax, cheese, rhubarb,
 &c. The country to the north of Venice affords large quantities of deals, which are shipped for Malia,
 Scilly, and the Levant.

Quarantine is enforced here the same as at Trieste. Ships coming from without the Straits of
 Gibraltar, provided there be no infectious disease on board, are admitted to *pratique* on performing a
 short quarantine of 7 days in a part of the lagoon, about a mile from the city. Long quarantine is
 performed a little farther off. The lazaretto, and establishments for passengers, &c. performing quar-
 antines, are among the best in Europe. Ships having foul bills, or coming from suspicious places, are
 sent thither from Trieste.—(For the quarantine charges, see ante.)

Provisions, Ships' Stores, &c.—These articles may all be had at Venice of excellent quality, but not
 cheap, with, perhaps, the exception of bread. Water is conveyed to the city by lighters, and is, con-
 sequently, pretty dear; fuel is very scarce, and very high priced. We subjoin an account of the

Average Prices in Sterling Money, per Imperial Quarter, of the several Sorts of Grain at Venice for
 the Ten Years ending with 1831.

Year.	Wheat.		Maize.		Oats.		Rye.		Years.	Wheat.		Maize.		Oats.		Rye.	
	L. s. d.		L. s. d.														
1822	1 8 8	1 0 9	0 14 4	1 1 0	1827	1 19 10	1 2 0	0 14 9	1 3 11								
1823	1 8 3	1 0 9	0 13 4	1 0 4	1828	1 19 3	1 14 1	0 17 6	1 3 3								
1824	1 8 10	0 17 0	0 11 0	0 17 7	1829	1 19 5	1 7 0	0 17 1	1 8 10								
1825	1 0 8	0 18 8	0 11 0	0 14 10	1830	1 13 0	1 10 8	0 16 0	1 8 5								
1826	1 7 3	0 15 8	0 9 9	0 17 5	1831	1 17 4	1 6 10	0 18 4	1 12 4								

Tax.—On goods leaving the free port of Venice for the interior
 the Austrian states, the Custom-house allows no tax; but cases,
 cats, and other coverings go into the scale with their contents, and
 a duty is levied on the gross weight. Wine, spirits, &c. consumed
 in the city, being liable to an excise duty to cover the municipal ex-
 penses, have no allowance, if in iron-bound casks, of 18 per cent.
 on the weight; and if not in iron-bound casks, of 12 per cent. The
 tax allowed between merchants are as follow:—
 Cotton wool, Pernambuco and Bahia . . . 4 per cent.
 East India, &c. . . 4

Sugar, Brazil . . . 15 to 18 per cent.
 Jamaica, muscovado . . . 14 —
 Bourbon, brown and yellow, and East India of all
 colours . . . 5 —
 refined, crushed . . . 12 —
 Brimstone . . . 10 —
 Italian hemp . . . 8 —
 Malabar root . . . 4 —
 Hungarian potash . . . 10 —

On other articles, real taxes are usually taken.

These details with respect to the present trade of Venice have been mostly derived from the well-
 digested and very valuable answers returned by the consul-general, Mr. Money, to the Circular
 Queries.

VERA CRUZ, the principal sea-port on the western coast of Mexico; lat. 19° 11' 52"
 N., long. 96° 8' 45" W. Population (supposed) 16,000. Opposite the town, at the distance
 of about 400 fathoms, is a small island, on which is built the strong castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa,
 which commands the town. The harbour lies between the town and the castle, and is ex-
 ceedingly insecure; the anchorage being so very bad, that no vessel is considered safe unless
 made fast to rings fixed for the purpose in the castle wall; nor is this always a sufficient
 protection from the fury of the northerly winds (*los nortes*), which sometimes blow with
 tremendous violence. Humboldt mentions, in proof of what is now stated, that a ship of the
 line, moored by 9 cables to the castle, tore, during a tempest, the brass rings from the wall,
 and was dashed to pieces on the opposite shore.—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, ed. 2do, tome iv. p.
 53.) Its extreme unhealthiness is, however, a more serious drawback upon Vera Cruz, than
 the badness of its port. It is said to be the original seat of the yellow fever. The city is
 well built, and the streets clean; but it is surrounded by sand hills and ponds of stagnant
 water, which, within the tropics, are quite enough to generate disease. The inhabitants, and
 those accustomed to the climate, are not subject to this formidable disorder; but all strangers,
 even those from Havannah and the West India islands, are liable to the infection. No
 precautions can prevent its attack; and many have died at Xalapa, on the road to Mexico,
 who merely passed through this pestilential spot. During the period that the foreign trade
 of Mexico was carried on exclusively by the *flota*, which sailed periodically from Cadiz, Vera
 Cruz was celebrated for its fair, held at the arrival of the ships. It was then crowded with
 dealers from Mexico, and most parts of Spanish America; but the abolition of the system of
 regular fleets in 1778 proved fatal to this fair, as well as to the still more celebrated fair of
 Portobello.

A light-house has been erected on the N.W. angle of the castle of St. Juan. The light,
 which is a revolving one of great power and brilliancy, is elevated 79 feet above the level
 of the sea.

The distance in a direct line from Mexico to Vera Cruz is about 70 leagues; but by the
 road it is about 93. Mexico being situated on a plateau elevated about 8,000 feet above the
 level of the sea, and the country being in many places very rugged, the road originally was
 so bad as to be hardly practicable, even for mules. During the last 30 years, immense sums
 have been laid out on its improvement; and a considerable part of it has been completed in
 the best, and, indeed, most splendid manner; but in many places it is still rough and
 unimproved, and does not admit of carriages being used. M. Humboldt seems to think, that

were this road completed, wheat and flour brought from the table land of Mexico might be shipped at Vera Cruz, and sold in the West Indies cheaper than the wheat and flour of the United States. But we agree with Mr. Poinsett in regarding any such expectation as quite chimerical. Though the advantage on the side of Mexico in respect of superior fertility of soil and cheapness of labour were decidedly greater than it really is, it would not balance the enormous expense of 300 miles of land carriage upon such bulky and heavy articles, more especially as the wagons would, in most cases, have to return empty. It is plain, however, that the advantage of getting the produce of the mines, and the peculiar productions of the country, as cochineal, indigo, sugar, vanilla, tobacco, &c., conveyed with comparative facility to market, and of receiving back European goods at a proportionally less expense, will more than indemnify all the outlay that may be required to perfect the road, and will be of the very greatest importance to the republic; but it is quite out of the question to imagine that Vera Cruz is ever destined to become a rival of New Orleans in the exportation of corn and flour.

For a considerable period after the town of Vera Cruz had thrown off the Spanish yoke, the title of St. Juan d'Ulloa continued in possession of the Spaniards. During this interval, the commerce of Vera Cruz was almost entirely transferred to the port of Alvarado, 12 leagues to the south-east. Alvarado is built upon the left bank of a river of the same name. The bar at the mouth of the river, about 1½ mile below the town, renders it inaccessible for vessels drawing above 10 or 12 feet water. Large ships are obliged to anchor in the roads, where they are exposed to all the violence of the north winds, loading and unloading by means of lighters. Alvarado is supposed, but probably without much foundation, to be a little healthier than Vera Cruz. The trade has now mostly reverted to its old channel.

But within these few years, Tampico has risen to considerable importance as a commercial sea-port. It is situated about 60 leagues N.N.W. of Vera Cruz, in lat. 22° 15' 30" N., lon. 97° 52' W., being about 104 leagues from Mexico. Hitherto it is said to have been free from fever. The shifting of the bar at the mouth of the river, and the shallowness of the water on it, which is sometimes under 8, and rarely above 15 feet, are serious obstacles to the growth of the port. Vessels coming in sight are boarded by pilots, who conduct them, provided they do not draw too much water, over the bar. Those that cannot enter the port load and unload by means of lighters; mooring so that they may get readily to sea in the event of a gale coming on from the north.

Exports and Imports.—The precious metals have always formed the principal article of exports from Mexico. During the 10 years ending with 1801, the average annual produce of the Mexican mines amounted, according to M. Humboldt, to 23,000,000 dollars—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iv. p. 137.); and in 1805, the produce was 27,165,688 dollars.—(*Id.* tome iv. p. 83.) But during the revolutionary war, the old Spanish capitalists, to whom most of the mines belonged, being proscribed, emigrated with all the property they could scrape together: and this withdrawal of capital from the mines, added to the injury several of them sustained by the destruction of their works during the contest, the interruption of all regular pursuits which it occasioned, and the insecurity and anarchy that afterwards prevailed, caused an extraordinary falling off in the produce of the mines. Within these few years, however, a considerable improvement has taken place. The efforts, and the lavish expenditure, of a few of the companies formed in this country for working the mines, have been so far successful, that some of them have been got again into good order, and that a large increase of produce may be fairly anticipated, provided they are permitted to prosecute their operations without molestation. But, as we have elsewhere stated (see *ante*, p. 190.), some of the parties who sold or leased the mines, began to put forward claims never heard of before, the moment they perceived that there was a reasonable prospect of the companies succeeding; and in some instances they have not scrupled to enforce their claims by violence! It is to be hoped that the Mexican government will exert itself to repress these outrages. If it have power to put down, and yet wink at or tolerate such disgraceful proceedings, it will make itself responsible for the consequences; and will merit chastisement as well as contempt.

The total quantity of gold and silver coined in the different Mexican mints during the 4 years ending with 1829, was—

In 1826	-	8,608,378 dollars.		In 1829	-	9,989,905 dollars.
1827	-	10,619,817	-	1829	-	11,787,133

(*Parl. Paper*, No. 338. Sess. 1833.)

Besides the precious metals, cochineal, sugar, flour, indigo, provisions, leather, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, logwood, and pimento, are the principal articles exported from Vera Cruz.

The imports consist principally of linen, cotton, woollen, and silk goods, paper, brandy, cacao, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, &c.

According to the statement published by the Mexican government, the value of the imports and exports at Vera Cruz and Alvarado, in 1824, was as follows:—

		Dollars.
Imports from other Mexican ports	-	284,067
from American ports	-	4,360,568
from European and other foreign ports	-	7,437,375

Total	-	12,082,010

Exports for other Mexican ports	-	-	-	-	-	-	202,042
for American ports	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,022,423
for European and other ports	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,468,093
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,692,557

This account is exclusive of the imports by government on account of the loan negotiated in London.

According to Humboldt, the imports at Vera Cruz, before the revolutionary struggles, might be estimated, at an average, at about 15,000,000 dollars, and the exports at about 20,000,000 ditto.

It must, however, be observed that this statement refers only to the registered articles, or to those that paid the duties on importation and exportation. But exclusive of these, the value of the articles clandestinely imported by the ports on the Gulf, previously to the revolution, was estimated at 4,500,000 dollars a year; and 2,500,000 dollars were supposed to be annually smuggled out of the country in plate and bars, and ingots of gold and silver. A regular contraband trade used to be carried on between Vera Cruz and Jamaica; and notwithstanding all the efforts of government for their exclusion, and the excessive severity of its laws against smuggling, the shops of Mexico were always pretty well supplied with the products of England and Germany.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iv. p. 125.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 133.)

M. Humboldt states, that the total population of Mexico, exclusive of Guatemala, may be estimated at about 7,000,000. Of this number about $\frac{1}{3}$ are Indians, the rest being Europeans, or descendants of Europeans, and mixed races. But notwithstanding this large amount of population, the trade we carry on with Mexico is very inferior to that which we carry on with Brazil. The following is an account of the real or declared value of all sorts of British produce and manufactures exported to the States of Central and Southern America in 1831:—

Mexico	-	-	-	£	728,858	States of the Rio de la Plata	-	£	339,870
Guatemala	-	-	-	nil.		Chili	-	-	651,617
Colombia	-	-	-	-	218,250	Peru	-	-	409,093
Brazil	-	-	-	-	1,238,371				

The imports of British goods at second hand into Mexico and Colombia, from Jamaica, and the other West India islands, are no longer of any considerable importance; but considerable quantities are imported from New Orleans.

Mexico being, with the exception of the United States, the richest and most populous of all the American countries, the smallness of its trade with England may justly excite surprise. It originates principally, we believe, in the want of good ports and large cities on the coast, and the distance and difficulty of the roads from Vera Cruz and other ports to the healthy and elevated part of the country. These circumstances, coupled with the obstacles which the restrictive policy of the Spaniards threw in the way of the importation of foreign products, led to the establishment of manufactures in the interior. Previously to the commencement of the revolutionary struggles, some of these manufactures were in a very advanced state; and were sufficient to supply the population with most of the clothes and other articles required for their consumption. They have since declined considerably; but as it is pretty certain that the wealth of the inhabitants has declined still more, this circumstance has had little effect in increasing importation.

Revenues.—The revenues of Mexico have been, during the years (ended 30th of January),

1826	-	13,715,801 dollars.	1830	-	14,493,169 dollars.
1827	-	13,289,682 —	1831	-	18,922,399 —
1828	-	10,491,299 —	1832	-	15,413,000 —
1829	-	12,232,385 —			

Of these sums, about $\frac{1}{2}$ have been produced by the customs duties. The latter amount, in 1832, to 8,922,920 dollars. During the same year, the duties on imported cottons were 1,150,000 dollars, and those on the exportation of the precious metals 309,473 dollars. The total receipts of the Custom-house at Vera Cruz, in 1832, were 2,962,399 dollars, and those of Tampico 1,428,992 dollars.

Port Charges.—Foreign ships pay in the port of Vera Cruz—

Tonnage duty, &c. (per ton)	-	-	-	-	Dols. reals.
Pilotage on entering	-	-	-	-	2 1
on leaving	-	-	-	-	15 4
					19 0

A 5th part, or 20 per cent., is deducted from the duties on all commodities brought from a foreign port in Mexican ships. The Mexican Congress is, at this moment, engaged in discussions respecting a modification of the tariff.

Weights, Measures, and Money, same as in Spain; for which, see CANIS.

Duties, &c. at Vera Cruz.—The Mexican government issued, on the 16th of November, 1827, a new tariff, to which the following regulations were prefixed:—

Regulations as to the Mexican Tariff.

Vessels of all nations in amity with the United States of Mexico will be admitted to entry at the privileged ports of the republic, upon payment of the duties, and subject to the regulations to be observed at the maritime Custom-house, according to this tariff.

The anchorage duty is abolished, and all vessels arriving from foreign ports are to pay 2 dol 1 real per ton tonnage duty.

Foreign vessels will not be allowed to trade coastwise with the ports of the republic.

All vessels putting into any of the ports of this republic, by stress of weather or for refreshment, will

nd of Mexico might be
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uch expectation as quite
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feet, are serious obstacles
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00,000 dollars.—(*Nouvelle*
5,888 dollars.—(*Id.* tone
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at during the 4 years ending
9,382,905 dollars.
1,787,133 —
Paper, No. 338. Sees. 1833.)
sions, leather, sarsaparilla,
exported from Vera Cruz.
ilk goods, paper, brandy,

he value of the imports and

	Dollars.
-	284,087
-	4,360,868
-	7,427,275
al	12,069,030

be allowed the requisite time to complete their repairs or provisions, and will only have to pay such charges as are customary.

All vessels on their arrival are to present their manifests by triplicate, specifying the marks and numbers of the packages, with the particulars of their respective contents.

The duties will be levied on all goods according to their specification in the manifest, whether they are landed or not; and any article that shall be found not specified in the manifest, or any alteration in the quantity or quality, will subject such goods to seizure.

The weights and measures designated in the tariff are those used in Mexico; and any article exceeding the maximum annexed to the same shall, for every $\frac{1}{2}$ of such excess in measurement, pay $\frac{1}{2}$ increase of the duty affixed to the said article.

All articles not specified or enumerated in the tariff shall pay a duty of 40 per cent. on the valuation that may be fixed in the same at the port of entry; and for every such valuation, 3 brokers shall be appointed, 1 of whom is to be chosen by the importer, and the other 2 on the part of the Custom-house.

The *acoria*, and all other duties lately payable in this republic under various denominations (excepting the State duty), are abolished.

The importer shall be liable for the whole amount of the duties $\frac{1}{2}$ of which is to be paid within 90 days from the day the goods are landed, and the other $\frac{1}{2}$ within 90 days after the expiration of the latter period. No article will be allowed to be taken out of the Custom-house until the duties shall have been paid, or security given for the due payment of the same, to the satisfaction of the proper authorities.

All articles imported prior to this law taking effect are liable to the international duties as before. After the duties have been once paid, no deduction or allowance whatever can be made on the same, excepting in cases where an error may have occurred.

No article will be allowed to be re-exported without previous payment of the import duties. All goods that may arrive damaged shall be examined in presence of the proper authorities, and an allowance made according to the damage such goods shall have sustained.

All goods arriving direct from the place of their growth or manufacture, in vessels under the Mexican flag, are to pay 1-5th less duty than in foreign vessels.

The tariff may be altered at any time, whenever the Congress shall deem it expedient so to do; but no alteration which may be prejudicial to commerce in general shall be put in force until 6 months after such alteration shall have been decided upon.

The laws contained in the preceding articles are not intended to interfere with any separate treaty of commerce which has or may be entered into by this nation.

These regulations are to be put in force within 60 days from the date hereof.

Articles admitted into Mexico Duty free.

Quick-silver.
Carts upon foreign construction.
Wrecks frames for houses.
Printed books, maps, and music.

Philosophical, mathematical, and optical instruments.
Scales of all sorts.

Instruments for agriculture, mines, and arts.
Beers.
Carding wire.
Flax's and seeds.

Articles prohibited to be imported into Mexico.

Aloe-wood, cummin, and caraway.
Rum and molasses.
Sugar, raw or refined.
Coffee and chocolate.
Rice.
Leather.
Horns and shoes.
Saddlery of every description.
Salted and dried meats of all kinds.
Lard.
Wax, wrought.

Tallow.
Soap, hard or soft.
Epaulets, gold and silver lace, galloons, &c.
Tapes of colours.
Shawls of silk or cotton.
Rods, bedding, and bed linen, made up, of every kind and description.
Copper, in sheets or pigs.
Lead, in sheet, pigs, or shot.
Silver.
Flour and wheat.

Vermorelli.
Cotton thread, under No. 20.
Horn wares.
Trunks and portmanteaus.
Woolen cloths, coarse and ordinary.
Furcloths.
Wearing apparel of every description.
Common mill.
Hats, common, stuff, and leather.
Tobacco, in leaf or manufactured.

Export Duties.—All articles, the growth and produce of this republic, are free of duty on exportation, excepting gold in coin, or wrought, which pays 3 per cent. *ad valorem*; silver in coin, or wrought, which pays 3-4 per cent. *ad valorem*.

N. B.—Gold and silver ore, or in lumps or dust, are prohibited under penalty of seizure.

Notices to Masters of Vessels and Passengers proceeding to any Mexican Port.

Notice is hereby given to all masters of vessels proceeding from London to any port or ports of the United States of Mexico, that the passengers they take out should be provided with passports, signed by his Excellency the minister of the republic, otherwise the vessels will be liable to detention on their arrival at those ports, and the passengers on board unprovided with such passports will not be permitted to land in the ports of Mexico. No plea for the want of them will be admitted.

Masters of vessels proceeding to and from those States are required to have on board all necessary papers and vouchers, which, according to the orders conveyed through his Excellency the Mexican minister plenipotentiary at the court of his Britannic Majesty, to this consulate, ought to consist of, besides the regular ship's papers, all the invoices of shippers, with the corresponding bills of lading. Merchandise found on board, which should not appear inserted in the invoices certified by the consul, or that otherwise is falsely described, either in quality or quantity, shall be considered and dealt with as contraband.

A bill of health, certified by the consul, will also be required from vessels on arrival, by the authorities at the Mexican ports.

The above regulations are to be in force from the date of this notice, Nov. 28, 1830.

Notice is hereby given, that the Congress of the United States of Mexico decreed, the 12th of October of the last year, that the Mexican envoys and consular agents must henceforward charge for each passport to Mexico 2 dollars, and for each certification and signature 4 dollars.

20, Aunin-friars, 9th of Jan, 1831.

The Vice-Consul, J. SCHEIDTBADEL.

VERDIGRIS (Ger. *Grünspan*; Fr. *Vert-de-gris*, *Verdet*; It. *Verderame*; Sp. *Car-denillo*, *Verdite*, *Verde-gris*; Rus. *Jar*), a kind of rust of copper, of a beautiful bluish green colour, formed from the corrosion of copper by fermented vegetables. Its specific gravity is 1.78. Its taste is disagreeably metallic; and, like all the compounds into which copper enters, it is poisonous. It was known to the ancients, and various ways of preparing it are described by Pliny. It is very extensively used by painters, and in dyeing; it is also used to some extent in medicine. The best verdigris is made at Montpellier; the wines of Languedoc being particularly well suited for corroding copper, and forming this substance. It is generally exported in cakes of about 25 lbs. weight each. It is also manufactured in this country, by means of the refuse of cider, &c.; the high duty of 2s. per lb. on

the foreign article giving the home producers a pretty complete monopoly of the market. The goodness of verdigris is judged of from the deepness and brightness of its colour, its dryness, and its forming, when rubbed on the hand with a little water or saliva, smooth paste, free from grittiness.—(Thomson's Chemistry; Rees's Cyclopaedia.)

VERJUICE (Ger. *Agreat*; Fr. *Verjus*; It. *Agresto*; Sp. *Agraz*), a kind of harsh, austere vinegar, made of the expressed juice of the wild apple, or crab. The French give this name to unripe grapes, and to the sour liquor obtained from them.

VERMICELLI (Ger. *Nudeln*; Du. *Meelneepen*, *Proppen*; Fr. *Vermicelli*; It. *Vermicelli*, *Tugliolini*; Sp. *Alcatras*), a species of wheaten paste formed into long, slender, hollow tubes, or threads, used amongst us in soups, broths, &c.

Vermicelli is the same substance as macaroni; the only difference between them being that the latter is made into larger tubes. Both of them are prepared in the greatest perfection in Naples, where they form the favourite dish of all classes, and the principal food of the bulk of the population. The flour of the hard wheat (*grano duro*) imported from the Black Sea is the best suited for the manufacture of macaroni. Being mixed with water, it is kneaded by means of heavy wooden blocks wrought by levers, till it acquires a sufficient degree of tenacity; it is then forced, by simple pressure, through a number of holes, so contrived that it is formed into hollow cylinders. The name given to the tubes depends on their diameter; those of the largest size being macaroni, the next to them vermicelli, and the smallest fedelini. At Genoa, and some other places, the paste is coloured by an admixture of saffron; but at Naples, where its preparation is best understood, nothing is used except flour and water; the best being made of the flour of hard wheat, and the inferior sorts of the flour of soft wheat. When properly prepared and boiled to a nicety, Neapolitan macaroni assumes a greenish tinge. It is then taken out of the caldron, drained of the water, and being saturated with concentrated meat gravy, and sprinkled with finely grated cheese, it forms a dish of which all classes from the prince to the beggar are passionately fond. But the macaroni used by the poor is merely boiled in plain water, and is rarely eaten with any condiment whatever. The macaroni usually served up in England, is said, by those familiar with that of Naples, to be a positive disgrace to the name it bears. When properly prepared, macaroni is nutritious and easy of digestion. The lazzaroni pique themselves on the dexterity with which they swallow long strings of macaroni and vermicelli without breaking them! (We have derived these details from an excellent article on macaroni in the *Penny Magazine* for the 10th of August, 1833.)

VERMILLION. See CINNABAR.

VINEGAR (Ger. *Essig*; Du. *Azyn*; Fr. *Vinaigre*; It. *Aceto*; Sp. and Port. *Vinagre*; Rus. *Ukzus*; Lat. *Acetum*).—(See ACID (ACETIC), for a description of vinegar.) A duty being imposed on vinegar of 2*d.* the gallon, its manufacture is placed under the control of the excise. A licence, costing 5*l.*, and renewable annually, has to be taken out by every maker of vinegar, or acetous acid.

All places for manufacturing or keeping vinegar must be entered, under a penalty of 50*l.* No vinegar maker is to receive any vinegar, or acetous acid, or sugar wash, or any preparation for vinegar, without giving 12 hours' notice to the excise, under penalty of 100*l.* Any person sending out or receiving vinegar shall, unless the duty on it be paid, and it be accompanied by a permit, forfeit 200*l.* All vinegar makers are to make entries at the next Excise-office of the quantity made within each month, and are bound to clear off the duties within a month of such entry, on pain of double duties.—(See 58 *Geo.* 3, c. 65, and *Burn's Justice of the Peace*, Marriot's ed.)

Account of the Quantity of Vinegar, charged with Duty in the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1820, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Year.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.	Year.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.	Year.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.
1820	Gallons.	£.	1825	Gallons.	£.	1830	Gallons.	£.
1821	2,437,498	40,586	1826	2,310,312	45,518	1831	2,197,404	17,462
1822	2,751,701	43,802	1827	3,028,691	25,136	1832	2,558,058	19,313
1823	2,604,630	45,639	1828	2,867,984	24,748	1833	2,917,755	22,968
1824	2,406,868	47,124	1829	2,982,957	24,475			
1825	2,330,448	46,241	1829	2,556,799	22,541			

Rate of duty previously to 1825, 4*d.* per gallon; since then, 2*d.* The manufacture is almost wholly confined to England; the quantity produced in Scotland and Ireland not amounting to 100,000 gallons

VITRIOL. See COPPERAS.

VITRIOL, OIL OF. See ACID (SULPHURIC).

ULTRAMARINE (Ger. *Ultramarin*; Fr. *Bleu d'outremer*; It. *Oltamarino*; Sp. *Ultramar*; Rus. *Ultra-marin*), a very fine blue powder made from the blue parts of *lapis lazuli*. It has the valuable property of neither fading, nor becoming tarnished, on exposure to the air, or a moderate heat; and on this account is highly prized by painters. Owing to its great price, it is very apt to be adulterated. It was introduced about the end of the fifteenth century.

USANCE, a period of one, two, or three months, or of so many days, after the date of a bill of exchange, according to the custom of different places, before the bill becomes due. Double or treble usance, is double or treble the usual time; and $\frac{1}{2}$ usance is $\frac{1}{2}$ the time. When a month is divided, the $\frac{1}{2}$ usance, notwithstanding the differences in the lengths of

will only have to pay such
specifying the marks and
he manifest, whether they
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also; and any article ex-
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cases, or best of manufacture.

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Nov. 28, 1830.
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ice-Consul, J. SCHEIDTMAEL.

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the months, is uniformly 15 days. Usances are calculated exclusively of the date of the bill. Bills of exchange drawn at usance are allowed the usual days of grace, and on the last of the 3 days the bill should be presented for payment.—(See EXCHANGE.)

USURY. See INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

W.

WALNUTS, the fruit of the *Juglans*, or walnut-tree, of which there are several varieties. The walnut is a large, handsome tree, with strong spreading branches. The fruit is a pretty large, smooth, ovate nut, containing an oily kernel, divided into four lobes. The nut has been always held in high estimation; it was called by the Romans *Jovis glans*, the acorn or mast of Jove, and hence the name of the tree. The walnut tree is indigenous to Persia and the countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. It has long been introduced into Great Britain; but the fruit seldom ripens in the more northerly parts of the island. Previously to the very general introduction of mahogany, the wood of the walnut tree was extensively used amongst us in making of furniture; and it continues to be largely employed for that purpose in many parts of the Continent. It is much used by turners; and is superior to every other sort of wood for the mounting of guns; a circumstance which caused great devastation among our walnut plantations during the latter years of the war. Great numbers of walnut trees are annually consumed in the Haute Vienne and other departments of France, in the manufacture of the wooden shoes or clogs used by the peasantry. The nuts are either gathered when ripe, being served up as desserts without any preparation; or they are plucked green, and pickled.—(*Poiret, Historie Philosophique des Plantes*, tome vii. p. 213.; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*, &c.)

Account of Walnuts imported, exported, and retained for Home Use, during 1831 and 1832, with the Net Duty thereon, and the Rate of Duty.

Years.	Imports.		Exports.		Retained for Home Use.		Duty.		Rate of Duty.	
	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.	For £100.	2s.
1831	23,578		160		24,347		2,458			
1832	16,913		531		15,299		1,518			

WANGHEES, sometimes called **JAPAN CANES**, a species of cane imported from China. They should be chosen pliable, tough, round, and taper; the knots at regular distances from each other; and the heavier the better. Such as are dark-coloured, badly glazed, and light, should be rejected.—(*Millburn's Orient. Com.*)

WAREHOUSING SYSTEM. By this system is meant the provisions made for lodging imported articles in public warehouses, at a reasonable rent, without payment of the duties on importation till they be withdrawn for home consumption. If re-exported, no duty is ever paid.

1. *Expediency and Origin of the Warehousing System.*—It is laid down by Dr. Smith, in one of his justly celebrated maxims on the subject of taxation, that "Every tax ought to be levied at the time and in the manner that is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. iii. p. 368.) No one can doubt the soundness of this maxim; and yet it was very strangely neglected, down to 1803, in the management of the customs. Previously to this period, the duties on most goods imported had either to be paid at the moment of their importation, or a *bond*, with sufficient security for their future payment, had to be given to the revenue officers. The hardship and inconvenience of such a system is obvious. It was often very difficult to find sureties; and the merchant, in order to raise funds to pay the duties, was frequently reduced to the ruinous necessity of selling his goods immediately on their arrival, when, perhaps, the market was already glutted. Neither was this the only inconvenience that grew out of this system; for the duties having to be paid all at once, and not by degrees as the goods were sold for consumption, their price was raised by the amount of the profit on the capital advanced in payment of the duties: competition, too, was diminished in consequence of the greater command of funds required to carry on trade under such disadvantages; and a few rich individuals were enabled to monopolise the importation of those commodities on which heavy duties were payable. The system had, besides, an obvious tendency to discourage the carrying trade. It prevented this country from becoming an *entrepôt* for foreign products, by hindering the importation of such as were not immediately wanted for home consumption; and thus tended to lessen the resort of foreigners to our markets, inasmuch as it rendered it difficult, or rather impossible, for them to complete an assorted cargo. And in addition to all these circumstances, the difficulty of granting a really equivalent drawback to the exporters of such commodities as had paid duty, opened a door for the commission of every species of fraud.

But these disadvantages and drawbacks, obvious as they may now appear, did not attract the public attention till a comparatively late period. Sir Robert Walpole seems to have been

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There are several varieties.
The fruit is a pretty
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Jovis glans, the acorn or
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introduced into Great Britain;
Previously to the very
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for that purpose in many
or to every other sort of
at devastation among our
members of walnut trees are
France, in the manufac-
are either gathered when
are plucked green, and
p. 213.; *Kees's Cyclo-*

1831 and 1832, with the

Duty.	Rate of Duty.
<i>L.</i>	<i>Per Bush.</i>
2,498	2s.
1,518	2s.

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one of the first who had a clear perception of their injurious influence; and it was the principal object of the famous *Excise Scheme*, proposed by him in 1733, to oblige the importers of tobacco and wine to deposit them in public warehouses; relieving them, however, from the necessity of paying the duties chargeable on them till they were withdrawn for home consumption.

No doubt can now remain in the mind of any one, that the adoption of this scheme would have been of the greatest advantage to the commerce and industry of the country. But so powerful was the delusion generated in the public mind with respect to it, that its proposal well nigh caused a rebellion. Most of the merchants of the day had availed themselves of the facilities which the existing system afforded of defrauding the revenue; and they dexterously endeavoured to thwart the success of a scheme which would have given a serious check to such practices, by making the public believe that it would be fatal to the commercial prosperity of the country. The efforts of the merchants were powerfully seconded by the spirit of party, which then ran very high. The political opponents of the ministry, anxious for an opportunity to prejudice them in the public estimation, contended that the scheme was only the first step towards the introduction of such a universal system of excise as would inevitably prove alike subversive of the comfort and liberty of the people. In consequence of these artful misrepresentations, the most violent clamours were everywhere excited against the scheme. On one occasion Sir Robert Walpole narrowly escaped falling a sacrifice to the ungovernable fury of the mob, which beset all the avenues to the House of Commons; and, after many violent and lengthened debates, the scheme was ultimately abandoned.

The disadvantages of the old plan, and the benefits to be derived from the establishment of a voluntary warehousing system, were most ably pointed out by Dean Tucker, in his "Essay on the Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of Great Britain and France with respect to Trade," published in 1750. But so powerful was the impression made by the violent opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's scheme, and such is the force of prejudice, that it was not till 1803 that this obvious and signal improvement—the greatest, perhaps, that has been made in our commercial and financial system—could be safely adopted.

2. *Regulations as to Warehousing.*—The statute of 43 Geo. 3. c. 132. laid the foundation of this system; but it was much improved and extended by subsequent statutes, the regulations of which have been embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57., which took effect on the 1st of September, 1833.

This act empowers the commissioners of the customs, under the authority and direction of the Lords of the Treasury, to nominate the ports at which goods may be warehoused without payment of duty, and the warehouses in which particular descriptions of goods may be deposited. It also fixes the time during which goods are allowed to remain in the warehouse; and prescribes the regulations as to their removal from port to port, their sale and storage in the warehouse, the remission of the duties in case of loss by accident, the allowances for waste, &c. But as this statute is of much importance, we subjoin a full abstract of it.

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 57. FOR THE WAREHOUSING OF GOODS.

Commencement of Act.—Act to commence the 1st day of September, 1833, except where any other commencement is particularly directed.—§ 1.

Treasury to appoint warehousing Ports.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury to appoint the ports in the U. K. which shall be warehousing ports for the purposes of this act; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, subject to the directions of the commissioners of the treasury, to appoint in what warehouses or places of special security, or of ordinary security, as the case may require, in such ports, and in what different parts or divisions of such warehouses or places, and in what manner any goods, and what sorts of goods, may be warehoused and secured without payment of any duty upon the first entry thereof, or for exportation only, in cases wherein the same may be prohibited to be imported for home use; and also to direct in what cases (if any) security by bond shall be required in respect of any warehouse so appointed by them.—§ 2.

Warehouses of special Security by Appointment.—Whenever any warehouse shall have been approved by the said commissioners, as being a warehouse of special security, it shall be stated in their order of appointment that it is appointed as a warehouse of special security: provided, that all warehouses connected with wharfs for the landing of the goods to be lodged therein, and enclosed together with such wharfs within walls, such as are or shall be required by any act for the constructing of such warehouses and wharfs, and being appointed to be legal quays, shall, without any order of the commissioners of the customs, be warehouses for the purposes of this act, for all goods landed at such wharfs or quays at any port appointed by the commissioners of the treasury to be a warehousing port, and all such warehouses shall be warehouses of special security.—§ 3.

Bonds given previous to Act to continue in force.—All appointments of warehouses made under the authority of any other act in force at the commencement of this act shall continue in force as if the same had been made under the authority of this act, and all bonds given in respect to any goods warehoused under any act in force at the commencement of this act shall continue in force for the purposes of this act.—§ 4.

Commissioners to provide Warehouses for Tobacco.—The commissioners of customs shall, out of the monies arising from the duties of customs, provide from time to time warehouses for the warehousing of tobacco at the ports into which tobacco may be legally imported: provided, that for every hoghead, then, or case of tobacco so warehoused the importer or proprietor thereof shall pay, for warehouse rent, such sum or sums, not exceeding any sum payable under any act in force at the commencement of this act, and at such periods and in such manner as the commissioners of the treasury shall direct; and all such sums shall be paid and appropriated as duties of customs.—§ 5.

Power to revoke or alter an Appointment.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury by their warrant, and for the commissioners of the customs by their order, to revoke any former warrant

or any former order, or to make any alteration in or addition to any former warrant or any former order made by them respectively.—§ 6.

Publication of Appointment in Gazette.—Every order made by the commissioners of customs in respect of warehouses of special security, as well those of original appointment as those of revocation, alteration, or addition, shall be published in the London Gazette, for those appointed in Great Britain, and in the Dublin Gazette for those appointed in Ireland.—§ 7.

Warehouse-keeper may give general Bond.—Before any goods be entered to be warehoused in any warehouse in respect of which security by bond is required, the proprietor or occupier of such warehouse, if he be willing, shall give general security by bond, with 2 sufficient sureties, for the payment of the full duties of importation on all such goods as shall at any time be warehoused therein, or for the due exportation thereof; and if such proprietor or occupier be not willing to give such general security, the different importers of the separate quantities of goods shall, upon each importation, give such security in respect of the particular goods imported by them respectively, before such goods be entered to be warehoused.—§ 8.

Sale of Goods in Warehouse by Proprietor to be valid.—If any goods lodged in any warehouse be the property of its occupier, and be *bona fide* sold by him, and upon such sale there shall have been a written agreement, signed by the parties, or a written contract of sale made, executed, and delivered by a broker or other person legally authorized on behalf of the parties respectively, and the amount of the price stipulated in the said agreement or contract shall have been actually paid or secured to be paid by the purchaser, every such sale shall be valid, although such goods shall remain in such warehouse; provided a transfer of such goods, according to such sale, shall have been entered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the officer of the customs having the charge of such warehouse, who is hereby required to keep such book, and to enter such transfers, with the dates thereof, upon application of the owners of the goods, and to produce such book upon demand made.—§ 9.

Storage in Warehouse to afford easy Access.—All goods warehoused shall be stowed in such manner as that easy access may be had to every package and parcel of the same; and if the occupier shall omit so to stow the same, he shall for every such omission forfeit the sum of 5*l.*; and if any goods be taken out of the warehouse without due entry of the same with the proper officers of the customs, the occupier of the warehouse shall be liable to the payment of the duties due thereon.—§ 10.

Goods fraudulently concealed or removed, forfeited, &c.—If any goods warehoused be fraudulently concealed in or removed from the warehouse, the same shall be forfeited; and if any importer or proprietor of any goods warehoused, or any person in his employ, shall by any contrivance fraudulently open the warehouse or gain access to the goods, except in the presence of the proper officer acting in the execution of his duty, such importer or proprietor shall forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of 500*l.*—§ 11.

Examination on entry and landing.—Within 1 month after any tobacco shall have been warehoused, and upon the entry and landing of any goods to be warehoused, the proper officer of the customs shall take a particular account of the same, and shall mark the contents on each package, and shall mark the word "prohibited" on such packages as contain goods prohibited to be imported for home use; and all goods shall be warehoused and kept in the packages in which they have been imported, and no alteration shall be made in the packages or the packing of any goods in the warehouse, except in the cases herein provided.—§ 12.

Goods to be carried to Warehouse under authority of Officers of Customs.—All goods entered to be warehoused, or to be re-warehoused, shall be carried to the warehouse under the care or with the authority or permission of the proper officer of customs, and in such manner, and by such persons, and by such roads or ways, and within such spaces of time, as the said officer shall authorize, permit, or direct; and all such goods not so carried shall be forfeited.—§ 13.

Goods to be cleared in 3 Years, and Ship's Stores, in 1 Year.—All goods which have been warehoused shall be duly cleared, either for exportation or for home use, within 3 years, and all surplus stores of ships within 1 year from the day of the first entry thereof (unless further time be given by the commissioners of the treasury); and if any such goods be not so cleared, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to cause them to be sold, and the produce shall be applied to the payment of warehouse rent and other charges, and the surplus, if any, paid to the proprietor; and such goods, when sold, shall be held subject to all the conditions to which they were subject previous to such sale, except that a further time of 3 months from the date of the sale shall be allowed to the purchaser for clearing such goods from the warehouse; and if the goods so sold shall not be duly cleared within such 3 months, the same shall be forfeited: provided, that if the goods so to be disposed of shall have been imported by the East India Company, or be of the description called "piece goods," imported from places within the limits of their charter into the port of London, the same shall, at the requisition of the commissioners of customs, be duly exposed to sale by the said company at their next ensuing sale, and shall be sold for the highest price then publicly offered for them.—§ 14.

In case of Accident, Duty to be remitted.—If any goods entered to be warehoused, or entered to be delivered from the warehouse, be lost or destroyed by any unavoidable accident, either on shipboard or in the landing or shipping of the same, or in the receiving into or delivering from the warehouse, the commissioners of customs shall remit or return the duties payable or paid on the goods so lost or destroyed.—§ 15.

Entry for Exportation or Home Use.—No goods which have been warehoused shall be taken or delivered from the warehouse except upon due entry, and under care of the proper officers for exportation, or upon due entry and payment of the full duties payable thereon for home use; except goods delivered into the charge of the searchers to be shipped as stores, and which shall and may be so shipped without entry or payment of any duty for any ship of the burden of 70 tons at least, bound upon a voyage to foreign parts, the probable duration of which out and home will be not less than 30 days: provided that such stores shall be duly borne upon the ship's victualling bill, and shall be shipped in such quantities and subject to such directions and regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct and appoint.—§ 16.

Rum for Stores and surplus Stores may be shipped without Entry.—Any rum of the British plantations may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any ship without entry or payment of any duty, and any surplus stores of any ship may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be reshipped as stores for the same ship, or for the same master in another ship, without entry or payment of duty, such rum and such surplus stores being duly borne upon the victualling bills of such ships respectively; and if the ship for the future use of which any surplus stores have been warehoused shall have been broken up or sold, such stores may be so delivered for the use of any other ship belonging to the same owners, or may be entered for payment of duty, and delivered for the private use of such owners, or any of them, or of the master or purser of such ship.—§ 17.

Duties to be paid on original Quantities, except in certain Cases.—Upon the entry of any goods to be cleared from the warehouse, if the same be for home use, the person entering such goods inward shall deliver a bill of the entry, and duplicates thereof, in like manner as is directed in the case of goods entered to be landed, as far as the same is applicable, and at the same time shall pay down to the proper officer of the customs the full duties of customs payable thereon, and not being less in amount than according to the account of the quantity first taken of the respective packages or parcels of the

or warrant or any former

Officers of customs in respect of those of revocation, altered in Great Britain, and

to be warehoused in any occupier of such warehouse, and delivered or re-warehoused therein, or for failing to give such general notice on each importation, give respectively, before such goods be

In any warehouse be the same duties shall have been a executed, and delivered actively, and the amount of shall be paid or secured to be shall remain in such warehouse been entered in a book of such warehouse, who is thereon, upon application.—§ 9.

be stored in such manner and if the occupier shall of 5l.; and if any goods be officers of the customs, the hereon.—§ 10.

re-warehoused he fraudulently and if any importer or proprietor fraudulently in for every such offence the

will have been warehoused, officer of the customs shall package, and shall mark imported for home use; and have been imported, and no warehouse, except in the

All goods entered to be under the care of or with the and by such persons, and shall authorise, permit, or

which have been warehoused and all surplus stores of time be given by the consular be lawful for the occupier; and such goods, direct previous to such sale, owed to the purchaser for not be duly cleared within be disposed of shall have "piece goods," imported same shall, at the request company at their next ensue.—§ 14.

warehoused, or entered to be ident, either on shipboard arising from the warehouse, said on the goods so lost or

warehoused shall be taken or proper officers for exportation home use; except goods which shall and may be so of 70 tons at least, and no will not be less than 30 ing bill, and shall be ship-commissioners of customs

goods in such entry at the examination thereof at the time of the first entry and landing of the same, without any abatement on account of any deficiency, except as by this act is otherwise provided; and if the entry be for exportation or for removal to any other warehouse, and any of the packages or parcels of the goods be deficient of their respective quantities, according to the account first taken, a like entry inwards shall also be passed in respect of the quantities so deficient, and the full duties shall be paid on the amount thereof before such packages or parcels of goods shall be delivered or sent for exportation or removal, except as by this act is otherwise provided; and if any goods so deficient in quantity shall be such as are charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be estimated at the price for which the like sorts of goods of the best quality have been last or lately sold, either at any sale of the East India Company, or in any other manner, as the case may be.—§ 18.

Duties on Tobacco, Sugar, and Spirits to be charged on Quantities delivered, except in certain Cases.—The duties payable upon tobacco, sugar, and spirits respectively, when taken out of warehouse for home use, shall be charged upon the quantities ascertained by the weight, measure, or strength of the same actually delivered, except that if the sugar shall not be in a warehouse of special security no greater abatement on account of deficiency of the quantity first ascertained as aforesaid shall be made than shall be after the rate of 3 per cent. of such quantity for the first 3 months, and 1 per cent. for every subsequent month during which such sugar shall have been warehoused; and except, that if the spirits (being any other spirits than rum of the British plantations) shall not be in a warehouse of special security, no greater abatement on account of deficiency of the quantity or strength first ascertained as aforesaid shall be made than shall be after the several rates of allowances following, viz.

For every 100 gallons, hydrometer proof; viz.		For every 100 gallons, hydrometer proof; viz.	
For any time not exceeding 3 months	1 gallon	For any time exceeding 13 months and not exceeding 2 years	4 gallons
For any time exceeding 3 months and not exceeding 6 months	2 gallons	For any time exceeding 2 years	6 gallons
For any time exceeding 6 months and not exceeding 12 months	3 gallons		
For any time exceeding 12 months and not exceeding 18 months	4 gallons		

Provided that no abatement shall be made in respect of any deficiency in quantity of any spirits occasioned either by leakage or accident, and not by natural evaporation, in whatever warehouse the same may be, except as by this act is otherwise specially provided.—§ 19.

Importer may enter Goods for Home Use, &c., although not actually rewarehouse.—If after any goods have been duly entered and landed to be warehoused, and before the same have been deposited in the warehouse, the importer shall further enter the same or any part thereof for home use or for exportation as from the warehouse, the goods so entered shall be considered as virtually and constructively warehoused, although not actually deposited in the warehouse, and may be delivered and taken for home use or for exportation, as the case may be.—§ 20.

Goods may be removed to other Ports to be rewarehouse.—Any goods which have been warehoused at some port in the U. K. may be removed by sea or inland carriage to any other port in the same, in which the like goods may be warehoused upon importation, to be rewarehouse at such other port, and again as often as may be required to any other such port, to be there rewarehouse, subject to the regulations hereinafter mentioned; viz. 12 hours notice in writing of the intention to remove such goods shall be given to the warehouse officer, specifying the particular goods intended to be removed, and the marks, numbers, and descriptions of the packages in which the same are contained, in what ship imported, when and by whom entered inwards to be warehoused, and, if subsequently rewarehouse, when and by whom rewarehouse, and to what port the same are to be removed; and thereupon the warehouse officer shall take a particular account of such goods, and shall mark the contents on every package in preparation for the delivering of the same for such removal, and previous to the delivery thereof may cause the proper seals of office to be affixed thereto; provided that tobacco, the produce of the British possessions in America or of the United States of America, and purchased for the use of his Majesty's navy, may be removed by the purser of any ship of war in actual service to the ports of Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, to be there rewarehouse, in name of such purser, in a warehouse approved for that purpose by the commissioners of customs.—§ 21.

Entry of Goods for Removal.—Before such goods be delivered to be removed, due entry of the same shall be made, and a proper bill of such entry, with duplicates thereof, be delivered to the collector or comptroller, containing the before-mentioned particulars, and an exact account of the quantities of the different sorts of goods; and such bill of entry, signed by the collector and comptroller, shall be the warrant for the removal of such goods; and an account of the same, containing all such particulars, shall be transmitted by the officers of the port of removal to the officers of the port of destination; and upon the arrival of such goods at the port of destination due entry of the same to be rewarehouse shall be made in like manner be made with the collector and comptroller at such port, containing all the particulars and accounts before mentioned, together with the name of the port from which such goods have been removed, and the description and situation of the warehouse in which they are to be warehoused; and the bill of such entry, signed by such collector and comptroller, shall be the warrant to the landing officer and the warehouse officer to admit such goods to be there rewarehouse, under such examination as is made of the like goods when first warehoused upon importation from parts beyond the seas; and the particulars to be contained in such notice and in such entries shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and the officers at the port of arrival shall transmit to the officers at the port of removal an account of the goods so arrived, according as they shall upon examination prove to be, and the warehouse officers at the port of removal shall duly such arrival in their books.—§ 22.

Bond to be rewarehouse, which may be given at either Port.—The persons removing such goods shall at the time of entering the same give bond, with sufficient surety, for the due arrival and rewarehouse of such goods within a reasonable time, (with reference to the distance between the respective ports, to be fixed by the commissioners of customs), which bond may be taken by the collector and comptroller either of the port of removal or of the port of destination, as shall best suit the residence or convenience of the persons interested in the removal of such goods; and if such bond be given at the port of destination, a certificate thereof, under the hands of the collector and comptroller of such port shall, at the time of entering the goods, be produced to the collector or comptroller of the port of removal.—§ 23.

Bond how to be discharged.—Such bond shall not be discharged unless such goods shall have been duly rewarehouse at the port of destination within the time allowed for such removal, or shall have been otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the said commissioners, nor until the full duties due upon any deficiency of such goods shall have been paid, nor until fresh security have been given in respect of such goods as herein-after provided, unless such goods shall be lodged in some warehouse in respect of which general security has been given by the proprietor or occupier, or in some warehouse in respect of which no security is required.—§ 24.

Goods rewarehouse held on Terms of the first Warehousing.—Such goods when so rewarehouse may be entered and shipped for exportation, or entered and delivered for home use, as the like goods may be when first warehoused upon importation, and the time when such goods shall be allowed to remain rewarehouse at such port shall be reckoned from the day when the same were first entered to be warehoused.—§ 25.

On Arrival, after Forms of rewarehousing, Parties may enter to export, &c.—If upon the arrival of such goods at the port of destination the parties shall be desirous forthwith to export the same, or to pay duty thereon for home use, without lodging the same in the warehouse for which they have been entered and examined to be rewarehoused, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at such port, after all the formalities of entering and examining such goods for rewarehousing have been duly performed (except the actual labour of carrying and lodging the same in the warehouse), to consider the same as virtuously or constructively rewarehoused, and to permit them to be entered and shipped for exportation, or to be entered and delivered for home use, upon payment of the duties due thereon; and the account taken for the rewarehousing of such goods may serve as the account for delivering the same as if from the warehouse, either for shipment or for payment of duties, as the case may be; and all goods so exported, or for which the duties have been so paid, shall be deemed to have been duly cleared from the warehouse.—§ 25.

Removal in the same Port.—Any goods which have been warehoused in some warehouse in the port of London may, with the permission of the commissioners of customs first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the said port in which the like goods may be warehoused; and any goods which have been warehoused in any other port, may with the permission of the collector and comptroller of such port first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the same port in which like goods may be warehoused, under such regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct.—§ 27.

Goods and Parties subject to original Conditions.—All goods which shall have been removed from one warehouse to another, whether in the same or in a different port, and all proprietors of such goods, shall be subject to all the conditions to which they would have been subject had such goods remained in the warehouse where they were originally warehoused.—§ 28.

Goods sold, new Owner may give Bond.—If any goods have been warehoused in respect of which general security by bond shall not have been given by the proprietor or occupier, and particular security, as in such case is required, shall have been given by the importer of such goods, and the goods shall have been sold or disposed of, so that the original bondholder shall be no longer interested in or have controul over such goods, it shall be lawful to admit fresh security to be given by the bond of the new proprietor of such goods, or persons having the controul over the same, with his sufficient surety, and to cancel the bond given by the original bondholder, or to exonerate him and his surety to the extent of the fresh security so given.—§ 29.

Bond of Remover to be in force until Bond be given by new Owner.—If the person removing any goods from 1 port to another, and who shall have given bond in respect of such removal and rewarehousing, shall continue to be interested in such goods after the same have been duly rewarehoused, and such goods shall have been so rewarehoused in some warehouse, in respect of which security is required, and the proprietor or occupier of the same shall not have given general security, the bond in respect of such removal and rewarehousing shall be conditioned and continue in force, for the rewarehousing of such goods, until fresh bond be given by some new proprietor or other person in manner herein-before provided.—§ 30.

To sort, separate, and repack in some or equal Packages.—It shall be lawful in the warehouse to sort, separate, pack, and repack any goods, and to make such lawful alterations therein, or arrangements thereof, as may be necessary either for the preservation of such goods, or for order to the sale, shipment, or legal disposal of the same; provided that such goods be repacked in the same packages in which the same goods, or some part of the whole quantity of the same parcel of goods, were imported, or in packages of entire quantity equal thereto, or in such other packages as the commissioners of customs shall permit (not being less in any case, if the goods be to be exported or to be removed to another warehouse, than may be required by law for the importation of such goods); and also in the warehouse to draw off any wine, or any rum of the British plantations into reputed quart bottles or reputed pint bottles, for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse; and also to draw off any such rum into casks containing not less than 30 gallons each, for the purpose only of being disposed of as stores for ships; and also to draw off any other spirits into reputed quart bottles, under such regulations as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct, for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse; and also to draw off and mix with any wine any brandy secured in the same warehouse, not exceeding the proportion of 10 gallons of brandy to 100 gallons of wine; and also to fill up any casks of wine or spirits from any other casks of the same, respectively secured in the same warehouse; and also in any warehouse of special security to rack off any wine from the lees, and to mix any wines of the same sort, erasing from the casks all import brands; and also to take such moderate samples of goods as may be allowed by the commissioners of customs, without entry and without payment of duty, except as the same may eventually become payable, on a deficiency of the original quantity.—§ 31.

No Alteration in Goods or Package but according as the Commissioners direct.—No alteration shall be made in any goods or packages, nor shall any wine, rum, brandy, or spirits be bottled, drawn off, mixed, or filled up, nor shall any samples be taken except after such notices given by the respective importers or proprietors, and at such times and in such manner, and under such regulations and restrictions, as the commissioners of customs shall require and direct.—§ 32.

Repacking in proper Packages.—Whereas it may happen, that after the repacking into proper packages of any parcel of goods which have been unpacked and separated or drawn off from the original package in any of cases herein-before provided for, there may remain some surplus quantities of the respective parcels of such goods, which may not be sufficient to make or fill up any 1 of such proper packages, or it may happen that some part of such goods, when separated from other parts, may be such refuse, or in so damaged a state as to be worthless, or that the total quantity of such parcel of goods may be reduced by the separation of dirt or sediment, or by the dispersion of dust or otherwise; and whereas the duties payable on such goods may have been levied at a rate having regard to a just allowance for the state in which such goods are imported, and it is not proper that any manufacturing process should be performed in such warehouse to the detriment of the revenue; it is therefore enacted, that after such goods have been repacked in proper packages, the commissioners of customs, at the request of the importer or proprietor of such goods, may permit any such refuse, damaged, or surplus goods not contained in any of such packages, to be destroyed; and if the goods be such as may be delivered for home use, the duties shall be immediately paid upon any part of such surplus as may remain, and the same shall be delivered for home use accordingly; and if they be such as may not be so delivered, such surplus as may so remain shall be disposed of for the purpose of exportation in such manner as the commissioners shall direct; and thereupon the quantity contained in each of such packages shall be ascertained and marked upon the same, and the deficiency shall be ascertained by a comparison of the total quantity in such packages with the total quantity first warehoused, and the proportion which such deficiency may bear to the quantity in each package shall also be marked on the same, and added to such quantity, and the total shall be deemed to be the imported contents of such package, and be held subject to the full duties of importation, except as otherwise provided by this act: provided that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to accept the abandonment, for the duties, of any quantity of tobacco, coffee, pepper, cocoa, lees of wine, and also of any whole packages of other goods, and to cause or permit the same to be destroyed, and to deduct such quantity of tobacco or coffee, or pepper, or cocoa, or the contents of such whole packages, from the total quantity of the same importation, in computing the amount of the deficiency of such total quantity.—§ 33.

No Foreign Casks, &c. to be used for repacking.—No foreign casks, bottles, corks, packages, or materials whatsoever, except any in which some goods shall have been imported and warehoused, shall be used in the repacking of any goods in the warehouse, unless the full duties have been first paid thereon.—234.

Silks, Linens, &c. to be delivered out of Warehouse, to be cleaned.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the customs to permit any stuffs or fabrics of silk, linen, cotton, or wool, or of any mixture of them with any other material, to be taken out of warehouse to be cleaned, refreshed, dyed, stained, or calendered, or to be bleached or printed, without payment of duty of customs, under security, nevertheless, by bond to their satisfaction, that such goods shall be returned to the warehouse within the times that they shall appoint; and it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, in like manner and under like security, to permit any rice, the produce of places within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, to be delivered out of warehouse to be cleaned, making such allowance for waste as to the said commissioners shall appear to be reasonable.—235.

Copper Ore may be taken out of Warehouse to be smelted.—It shall be lawful for the importer or proprietor of any copper ore warehoused to give notice to the proper officers of his intention to take such ore out of warehouse to be smelted, stating in such notice the quantity of copper computed to be contained in such ore, and delivering to such officers sufficient samples or specimens for ascertaining by proper assays, at the expense of the proprietor, such quantity of copper, and giving sufficient security by bond for returning such quantity of copper into the warehouse; and if such officers shall be satisfied of the fairness of the samples or specimens of such ore, and of the assays made of the same, and of the security given, they shall deliver such ore for the purpose of being smelted: provided that if any copper ore intended to be so smelted shall be imported into any port where such ore or where copper cannot be warehoused, the same may be entered as being to be warehoused at the port at which the copper after smelting is to be warehoused, and such ore shall thereupon be taken account of and delivered for the purposes aforesaid, in like manner as if the same had been warehoused: provided also, that all copper so produced by smelting shall be deemed to be copper imported, and shall be warehoused as such.—236.

Goods in bulk delivered.—No parcels of goods so warehoused which were imported in bulk shall be delivered, except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than 1 ton weight, unless by special leave of the proper officers.—237.

Packages to be marked before delivery.—No goods in warehouse shall be delivered, unless the same or the packages containing the same shall have been marked in such distinguishing manner as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct.—238.

Decrease and Increase may be allowed, under Regulations of the Treasury.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury to make regulations for ascertaining the amount of the decrease or increase of the quantity of any particular sorts of goods, and to direct in what proportion any abatement of duty payable under this act for deficiencies shall, upon the exportation of any such goods, be made on account of such decrease: provided, that if such goods be lodged in warehouses of special security, no duty shall be charged for any defect or deficiency of any of such goods on the exportation thereof, except in cases where such goods shall arise that part of such goods has been clandestinely conveyed away, nor shall any such goods (unless they be wine or spirits) be measured, counted, weighed, or gauged for exportation: except in such cases of suspicion.—239.

Allowances for Waste of Wine, &c. in Warehouses not of special Security.—For any wine, spirits, coffee, cocoa nuts, or pepper lodged in warehouses not of special security, the following allowances for natural waste, in proportion to the time during which such goods have remained in warehouse, shall be made upon the exportation thereof; viz.

Wine, upon every cask; viz.	Spirits, upon every 100 gallons hydrometer proof; viz.
For any time not exceeding 1 year 1 gallon	For any time exceeding 12 months, and not exceeding 18 months 3 gallons
For any time exceeding 1 year, and not exceeding 2 years 2 gallons	For any time exceeding 18 months, and not exceeding 2 years 4 gallons
For any time exceeding 2 years 3 gallons	For any time exceeding 2 years 5 gallons
Rice, upon every 100 gallons hydrometer proof; viz.	Coffee, cocoa nuts, pepper, for every 100 lbs, and so in proportion for any less quantity 2 lbs.
For any time not exceeding 6 months 1 gallon	
For any time exceeding 6 months, and not exceeding 12 months 2 gallons	

—240.

Embezzlement and Waste by Officers to be made good to Proprietor.—In case any embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction, shall be made of any goods or merchandise warehoused in warehouses under the authority of this act, through any wilful misconduct of any officer of customs or excise, such officer shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall upon conviction suffer such punishment as may be inflicted by law in cases of misdemeanor; and if such officer shall be so prosecuted to conviction by the importer, consignee, or proprietor of the goods or merchandise so embezzled, wasted, spoiled, or destroyed, no duty of customs or excise shall be payable for such goods or merchandise so embezzled, &c., and no forfeiture or seizure shall take place of any goods and merchandise so warehoused in respect of any deficiency caused by such embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction, and the damage occasioned by such embezzlement, &c. of such goods or merchandise shall be repaid and made good to such importer, consignee, or proprietor by the commissioners of customs or excise, under such orders as shall be given by the commissioners of the treasury, or any 3 of them.—241.

On Entry outwards Bond for due shipping and landing shall be given.—Upon the entry outwards of any goods to be exported from the warehouse to parts beyond the seas, and before cocket be granted, the person in whose name the same be entered shall give security by bond in double the value of such goods, with 2 sufficient sureties, that such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, and shall be landed at the place for which they be entered outwards, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs.—242.

Bond for Beef and Pork exported from Warehouse.—Upon the entry outwards of any salted beef or salted pork to be exported from the warehouse to parts beyond seas, and before cocket be granted, the person in whose name the same be entered shall give security by bond in treble the value of the goods, with 2 sufficient sureties, of whom the master of the exporting ship shall be 1, that such beef or pork shall be duly shipped and exported, and that no part thereof shall be consumed on board such ship, and that the same shall be landed at the place for which it be entered outwards; and that a certificate of such landing shall be produced within a reasonable time, according to the voyage, to be fixed by the commissioners of customs, and mentioned in the bond, such certificate to be signed by the officers of the customs or other British officer, if the goods be landed at a place in the British dominions, or by the British consul, if the goods be landed at a place not in the British dominions, or such goods shall be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of said commissioners; and such master shall make and sign a declaration that such beef or pork is to be laden on board such ship as merchandise, to be carried to and landed at parts beyond the seas, and not as stores for the said ship; and if such ship shall not have on board at the time of clearance outwards a reasonable supply or stock of beef or pork, according to the intended voyage, borne upon the victualling bill, the master of such ship shall forfeit the amount of 100l.—243.

Restrictions as to the Isle of Man.—No goods shall be exported from the warehouse to the Isle of Man, except such goods as may be imported into the said island with licence of the commissioners of customs, and in virtue of any such licence first obtained.—244.

Goods removed from Ware-houses under Care of Customs' Officers.—All goods taken from the warehouse for removal or for exportation shall be removed or carried to be shipped under the care or with the authority or permission of the proper officers of customs, and in such manner, and by such persons, and within such spaces of time, and by such roads or ways, as be shall authorise or direct; and all such goods not so removed or carried shall be forfeited.—§ 45.

Ships to be not less than 70 Tons for exporting warehoused Goods.—It shall not be lawful for any person to export any goods so warehoused, nor to enter for exportation to parts beyond the seas any goods so warehoused, in any ship not of the burden of 70 tons or upwards.—§ 36.

Goods landed in Docks liable to Claims for Freight as before landing.—All goods or merchandise which shall be landed in docks, and lodged in the custody of their proprietors, under this act, not being goods seized as forfeited, shall be subject or liable to the same claim for freight in favour of the master and owner or owners of the respective ships or vessels, or of any other person or persons interested in the freight of the same, as they were subject and liable to before landing; and the directors and proprietors of such docks are empowered and required, upon due notice in that behalf given to them, to detain and keep such goods and merchandise, not being seized as forfeited, in the warehouses belonging to the said docks, until the respective freights to which the same are subject and liable be duly paid, together with the rates and charges to which the same shall have been subject and liable, or until a deposit be made by the owners or consignees of such goods or merchandise, equal in amount to the demands made by the master, owner or owners of the ships or vessels, or other persons, on account of freight; which deposit the directors or proprietors of such docks, or their agents, are directed to receive and hold in trust, until the claim or demand for freight upon such goods shall be satisfied; upon proof of which, and demand made by the persons, their executors, &c. by whom the said deposit has been made, and the rates and charges due upon the said goods being paid, the deposit shall be returned to them by the said directors or proprietors.—§ 47.

Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign Merchandise remaining in Warehouse under the Locks of the Crown, in the Ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Hull, on or about the 5th of January, 1832 and 1833.—(Papers published by Board of Trade, vol. ii. p. 66.)

Articles.	January, 1832.	January, 1833.	Articles.	January, 1832.	January, 1833.
Alkanet root	183,206	683,935	Raisins	41,695	85,323
Aniseeds	804,175	29,2323	Raubarb	16,140	17,268
Alum	14,025	18,949	cheests	—	420
cocks	1,000	133	Rice	43,367	45,307
Barilla	147,820	33,543	bags	12,355	14,380
Borax	18,738	27,776	cwt.	30,992	14,400
lb.	18	4	M. F.	5,223	1,629
Bristles	88,311	452,035	Saltpetre	25,981	60,865
casks	428	346	rod n	91,337	123,791
Casia lignea	22,254	258,943	Shallars	1,819	746
packages	5,287	1,611	nwt.	1,055	5,101
lbs.	20,966	1,154	cheest	811	244
bags	1,319	2,515	cwt.	7,053	11,133
Camphor	12,237	13,113	Shumac	1,811	5,132
cheests	1,147	980	bags	4,877	—
Cinnamon	688,089	404,854	Silk, raw	2,097,194	2,093,550
Cloves	775,562	340,440	larvra	75,765	68,575
Cochineal	335,361	335,337	Small	184,172	254,682
serons, &c.	77	1,68	Uprils, brandy	612,420	723,657
Cocoa	3,603	1,168	pouchons	772	1,115
bags	18,485	5,772	nwt.	8,264	8,954
lbs.	454,197	401,227	gallons	13,035	27,530
Coffee	177,027	37,449	casks	82	99
barrels	1,185	1,603	cases	36	708
bags	77,798	102,429	run	68,932	61,967
bales	3,307	2,969	hhd.	10,528	6,281
lbs.	4,692,006	5,037,969	gallons	1,263,181	66,615
Corrants	87,513	87,618	cwt.	11,456	1,221
caroteels and buts	630	2,614	kegs	1,828	516
cwt.	1,803	2,199	hrt.	66,542	56,365
drums	84,463	77,519	horses	4,436	3,016
packages	5,630	13,431	barrels	2,080	1,688
tms	5,681	890	bags	136,272	96,555
cwt.	905	817	cheests	10,373	7,521
bags	1,676	1,112	boxes	18,400	42,328
cwt.	2,391	809	cwt.	281,513	263,708
bags	4,516	393	casks	30,261	61,375
Ginger	1,867	1,846	cases	15,568	6,250
Hemp	127,680	92,479	lbs.	43,256,482	49,097,146
bundles	28,418	11,640	cwt.	11,273,163	12,197,163
number	28,401	28,881	cases	8,303	3,197
India rubber	129,683	158,381	cwt.	166,544	800,174
Indigo	84,315	214,381	hhd.	5,760	2,412
casks	86,334	30,670	packages	270	23
Iron bar	5,974	6,301	cwt.	41,082	42,263
bars	26,780	19,411	bags	5,860	5,511
cwt.	1,803	2,199	gallons	4,124	4,496
lbs.	548,368	687,738	cwt.	11,427	10,841
cheests	7,830	6,819	cwt.	17,507	13,430
Lead	5,256	5,268	gallons	4,663,011	229,184
Logwood	5,591	7,684	pipes	412	565
Mace	77,798	5,781	hhd.	1,486	868
Madder	9,018	39,938	gallons	240,661	318,529
casks	9,177	39,938	hhd.	336	466
cwt.	3,524	5,081	cases	1,498	1,430
bags	84	210	gallons	265,748	361,094
Molasses	24,644	7,673	nwt.	303	344
casks	1,634	1,708	hhd.	318	442
tms	608	602	gallons	2,216,904	1,976,837
Nutmings	97,498	229,268	bags	692	692
Oil, castor	118,177	65,710	hhd.	1,430	1,099
alire	8,448	825	gallons	68,529	47,037
casks	6,960	1,138	hhd.	4,168	42
bags	865	1,326	gallons	2,606,214	2,641,598
cwt.	9,241	1,811	butts	785	785
cheests	698	81	hhd.	3,258	3,258
lbs.	10,674	2,517	gallons	173,549	13,373
Pepper	251,479	478,740	pipes	243	143
bags	60,419	73,661	hhd.	633	307
casks	600,590	460,039	bales	10,041	6,183
alira	133,695	181,738	cwt.	31,706	104,110
nwt.	1,819,340	246,083	lbs.	2,078,243	311,174
bags	21,541	19,174	nwt.	3,708	3,711
casks and bags	640,736	490,830	cwt.	87,188	36,285
lbs.	107,436	24,189	plates	5,698	5,923
casks	16,304	24,291	casks	16	16
Raisins	41,695	85,323			
Raubarb	16,140	17,268			
cheests	—	420			
Rice	43,367	45,307			
bags	12,355	14,380			
cwt.	30,992	14,400			
M. F.	5,223	1,629			
Saltpetre	25,981	60,865			
rod n	91,337	123,791			
Shallars	1,819	746			
nwt.	1,055	5,101			
cheest	811	244			
cwt.	7,053	11,133			
Shumac	1,811	5,132			
bags	4,877	—			
Silk, raw	2,097,194	2,093,550			
larvra	75,765	68,575			
Small	184,172	254,682			
Uprils, brandy	612,420	723,657			
pouchons	772	1,115			
nwt.	8,264	8,954			
gallons	13,035	27,530			
casks	82	99			
cases	36	708			
run	68,932	61,967			
hhd.	10,528	6,281			
gallons	1,263,181	66,615			
cwt.	11,456	1,221			
kegs	1,828	516			
hrt.	66,542	56,365			
horses	4,436	3,016			
barrels	2,080	1,688			
bags	136,272	96,555			
cheests	10,373	7,521			
boxes	18,400	42,328			
cwt.	281,513	263,708			
casks	30,261	61,375			
cases	15,568	6,250			
lbs.	43,256,482	49,097,146			
cwt.	11,273,163	12,197,163			
cases	8,303	3,197			
cwt.	166,544	800,174			
hhd.	5,760	2,412			
packages	270	23			
cwt.	41,082	42,263			
bags	5,860	5,511			
gallons	4,124	4,496			
cwt.	11,427	10,841			
cwt.	17,507	13,430			
gallons	4,663,011	229,184			
pipes	412	565			
hhd.	1,486	868			
gallons	240,661	318,529			
hhd.	336	466			
cases	1,498	1,430			
gallons	265,748	361,094			
nwt.	303	344			
hhd.	318	442			
gallons	2,216,904	1,976,837			
bags	692	692			
hhd.	1,430	1,099			
gallons	68,529	47,037			
hhd.	4,168	42			
gallons	2,606,214	2,641,598			
butts	785	785			
hhd.	3,258	3,258			
gallons	173,549	13,373			
pipes	243	143			
hhd.	633	307			
bales	10,041	6,183			
cwt.	31,706	104,110			
lbs.	2,078,243	311,174			
nwt.	3,708	3,711			
cwt.	87,188	36,285			
plates	5,698	5,923			
casks	16	16			

Soap
and
beard
of all kinds
Sugar
of all kinds
Waters, mineral and
of all sorts
Wires
of Turbith
Vanillose
Vellum,
Verdigris
Vinegar
Watches of all sorts
Watch glasses
Waters, mineral and
of all sorts
Wires
of Turbith
Yara, mohair

and of every description, which, no
warehouse act, may be imported, for
only 1 all which goods may be deposited
4 by and surrounded with walls, or in
case of special security, especially to be
of the Treasury.

Warehouse Rent.
on goods deposited in the King's ware-
house, per week, 6d. each.
of packages; per week, six boxes, keys,
&c. All other packages not before de-
scribed, 4d. each.
deposited in the King's warehouse a
pound taken out of the sums. 2. For
warehouses in the King's warehouse at the
(Treasury Orders, Nos. 27, 1844, and

or paid, on the whole or any
accident in the ware-
4 Will. 4. c. 57., or any other
following articles, deposited in
warehouse, and mahogany, when
actually delivered.
clause in the general ware-
house indemnification of the mer-
chandise, waste, or spoil, or
extend, to any damage or loss

Oriundi da tasca, o da
portable machines, gene-
rate the successive portions
of its size, its capacity of its
number and complexity of its
parts the successive portions
we need not wonder at Dr.
accuracy.

as pendulum clocks. In-
stead, the isochronism of the
middle of the 16th century,
writers generally incline to
(watch), that the words "Rob."
presented to Charles II. in 1675.
1600, that Huygens made this
Holland in 1657. Comparing
priority of the discovery in the
of those distinguished persons
is, that the happy idea of em-
ploying nearly at the same time.
idea may be determined by the
in made as perfect as possible.
of marine watches, or chrono-
meters of Queen Anne, parliament
of other instrument, capable of
of premium was awarded, in
tried in a voyage to Barbary.
Other premisses, through
Earnshaw, &c. Since 1822,
makers of the 2 chronometers
trial at the Royal Observatory
that some of the chronometers
have not varied to the extent

great extent in London; in
this department. There are
15th Hall, London—(Jacob on
probably, not much under
at Liverpool, Coventry, Edin-
burgh, Prescot in Lancashire; but
at Geneva, and in Neuchâtel.

Some of the French and Swiss watches are excellent; but, generally speaking, they are slight, and inferior to those made in London. Paris and Geneva watches are largely exported to foreign countries; and are every where in high estimation, particularly among the ladies.

Watches impressed with any mark or stamp, appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay mark or stamp, or purporting by any mark or appearance to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom, or not having the name and place of abode of some foreign maker abroad visible on the frame and also on the face, or not being in a complete state, with all the parts properly fixed in the case, may not be imported into the United Kingdom, even for the purpose of being warehoused.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 58. See *ante*, p. 10.)

Watches in China.—Pretty considerable numbers of European watches are imported into China; and we anticipate, now that the monopoly is put down, a large increase of the trade. It may be worth mentioning, that those among the Chinese, as well as among some other Eastern nations, who can afford it, uniformly wear watches in pairs. This sort of extravagance is not, however, confined to watches, but extends to a variety of other articles. Shawls, for example, are invariably worn in India in pairs of exactly the same pattern; and it is hardly possible, indeed, to find a native dealer who will sell a single shawl.

In 1838, there were exported from Great Britain 19,678 watches of British manufacture; of these, 11,775 were silver, 4,167 metal, 435 gold, 671 being without cases. The duty on foreign watches and clocks is an *ad valorem* one of 35 per cent., and no account is kept of the numbers of each imported. In 1838, their aggregate value amounted to 25,332l.; the total value of all foreign clocks and watches imported during the same year being 1,094l.—(Parl. Paper, No. 460. 1838.)

WATER. It may be thought unnecessary, perhaps, to say anything in a work of this sort with respect to a fluid so well known and so abundant. It is said being an indispensable necessary of life, water is, in most large cities, an important commercial article. In the latter point of view, principally, that we mean to consider it.—Inasmuch, however, as the mode of supplying different places with water, and its price, necessarily vary in every possible way, we shall limit our remarks on these subjects to the metropolis only. The few remarks we intend to offer of a general nature will apply indifferently to any populous place, the supply of which with water occasions a considerable expense.

1. *Quality of Water.*—Dr. Ure has made the following statements with respect to the quality of water:—"Water," says he, "is a very transparent fluid, possessing a moderate degree of activity with regard to organised substances, which renders it friendly to animal and vegetable life, for both which it is, indeed, indispensably necessary. Hence it acts but slightly on the organs of sense, and is therefore said to have neither taste nor smell. It appears to possess considerable elasticity, and yields in a perceptible degree to the pressure of air in the condensing machine."

"Native water is seldom, if ever, found perfectly pure. The waters that flow within or upon the surface of the earth contain various earthy, saline, metallic, vegetable, or animal particles, according to the substances over or through which they pass. Rain and snow waters are much purer than these, although they also contain whatever floats in the air, or has been exhaled along with the water vapour."

"The purity of water may be known by the following marks or properties of pure water:—
"1. Pure water is lighter than water that is not pure.
"2. Pure water is more fluid than water that is not pure.
"3. It has no colour, smell, or taste.
"4. It wets more easily than the waters containing metallic and earthy salts, called hard waters, and feels softer when touched."

"5. Soap, or a solution of soap in alcohol, mixes easily and perfectly with it.
"6. It is not rendered turbid by adding to it a solution of gold in aqua regia; or a solution of silver, or of lead, or of mercury, in nitric acid; or a solution of acetate of lead in water.
"Water was, till modern times, considered as an elementary or simple substance; but it is now ascertained to be a compound of oxygen and hydrogen."

2. *Supply of Water.*—London was very ill supplied with water previously to the early part of the 17th century, when the New River water was introduced into the city. This exceedingly useful work was planned and carried into effect by the famous Sir Hugh Middleton, who expended his whole fortune on the project; having, like many other public benefactors, entailed poverty on himself and his posterity by embarking in an undertaking productive of vast wealth to others, and of great public utility. The New River has its principal source near Chadwell, between Herford and Ware, about 20 miles from London; but the artificial channel in which the water is conveyed is about forty miles in length. Sir Hugh Middleton encountered innumerable difficulties during the progress of the undertaking, which it is probable would have been abandoned, at least for a time, but for the aid afforded by James I. The New River Company was incorporated in 1619, 6 years after the water had been brought to the reservoir at Islington. The undertaking yielded very little profit for a considerable number of years; but it has since become extremely profitable; so much so, that an original 500l. share has been sold for 13,000l.!

The Chelsea Water-Works Company was formed in 1723, and (with the aid of 3 smaller companies, none of which are now in existence) it, and the New River, supplied all that part of the metropolis north of the Thames with water, down to the year 1810. In that year, however, 3 new companies, the East London, West Middlesex, and Grand Junction, were established, under the authority of different acts of parliament. At this moment the metropolis is supplied with water by the following companies:—

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|
| New River, | Grand Junction, |
| Chelsea, | Lambeth, |
| East London, | Vauxhall, or South London, and |
| West Middlesex, | Southwark Water Works. |

The following statements with respect to these companies are taken from Mr. Wade's valuable treatise on the police of the metropolis. The Report of the commissioners appointed by government in 1827, to inquire into the state of the supply of water in the metropolis is the principal authority on which they are founded.

"The New River Company get their supply from the spring at Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware. It comes in an open channel, of about 40 miles in length, to reservoirs at Clerkenwell. There are 3 reservoirs, having between them a surface of about 5 acres, and an average depth of 10 feet. These reservoirs are 64 feet above low water mark in the Thames; and, by means of steam engines and a stand-pipe, an additional height of 60 feet can be given to the water, so that all the mains belonging to this Company are kept full by a considerable pressure of water. The highest service given by the New River is the cistern on the top of Covent Garden Theatre. The aqueduct by which the water is brought has only a fall of 3 inches per mile; thus it wastes, by evaporation, during the drought of summer, and is impeded by frost in the winter. At these times the Company pump an additional supply from the Thames, at Broken Wharf, between Blackfriars and Southwark Bridges. To this, however, they seldom have recourse; and their engine, erected since the works at London Bridge were broken down, has worked only 176 hours in the year. The New River Company supply 66,000 houses with water, at an annual average of about 1,100 hogheads each, or, in all, about 75,000,000 hogheads annually."

"The East London Water Works are situated at Old Ford, on the river Lea, about 3 miles from the Thames, and a little below the point to which the tide flows up the Lea. By the act of parliament, this Company must take its water when the tide runs up and the mills below have ceased working. The water is pumped into reservoirs and allowed to settle; and a supply of 6,000,000 gallons is daily distributed to about 42,000 houses. This Company supply no water at a greater elevation than 30 feet, and the usual height at which the delivery is made to the tenants is 6 feet above the pavement; they have 300 miles of iron pipes, which, in some places, cost them 7 guineas a yard. This and the New River are the only companies which do not draw their supply of water entirely from the Thames."

"The West Middlesex derive their supply of water from the Thames, at the upper end of Hammer-smith, about 91 miles above London Bridge, and where the bed of the Thames is gravel. The water is forced by engines to a reservoir at Kensington, 300 feet long, 123 wide, and 30 deep, paved and lined with bricks, and elevated about 120 feet above low water in the Thames. They have another reservoir on Little Primrose Hill, about 70 feet higher, and containing 68,000 hogheads of water, under the pressure of which the drains are kept charged, in case of fires. They serve about 15,000 tenants, and the average daily supply is about 3,350,000 gallons."

"The Chelsea Water Works derive their supply from the Thames, about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile east of Chelsea Hospital; and they have 3 reservoirs—one in the Green Park and another in Hyde Park—the former having an elevation of 44 feet, and the latter of 70. These reservoirs, till within these few months, had never been cleaned, nor had there been any preparation made for that purpose in their construction. About $\frac{1}{2}$ of the water served out by this Company is allowed to settle in these reservoirs, and the remaining $\frac{1}{2}$ are sent directly from the Thames. Lately, the Company have been making preparations for filtering the water; and also for allowing it to settle in reservoirs, at Chelsea, before it is delivered into the mains. The Chelsea Company serve about 13,400 houses, and the average daily supply is 1,760,000 gallons."

"The Grand Junction Company derive the whole of their supply from the Thames, immediately adjoining Chelsea Hospital; thence it is pumped, without any filtration or settling, into 3 reservoirs at Paddington. These reservoirs are about 71, 86, and 93 feet above high water mark in the Thames; their united contents are 16,355,540 gallons; and by means of a stand-pipe, the water is forced to the height of 147 feet, or about 61 feet above the average height in the reservoir. The number of houses supplied by the Grand Junction Company is 7,700, and the average daily supply is about 3,800,000 gallons."

"The Lambeth Company take their supply from the Thames, between Westminster and Waterloo Bridges. It is drawn from the bed of the river by a suction pipe, and delivered to the tenants without being allowed to subside; there being only a cistern of 400 barrels at the works, as a temporary supply, until the engines can be started. The greatest height to which the Company force water is about 40 feet; the number of houses that they supply is 16,000, and the average service is 1,241,000 gallons daily."

"The South London, or Vauxhall Company, take their supply from the river Thames by a tunnel, which is laid 6 feet below low water mark, and as far into the river as the third arch of Vauxhall Bridge. At that particular place, the bed of the Thames is described as being always clean, and without any of those depositions of mud and more offensive substances that are found in many other places. Besides the greater purity of the bed of the Thames here than where any other Company on the south side take their supply, the Company allow the water to settle in reservoirs. The Vauxhall Company supply about 10,000 houses with about 1,000,000 gallons of water daily."

"The Southwark Water Works (the property of an individual) are supplied from the middle of the Thames, below Southwark and London Bridges; and the water thus taken is sent out to the tenants without standing to settle, or any filtration further than it receives from passing through wire grates and small holes in metallic plates. The number of houses supplied by these works is about 7,000, and the average daily supply about 720,000 gallons."

The results may be collected into a Table, as follows:—

Companies.	Services.	Average per Day, Gallons.	Gallons Annually.	Average per House, Gallons.
1. New River	67,000	13,000,000	4,666,000,000	152
2. East London	42,000	6,000,000	1,972,000,000	143
3. West Middlesex	15,000	3,250,000	702,000,000	140
4. Chelsea	13,400	1,760,000	648,120,000	142
5. Grand Junction	7,700	3,800,000	1,375,600,000	163
6. Lambeth	16,000	1,844,000	668,224,000	111
7. South London	10,000	1,000,000	312,000,000	100
8. Southwark	7,000	720,000	261,240,000	102
Total	183,100	28,774,000	8,977,868,000	157

Average per house north of the river 198 gallons.
Average per house south of the river 98 ditto.

It would appear from this Table, as if the supply of water were either excessive on the Middlesex side of the river, or very deficient on the Surrey side. But this discrepancy is more apparent than real. The inhabitants in the northern district are, speaking generally, decidedly richer than those in the southern district; they have, particularly in the west end of the town, larger families, and a much greater number of houses. There is also a much larger expenditure of water upon the roads in Middlesex than in Surrey. Still, however, we believe that there is a more liberal supply in the former than in the latter.

Monopoly of the Water Companies.—The sanction of parliament was given to the 3 new companies formed in 1810, not so much in the view of increasing the actual supply of water, as of checking monopoly, and reducing the rates by their competition. But these expectations have not been realized. For a while, indeed, the competition of the several companies was exceedingly injurious to their in-

well, between Hertford and Clerkenwell. There is an average depth of 10 feet, and, by means of steam engines, water, so that all the mains bear. The highest service given by the aqueduct by which the Corporation pump an additional Southwark Bridge. In this, the works at London Bridge River Company supply 66,000 gals, or, in all, about 75,000,000

r. Lea, about 3 miles from the city. By the act of parliament, below have ceased working. A greater elevation than 30 feet above the pavement is unless a yard. The water is drawn entirely from the Thames, at the upper end of Hammer-frames is gravel. The water is 20 deep, paved and lined with lead. They have another reservoirs of water, under the service about 15,000 tenants, and

at 1/2 of a mile east of Chelsea in Hyde Park—the former till within these few months, but purpose in their construction in these reservoirs, and company have been making pre-reservoirs, at Chelsea, before it houses, and the average daily

from the Thames, immediately or settling, into 3 reservoirs in water mark in the Thames; the water is forced to the reservoir. The number of houses daily supply is about 3,900,000

in Westminster and Waterloo delivered to the tenants without the works, as a temporary supply. Company force water is about 1,344,000 gallons

the river Thames by a tunnel, as the third arch of Vauxhall, and being always clean, and with- found in many other places. other Company on the south side. The Vauxhall Company

supplied from the middle of the ten is sent out to the tenants from passing through which filled by these works is about

House Annually.	Average per House, Gallons.
4,068,000,000	152
1,672,000,000	143
702,000,000	150
248,100,000	144
273,000,000	93
888,128,000	77
312,000,000	110
282,540,000	102
5,977,368,000	157

r excessive on the Middlesex Company is more apparent than decidedly richer than those in a, larger families, and a much water upon the roads in Mid-liberal supply in the former

iven to the 3 new companies of water, as of checking motions have not been realized, edgingly injurious to their in-

wards, and occasioned the total destruction of some of the inferior ones; but no sooner had this happened, than the others discovered that their interests were in reality the same, and that the true way to promote them was to concert measures together. In furtherance of this object, the 5 companies for the supply of that part of the metropolis north of the river proceeded to divide the town into as many districts, binding themselves, under heavy penalties, not to encroach on each other's estates; and having in this way gone far to secure themselves against any new competitors, their next measure was to add 1/2 and 1/3 per cent. to the rates established in 1810; and these have, in several instances, been still further augmented. The benefits that were expected to result from their multiplication have, therefore, proved quite imaginary; and though the supply of water has been increased, it is neither so cheap nor so good as it might have been under a different system.

The following statement of the rates and profits of the 5 principal Water Companies in 1820 and 1827, is extracted from the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the supply of water in 1828:—

Comparative Returns of 1820 with 1827.

Years.	Houses.	Av. rate per House.	Gross Annual Income.		Gross Expenditure.		Nett Profit.		Remarks.
			£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	
1820	10,860	47	24,892	8 10	9,000	0 0	15,892	8 10	West Middlesex.
1827	14,500	61	37,000	0 0	13,000	0 0	24,000	0 0	
1820	7,190	87	20,153	11 7	8,616	6 8	11,537	6 7	Grand Junction.
1827	7,908	91	24,702	6 0	10,674	6 4	14,027	10 8	
1820	8,831	36	16,180	7 11	12,255	11 0	3,924	10 11	Chelsea.
1827	12,109	30	18,589	18	12,532	3 9	6,057	15 4	
1820	32,071	22	35,368	14 8	15,338	1 8	19,999	13 9	East London.
1827	42,000	21	45,442	18 6	14,050	8 0	31,392	13 8	
1820	62,782	25	67,275	8	45,109	18 4	19,165	4 0	New River.
1827	66,800	28	36,657	15 10	59,304	13 3	20,453	8 7	
1820	6,200	18	4,708	3	-	-	-	-	South London.
1827	10,000	18	8,293	8 7	7,991	13 7	301	9 0	
1820	11,487	16	8,335	0	3,552	0 0	783	0 0	Lambeth.
1827	15,987	16	12,370	0	9,500	0 0	2,870	0 0	
1820	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Southwark.
1827	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Total North of the Thames.

Years.	Houses.	Gross Annual Income.		Gross Expenditure.		Nett Profit.	
		£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.
1820	110,314	162,190	3 6	94,817	16 4	67,372	7 1
1827	143,318	221,292	16 4	108,461	10 7	111,831	6 9

Total South of the Thames.—Returns not complete.

The truth is, as we endeavoured to show in the article COMPANIES, that certain restrictions ought, in almost all cases, to be imposed on companies for the supply of water to a large city. These are not undertakings that can be safely trusted to the free principles that may generally be relied upon. If there be only one set of springs adjacent to a town, or if there be certain springs more conveniently situated for supplying it with water than any other, a company acquiring a right to such springs, and incorporated for the purpose of conveying the water to town, would thereby gain an exclusive advantage; and if no limits were set to the dividends, its partners might make an enormous profit at the expense of the public, and without its being possible materially to reduce them by means of competition. What has happened in the case of the New River Company sufficiently evinces the truth of what has now been stated. Had its dividends been limited to any thing like a reasonable profit, the water that is at present supplied by its means might have been furnished for a small part of what it actually costs. But in cases of this sort, priority of occupation, even without any other peculiar advantage, goes far to exclude all regular and wholesome competition. A company that has got pipes laid down in the streets may, if threatened by the competition of another company, lower its rates so as to make the latter withdraw from the field; and as soon as this is done, it may revert to its old, or even to higher charges. It is not, in fact, possible, in numerous concerns of this sort, to have any thing like competition, in the ordinary sense of the term; and experience shows that whenever it is attempted, it only continues for a limited period, and is sure to be in the end effectually suppressed. We are, therefore, clearly of opinion, that no company ought ever to be formed for the conveyance of water into a large city, without a maximum being set both to the rates and the dividends; giving the company an option, in the event of the maximum rate yielding more than the maximum dividend, either to reduce the rate, or to apply the surplus to the purchase of the company's stock; so that ultimately the charge on account of the dividends may be got rid of.

We are glad to have to add, that we are supported in what is now stated by the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the supply of water for the metropolis, printed in 1821. It is there said—"The public is at present without any protection even against a further indefinite extension of demand. In cases of dispute, there is no tribunal but the Boards of the companies themselves, to which individuals can appeal; there are no regulations but such as the companies may have voluntarily imposed upon themselves, and may therefore at any time revoke, for the continuance of the supply in its present state, or for defining the cases in which it may be withdrawn from the householder. All these points, and some others of the same nature, indispensably require legislative regulation, where the subject matter is an article of the first necessity, and the supply has, from peculiar circumstances, got into such a course that it is not under the operation of those principles which govern supply and demand in other cases."

"The principle of the acts under which these companies were instituted, was to encourage competition; and certainly in this, as in other cases, it is only from competition, or the expectation of competition, that a perfect security can be had for a good supply. But your committee are satisfied, that, from the peculiar nature of these undertakings, the principle of competition requires to be guarded by particular checks and limits in its application to them, in order to render it effectual, without the risk of destruction to the competing parties, and thereby, ultimately, of a serious injury to the public." And the committee proceeds to remark—"The submission of their accounts annually to parliament for a few years, would necessarily throw light on this part of the question."

We think that it would be highly expedient to adopt the suggestion of the committee, by calling upon the companies to lay annually detailed statements of their affairs before parliament. They should be obliged in these statements to give an account of the rates charged by them, and to make a special report as to every case in which they have withdrawn water from a household. It is to no purpose to repeat, in opposition to this proposal, the common-places about competition securing for the citizens a sufficient supply of water at the lowest price, in the same way that the competition of bakers and butchers secures them supplies of beef and bread! The statements already made show that there is no anomaly whatever in the circumstances under which these articles are supplied. If a man be dissatisfied with any particular butcher or baker, he may go to another; but it is not possible for him to change his water merchant, unless he also change the place of his residence. No water company will encroach upon the district assigned to another; and supposing an individual unlucky enough to quarrel with those who have the absolute monopoly of the supply of the district in which he resides, he must either migrate to another, or be without water, unless he can get a supply upon his own premises! Such being the actual state of things, it is quite ludicrous to talk about competition affording any real security against extortion and abuse. Even the publication of the proceedings of the companies would be a very inadequate check on their conduct; but such as it is, it is perhaps the only one that can now be resorted to; and as it would have considerable influence, it ought not, certainly, to be neglected.

3. *Quality of the London Water.*—All the companies, with the exception of the New River and East London Companies, derive their supplies of water from the Thames; and in consequence of their taking it up within the limits to which the tide flows, it is necessarily, in the first instance, loaded with many impurities. But the reports that were recently so very prevalent, with respect to the deleterious quality of the water taken from the river, have been shown to be very greatly exaggerated. The statement of Dr. Bostock, given in the *Report* of the commissioners, shows that by far the greater part of the impurities in the Thames water are mechanically suspended in, and not chemically combined with it; and that they may be separated from it by filtration, or by merely allowing it to stand at rest. Most of the companies have recently made considerable efforts to improve their water; and though they have not done in the respect as much as they might and ought to have done, a considerable improvement has, on the whole, been effected; and notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, we have been assured, by those best qualified to form an opinion on such a subject, that, though not nearly so pure as a little pains would render it, there is not the slightest foundation for the notion that its impurities have been such as to affect, in any degree, the health of the inhabitants.

4. *Water for Ships.*—Various improvements have been made in the art of preserving water on board ships. Of these, the principal are the charring the inside of the casks in which the water is kept, and the substitution of iron tanks for casks. The latter, being made of the required shape, may be conveniently stowed into any part of the ship. In men-of-war, the iron tanks serve as ballast; the water being brought up by a forcing pump. Wax is found to preserve better in them than in any other sort of vessel. Drip-stones may be employed with much advantage in the purification of water. When water is taken on board from a river into which the tide flows, it should, of course, be raised at low ebb.

WAX (*Ger. Wachs; Fr. Cire; It. and Sp. Cera; Rus. Wosk*), a vegetable product. Several plants contain wax in such abundance, as to make it worth while to extract it from them. But bees' wax is by far the most generally known. The honey is first pressed from the comb, and the wax is then melted into cakes. It has a slight odour of honey, is insipid, and of a bright yellow hue. It is brittle, yet soft, and somewhat unctuous to the touch. It is often adulterated with earth, pea-meal, resin, &c. The presence of the former may be suspected when the cake is very brittle, or when its colour inclines more to gray than to yellow; and the presence of resin may be suspected when the fracture appears smooth and shining, instead of being granulated. Wax, when bleached, or purified, is white, perfectly insipid, inodorous, and somewhat translucent; it is harder, less unctuous to the touch, heavier, and less fusible, than yellow wax. It is sometimes adulterated with the white oxide of lead to increase its weight, with white tallow, and with potato starch. The first is detected by melting the wax in water, when the oxide falls to the bottom; the presence of tallow is indicated by the wax being of a dull opaque white, and wanting the transparency which distinguishes pure wax; and starch may be detected by applying sulphuric acid in the suspected wax, as the acid carbonises the starch, without acting on the wax.—(*Thomson's Chemistry, and Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Notwithstanding the large supply of wax produced at home, a considerable quantity is imported from abroad; and there can be no doubt that the import would be much greater, were it not for the magnitude of the duty, which, notwithstanding its late reduction, still amounts to *li. 10s. per cwt.* The total quantity imported, in 1831, amounted to 7,303 cwt., of which 3,592 cwt. came from Western Africa, 1,551 cwt. from Tripoli, Barbary, &c. 910 cwt. from the United States, and the rest from Russia, Germany, &c.

Account of the Imports and Exports of Wax, the Quantities retained for Home Use, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Nett Produce of the Duty, in 1831 and 1832.—(*Papers published by the Board of Trade, vol. ii. p. 29.*)

	Imports.		Exports.		Retained for Home Consumption.		Rate of Duty.	Produce of Duty.
	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.		
Wax, unbleached							<i>l. s. d.</i>	<i>l. s. d.</i>
Bleached	7,001	4,348	1,878	2,538	10,002	328	1 0 0	10,282 0 0
	198		504		84		3 0 0	823 0 0

The price of wax varies (duty included) from 5*l.* to 10*l.* a cwt.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. Weights are used to ascertain the gravity of bodies,—a quality depending partly on their magnitude, and partly on their density. Measures are used to determine the magnitude of bodies, or the space which they occupy.

(For an account of the weights and measures used in foreign countries, and their equivalents in English weights and measures, see the notices of the great sea-port towns dispersed

or multiples or certain proportions of the said standard yard; and that 1-3d part of the said standard yard shall be a foot, and the 12th part of such foot shall be an inch; and that the pole or perch in length shall contain 5½ such yards, the furlong 220 such yards, and the mile 1,760 such yards."—§ 1.

The superficial measures are formed on the basis of the square of this standard; it being enacted, that

"The rood of land shall contain 1,310 square yards, according to the said standard yard; and that the acre of land shall contain 4,840 such square yards, being 160 square perches, poles, or rods."—§ 2.

Uniformity of Weights and Measures.—The confusion and inconvenience attending the use of weights and measures of the same denomination, but of different magnitudes, was early remarked; and there is hardly a country in which efforts have not been made to reduce them to the same uniform system. Numerous acts of parliament have been passed, having this object in view, and enjoining the use of the same weights and measures, under very severe penalties. But, owing to the inveteracy of ancient customs, and the difficulty of enforcing new regulations, these statutes have always had a very limited influence, and the greatest diversity has continued to prevail, except in lineal measures. But the statute of 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. seems to have, at length, effected what former statutes failed of accomplishing. It is, perhaps, indebted for its success in this respect to the moderate nature of the changes which it introduced. We have already seen that it made no alteration in the lineal measures previously in use. Neither did it affect the previously existing system of weights: both the Troy and the Avoirdupois weights having been preserved.

"The Troy weight," says Mr. Davies Gilbert, President of the Royal Society, "appeared to us (the commissioners of weights and measures) to be the ancient weight of this kingdom, having, as we have reason to suppose, existed in the same state from the time of St. Edward the Confessor; and there are reasons, moreover, to believe, that the word Troy has no reference to any town in France, but rather to the month name given to London, of Troy Navant, founded on the legend of Brute. Troy weight, therefore, according to this etymology, is, in fact, London weight. We were induced, moreover, to preserve the Troy weight, because all the coinage has been uniformly regulated by it; and all medical prescriptions or formulæ now are, and always have been, estimated by Troy weight, under a peculiar subdivision, which the College of Physicians have expressed themselves most anxious to preserve."

It was resolved, therefore, to continue the use of Troy weight; and also, on account of the accuracy of the Troy standard, to raise the Avoirdupois weight from this basis.

"We found," said Mr. Davies Gilbert, "the Avoirdupois weight, by which all heavy goods have been for a long time weighed (probably derived from Avoirs (Averis), the ancient name for goods or chattels, and Poids, weight), to be universally used throughout the kingdom. This weight, however, seems not to have been preserved with such scrupulous accuracy as Troy weight, by which more precious articles have been weighed; but we had reason to believe that the pound cannot differ by more than 1, 2, or 3 grains, from 7,000 grains Troy; some being in excess, and others, though in a less degree, in defect, but in no case amounting to above 1, 2, or 3 grains. It therefore occurred to us, that we should be offering no violence to this system of weights, if we declared that 7,000 grains Troy should be hereafter considered as the pound Avoirdupois."

In accordance with these views, it was enacted,— "that from and after the 1st day of May, 1825, the standard brass weight of 1 pound Troy weight, made in the year 1758, now in the custody of the clerk of the House of Commons, shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the original and genuine standard measure of weight, and that such brass weight shall be, and is hereby denominated, the Imperial Standard Troy pound, and shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the unit or only standard measure of weight, from which all other weights shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and that 1-12th part of the said Troy pound shall be an ounce; and that the 1-20th part of such ounce shall be a pennyweight; and that 1-34th part of such pennyweight shall be a grain; so that 5,760 such grains shall be a Troy pound; and that 7,000 such grains shall be, and they are hereby declared to be, a pound Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of the said pound Avoirdupois shall be an ounce Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of such ounce shall be a dram."

The measures of capacity were found to be, at the period of passing the late statute, in the greatest confusion; and a considerable change has consequently been made in them. The wine gallon formerly amounted to 231 cubic inches, the corn gallon to 268·8, and the ale gallon to 282. But these are superseded by the Imperial gallon, which contains 277·274 cubic inches, or 277½ very nearly. It is deduced as follows:—

"The standard measure of capacity, as well for liquids as for dry goods not measured by heaped measure, shall be THE GALLON, containing 10 lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water weighed in air, at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer being at 30 inches; and a measure shall be forthwith made of brass, of such contents as aforesaid, under the directions of the Lord High Treasurer, or the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury; and such brass measure shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the Imperial standard gallon, and shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the unit and only standard measure of capacity, from which all other measures of capacity to be used, as well for wine, beer, ale, spirits, and all sorts of liquids, as for dry goods not measured by heaped measure, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and all measures shall be taken in parts or multiples or certain proportions of the said Imperial standard gallon; and the quart shall be ¼ part of such standard gallon, and the pint shall be ½ of such standard gallon, and 2 such gallons shall be a peck, and 8 such gallons shall be a bushel, and 8 such bushels a quarter of corn or other dry goods, not measured by heaped measure."—§ 6.

We subjoin a Table showing the contents of the different gallons, both in measure and weight.

	Cubic inches.	Avoirdupois Weight.			Troy Weight.		
		Lbs.	oz.	dr.	Lbs.	oz.	grs.
Imperial gallon	277·274	10	0	0	12	1	16
Corn gallon	268·8	9	10	1½	11	9	12
Wine gallon	231	8	6	¾	10	1	9
ale gallon	282	10	2	1½	12	4	6

Heaped Measures.—The greatest blemish, by far, in the new act, is the continuance and legitimation of the practice of selling by heaped measure. We are astonished at the toleration of such a barbarous custom. All articles that may be sold by heaped measure ought to be sold by weight. In Scotland, indeed, the use of heaped measure was legally abolished above 300 years since; and the present ill-advised attempt to revive a practice productive of nothing but fraud has been universally rejected in that country. The clauses in the act as to heaped measure are as follow:—

The standard measure of capacity for coals, culm, lime, fish, potatoes, or fruit, and all other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure, shall be the foresaid bushel, containing 80 lbs. a voiddupon of water as aforesaid, the same being made round, with a plain and even bottom, and being 19½ inches from outside to outside of such standard measure as aforesaid.—§ 7.

In making use of such bushel, all coals and other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure, shall be duly heaped up in such bushel, in the form of a cone, such cone to be of the height of at least 6 inches, and the outside of the bushel to be the extremity of the base of such cone; and 2 bushels shall be a sack, and 12 such sacks shall be a chaldron.—§ 8. It was further enacted, by stat. 6 Geo. 4. c. 12, that from and after the 1st of January, 1826, all such heaped measures shall be made cylindrical, and the diameter of such measures shall be at the least double the depth thereof, and the height of the cone or heap shall be equal to ¾ths of the depth of the said measure, the outside of the measure being the extremity of or base of such cone.—§ 2.

Measure of Weight, or Heaped Measure, to be used for Wheat.—Provided always, that any contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, made or had for or with respect to any coals, culm, lime, fish, potatoes, or fruit, and all other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure, sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, or to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, shall and may be either according to the said standard of weight, or the said standard for heaped measure; but all contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, made or had for any other goods, wares, or merchandise, or other thing done or agreed for, or to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, shall be made and had according to the said standard of weight, or to the said gallon, or the parts, multiples, or proportions thereof; and in using the same the measures shall not be heaped, but shall be stricken with round stick or roller, straight, and of the same diameter from end to end.—(5 Geo. 4. c. 74. § 9.)

Models.—The 12th section of the act directs models of the standard weights and measures to be kept in the different counties, cities, burghs, &c. for the verification of the weights and measures in use in such places.

Contracts for Sale, &c. by Weight or Measure.—All contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, which shall be made or had within any part of the United Kingdom, for any work to be done, or for any goods, wares, merchandise, or other thing to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, where no special agreement shall be made to the contrary, shall be deemed to be made and had according to the standard weights and measures ascertained by this act; and in all cases where any special agreement shall be made, with reference to any weight or measure established by local custom, the ratio or proportion which every such local weight or measure shall bear to any of the said standard weights or measures shall be expressed, declared, and specified in such agreement, or otherwise such agreement shall be null and void.—§ 15.

Existing Weights and Measures may be used, being marked.—And as it is expedient that persons should be allowed to use the several weights and measures which they may have in their possession, although such weights and measures may not be in conformity with the standard weights and measures established by this act; it is therefore enacted, that it shall be lawful for any person or persons to buy and sell goods and merchandise by any weights or measures established either by local custom, or founded on special agreement: provided that, in order that the ratio or proportion which all such measures and weights shall bear to the standard weights and measures established by this act shall be and become a matter of common notoriety, the ratio or proportion which all such customary measures and weights shall bear to the said standard weights and measures shall be painted or marked upon all such customary weights and measures respectively; but nothing herein contained shall extend to permit any maker of weights or measures, or any person or persons whomsoever, to make any weight or measure, at any time after the 1st of May, 1825, except in conformity with the standard weights and measures established under this act.—§ 16.

False or deficient Weights, &c.—The 21st section declares that all the powers, rules, and regulations in force by former acts for preventing the use of false and deficient measures are to be applied and put in execution, except such as are expressly repealed or altered by this act.

Invariable or Natural Standards.—As the standards adopted in most countries have been in a great degree arbitrary, it has long been the opinion of scientific men, that, to construct a more perfect system of weights and measures, some natural and unchangeable basis should be adopted. It has indeed been contended by Paucton and Bailly, that the measures of the ancients were deduced from a basis of this sort: and that the *stadium* always formed an aliquot part of the earth's circumference, that part differing amongst different nations and authors. But no learning or ingenuity can induce any one to believe what is so obviously incredible. The ancients had no means of determining the earth's circumference with any thing like the accuracy required to render it the great unit of a system of measures; and, what is equally decisive, no ancient author ever makes the slightest allusion to any such standard.

In more modern times, however, the idea of seeking for a unit of weight and measure in some unchanging natural object has been practically carried into effect. The standards that have been usually proposed for this object, have been some aliquot part of the quadrant of the meridian, or the length of a pendulum vibrating seconds in some given latitude. The latter has been in so far adopted into the existing system of weights and measures established by the act of 1823, that the length of the standard yard, as compared with that of a pendulum vibrating seconds in the latitude of London, is specified in the act as follows:—

Whereas it has been ascertained by the commissioners appointed by his Majesty to inquire into the subject of weights and measures, that the said yard hereby declared to be the Imperial standard yard, when compared with a pendulum vibrating seconds of mean time in the latitude of London, in a vacuum at the level of the sea, is in the proportion of 36 inches to 39 inches and 1,393 ten-thousandth parts of an inch: be it therefore enacted and declared, that if at any time hereafter the said Imperial standard yard shall be lost, or shall be in any manner destroyed, defaced, or otherwise injured, it shall

ld part of the said standard
nd that the pole or perch in
e 1,760 such yards.—§ 1.

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of corn or other dry goods, not

both in measure and weight.

Weight.	Troy Weight.	
	Lbs. oz. dwt. gr.	
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1½	11 9 7 12	
6½	10 1 9 20	
11½	12 4 6 8	

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... addulum as aforesaid, as the

ING TO THE NEW OR

... there are the palm, which
... hand, 4 inches; the span, 9
... om, 6 feet.

PERFICIAL MEASURE.

- Fr. Sc. Metrs.
- 1 Square foot = 0.9290
- 1 Square yard = 0.8361
- 1 Square pole = 35.2916
- 1 Rod = 1011.5622
- 1 Acre = 4046.6546

... ally divided, on scales, into
... but, in squaring the di-
... 's work, the duodecimal syn-
... being divided into 12 parts
... to 12 seconds, and each second

... measured by a chain of 4 poles,
... divided into 100 links. Ten
... 1 in breadth make an acre,
... ure perches, or 4,840 square

SOLID MEASURE.

- Fr. Cubic Metrs.
 - 1 Cubic foot = 0.763
 - 1 Cubic yard = 1.352
 - 1 Load or ton = 1.157
 - 1 Ton of shipping = 1.822
- ... m, marble, stone, tinlar, ma-
... mers' works of length, breadth,
... ceasured, and also the contents
... capacity, both liquid and dry.

LIQUID AND DRY MEASURE.

... Standard Gallon, containing 16
... lled water, temperature 62°

	Gills	Pints	Quarts	Pecks	Bushels	Chaldrons
1	4	2	1	1	1	1
2	8	4	2	2	2	2
3	12	6	3	3	3	3
4	16	8	4	4	4	4
5	20	10	5	5	5	5
6	24	12	6	6	6	6
7	28	14	7	7	7	7
8	32	16	8	8	8	8
9	36	18	9	9	9	9
10	40	20	10	10	10	10
11	44	22	11	11	11	11
12	48	24	12	12	12	12
13	52	26	13	13	13	13
14	56	28	14	14	14	14
15	60	30	15	15	15	15
16	64	32	16	16	16	16
17	68	34	17	17	17	17
18	72	36	18	18	18	18
19	76	38	19	19	19	19
20	80	40	20	20	20	20
21	84	42	21	21	21	21
22	88	44	22	22	22	22
23	92	46	23	23	23	23
24	96	48	24	24	24	24
25	100	50	25	25	25	25

... of the Imperial standard bushel
... ter diameter 10 1/2 inches,
... ter 18 1/2. The depth is 4 1/2,
... one, for heaped measure, is 6
... of the Imperial heaped
... bushel inches. The subdivisions
... at the same proportion.

IS SUPERSEDED BY THE
IMPERIAL SYSTEM.

WINE MEASURE.

- Cub. In. Fr. Litres
- 1 - 28.875 = 0.733
- 1 - 57.75 = 0.916
- 1 - 115.5 = 1.832
- 1 - 231 = 3.664
- 1 - 462 = 7.328
- 1 - 924 = 14.656
- 1 - 1848 = 29.312
- 1 - 3696 = 58.624
- 1 - 7392 = 117.248
- 1 - 14784 = 234.496
- 1 - 29568 = 468.992
- 1 - 59136 = 937.984
- 1 - 118272 = 1875.968
- 1 - 236544 = 3751.936
- 1 - 473088 = 7503.872
- 1 - 946176 = 15007.744
- 1 - 1892352 = 30015.488
- 1 - 3784704 = 60030.976
- 1 - 7569408 = 120061.952
- 1 - 15138816 = 240123.904
- 1 - 30277632 = 480247.808
- 1 - 60555264 = 960495.616
- 1 - 121110528 = 1920991.232
- 1 - 242221056 = 3841982.464
- 1 - 484442112 = 7683964.928
- 1 - 968884224 = 15367929.856
- 1 - 1937768448 = 30735859.712
- 1 - 3875536896 = 61471719.424
- 1 - 7751073792 = 122943438.848
- 1 - 15502147584 = 245886877.696
- 1 - 31004295168 = 491773755.392
- 1 - 62008590336 = 983547510.784
- 1 - 124017180672 = 1967095021.568
- 1 - 248034361344 = 3934190043.136
- 1 - 496068722688 = 7868380086.272
- 1 - 992137445376 = 15736760172.544
- 1 - 1984274890752 = 31473520345.088
- 1 - 3968549781504 = 62947040690.176
- 1 - 7937099563008 = 125894081380.352
- 1 - 15874199126016 = 251788162760.704
- 1 - 31748398252032 = 503576325521.408
- 1 - 63496796504064 = 1007152651042.816
- 1 - 126993593008128 = 2014305302085.632
- 1 - 253987186016256 = 4028610604171.264
- 1 - 507974372032512 = 8057221208342.528
- 1 - 1015948744065024 = 16114442416685.056
- 1 - 2031897488130048 = 32228884833370.112
- 1 - 4063794976260096 = 64457769666740.224
- 1 - 8127589952520192 = 128915539333480.448
- 1 - 16255179105040384 = 257831078666960.896
- 1 - 32510358210080768 = 515662157333921.792
- 1 - 65020716420161536 = 1031324314667843.584
- 1 - 130041432802323072 = 2062648629335687.168
- 1 - 260082865604646144 = 4125297258671374.336
- 1 - 520165731209292288 = 8250594517342748.672
- 1 - 1040331462418584704 = 16501189034685497.344
- 1 - 2080662924837169408 = 33002378069370994.688
- 1 - 4161325849674338816 = 66004756138741989.376
- 1 - 8322651699348677632 = 132009512277483978.752
- 1 - 16645303798697355264 = 264019024554967957.504
- 1 - 33290607597394710528 = 528038049109935915.008
- 1 - 66581215194789421056 = 1056076098219871830.016
- 1 - 133162430389578842112 = 2112152196439743660.032
- 1 - 266324860779157684224 = 4224304392879487320.064
- 1 - 532649721558315368448 = 8448608785758974640.128
- 1 - 1065299443116630736896 = 16897217571517949280.256
- 1 - 2130598886233261473792 = 33794435143035898560.512
- 1 - 4261197772466522947584 = 67588870286071797120.1024
- 1 - 8522395544933045895168 = 135177740572143594240.2048
- 1 - 17044791089866091790336 = 270355481144287188480.4096
- 1 - 34089582179732183580672 = 540710962288574376960.8192
- 1 - 68179164359464367161344 = 1081421924577148753920.16384
- 1 - 136358328718928734322688 = 2162843849154297507840.32768
- 1 - 272716657437857468645376 = 4325687698308595015680.65536
- 1 - 545433314875714937310752 = 8651375396617190031360.13112
- 1 - 1090866629751429874621504 = 17312750793234380062720.26224
- 1 - 2181733259502859749243008 = 34625501586468760125440.52448
- 1 - 4363466519005719518486016 = 69251003172937520250880.104896
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- 1 - 329694208546240720519602673283924444444672 = 5232439238313949466777342433261760.7925687552
- 1 - 65938841709248144103920536656788888889344 = 10464878476627898933554684866523520.1585375104
- 1 - 13187763541849628

OLD DRY OR WINCHESTER MEASURE.

4 Gills	1 Pint	-	33-6	-	=	0-55033
5 Pints	1 Quart	-	67-2	-	=	1-10107
2 Quarts	1 Pottle	-	134-4	-	=	2-20214
2 Pottles	1 Gallon	-	268-8	-	=	4-40428
2 Gallons	1 Peck	-	537-6	-	=	8-80856
4 Pecks	1 Bushel	-	2150-42	-	=	35-23430
4 Bushels	1 Coom	-	4-677 ft.	-	=	140-93721
2 Cooms	1 Quarter	-	9-054	-	=	281-87443
5 Quarters	1 Wey or Load	-	49-770	-	=	1409-37316
2 Weys	1 Last	-	99-540	-	=	2818-74433

The Winchester bushel is 18½ inches wide, and 8 inches deep. Corn and seeds are measured by striking the bushel from the brim, with a round piece of light wood, about 2 inches in diameter, and of equal thickness from one end to the other. All other dry goods are heaped.

Conversion of Winchester Bushels into Imperial Bushels.—The Winchester bushel contains 2150.42 cubic inches, and the Imperial standard bushel 2218.192 ditto. Hence, to convert Winchester bushels into Imperial bushels, multiply by $\frac{2150.42}{2218.192}$, or by .969447; and to convert Imperial bushels into Winchester bushels, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{2218.192}{2150.42}$, or 1.0315157. For practical purposes, multiply Winchester measure by 31 and divide by 32 for Imperial measure, and the contrary.

In some markets, corn is sold by weight, which is the fairest mode of dealing, though not the most convenient in practice. Even where measures are used, it is customary to weigh certain quantities

or proportions, and to regulate the prices accordingly. The average bushel of wheat is generally reckoned at 60 lbs.—of barley 47 lbs.—of oats 38 lbs.—peas 64, beans 63, clover 68, rye and canary 53, and rape 48 lbs. In some places, a load of corn, for a man, is reckoned 5 bushels, and a cart load 40 bushels.

Table of Winchester Quarters, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Quarters.

Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.	Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.	Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.
0-969445	26	81-20522	61	48-44191	76
1-93889	27	95-17507	62	50-41124	77
2-90834	28	109-14492	63	51-38057	78
3-87779	29	123-11477	64	52-34990	79
4-84724	30	137-08462	65	53-31923	80
5-81669	31	151-05447	66	54-28856	81
6-78614	32	165-02432	67	55-25789	82
7-75559	33	178-99417	68	56-22722	83
8-72504	34	192-96402	69	57-19655	84
9-69449	35	206-93387	70	58-16588	85
10-66394	36	220-90372	71	59-13521	86
11-63339	37	234-87357	72	60-10454	87
12-60284	38	248-84342	73	61-07387	88
13-57229	39	262-81327	74	62-04320	89
14-54174	40	276-78312	75	63-01253	90
15-51119	41	290-75297	76	63-98186	91
16-48064	42	304-72282	77	64-95119	92
17-45009	43	318-69267	78	65-92052	93
18-41954	44	332-66252	79	66-88985	94
19-38899	45	346-63237	80	67-85918	95
20-35844	46	360-60222	81	68-82851	96
21-32789	47	374-57207	82	69-79784	97
22-29734	48	388-54192	83	70-76717	98
23-26679	49	402-51177	84	71-73650	99
24-23624	50	416-48162	85	72-70583	100

French System of Weights and Measures.—The new metrical system established in France subsequently to the Revolution, is founded on the measurement of the quadrant of the meridian, or of the distance from the pole to the equator. This distance having been determined with the greatest care, the ten-millionth part of it was assumed as the *mètre*, or unit of length, all the other lineal measures being multiples, or submultiples of it in decimal proportion. The *mètre* corresponds pretty nearly to the ancient French *aune*, or yard, being equal to 3-07844 French feet, or 3-281 English feet, or 39-3708 English inches.

The unit of weight is the *gramme*, which is a cubic centimetre, or the 100th part of a *mètre* of distilled water of the temperature of melting ice; it weighs 15-434 English Troy grains.

In order to express the decimal proportion, the following vocabulary of names has been adopted, in which the terms for multiplying are Greek, and those for dividing are Latin.

For multipliers, the word

<i>Deca</i>	prefixed means	-	10 times.
<i>Hecto</i>	-	-	100 -
<i>Kilo</i>	-	-	1,000 -
<i>Myria</i>	-	-	10,000 -

On the contrary, for divisors, the word *Deci* expresses the 10th part. *Centi* - - - 100th - *Milli* - - - 1,000th -

Thus, *Decamètre* means 10 *mètres*. *Decimètre* - the 10th part of a *mètre*. *Kilogramme* - 1,000 grammes, &c.

The *are* is the element of square measure, being a square decamètre, equal to 3-955 English perches. The *stère* is the element of cube measure, and contains 35-317 cubic feet English.

The *litre* is the element of all measures of capacity. It is a cubic decimètre, and equals 2-1135 English pints. 100 litres make the hectolitre, which equals 26-419 wine gallons, or 2-838 Winchester bushels.

SYSTEM OF USE.—OR BINARY SYSTEM.—This new system has the metrical standards for its basis, but their divisions are binary, that is, by 2, 4, 8, &c.; and instead of the new vocabulary, the names of the ancient weights and measures are used, annexing the term *usuel* to each. Thus the half kilogramme is called the *livre usuelle*, and the double *mètre*, the *toise usuelle*.

The following Tables show the proportions between the new or metrical French system and the English system:—

Comparison of FRENCH and ENGLISH WEIGHTS and MEASURES, containing the New or Metrical Weights and measures of France, with their proportion to those of England, both according to the Decimal System and the Systeme usuel.

DECIMAL SYSTEM.		
Long Measures.		
French.	-	English.
Millimètre	-	0-03937 Inches.
Centimètre	-	0-39371 -
Decimètre	-	3-93710 -
<i>Mètre</i>	-	39-37106 -
Decamètre	-	32-80948 feet
Hectomètre	-	328-08117 -
Kilomètre	-	1093-23850 yards.
Myriamètre	-	10938-38900 -
	-	or 6 miles 1 furlong 28 poles.

Measures of Capacity.		
Millitre	-	0-061023 cubic inches
Centillitre	-	0-61023 -
Décillitre	-	6-10230 -
Litre (a cubic decimètre)	-	61-02303 -
Decalitre	-	610-23023 cubic inches, or 2-1135 wine pints.
Hectolitre	-	6102-3023 cubic inches, or 2-5317 cubic feet, or 26-419 wine gallons, or 2-838 Winchester bushels.
Kilolitre	-	61023-023 cubic inches, or 25-317 cubic feet, or 1 tun and 12 wine gallons.
Myrialitre	-	610230-23 cubic feet.

Solid Measures.		
Décistère	-	3-5317 cubic feet.
Stère (a cubic mètre)	-	35-3171 -
Décasière	-	353-1741 -

ATTIC DRY MEASURES.						Wine Gall.		
Xestes	-	-	-	Eng. Pints.	Urna	-	-	3.5637
Chenix	-	-	-	0.9903	Amphora	-	-	7.1712
				1.486				
				Winch. Bush.	Culeua	-	-	2.2766
Medimnus	-	-	-	1.0906				
JEWISH DRY MEASURES (according to Josephus).				ATTIC MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.				
Gachal	-	-	-	Eng. Pints.	Cotylus	-	-	0.3742
Cab	-	-	-	0.1949	Xestes	-	-	1.1483
Gomer	-	-	-	3.874	Chous	-	-	6.9900
				7.0152				
				Eng. Peck.	Meteotes	-	-	10.3350
Seah	-	-	-	1.4615				
				Winch. Bush.				
Ephah	-	-	-	1.0961	JEWISH MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.			
Latech	-	-	-	5.4807	Caph	-	-	0.8612
				Quarter.	Log	-	-	1.1483
Corom	-	-	-	1.3702	Cab	-	-	4.9933
Chomer	-	-	-					
ROMAN MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.—(Arbutnot and Hutton.)								
Hemina	-	-	-	Eng. Pints.	Hin	-	-	1.7225
Sextarius	-	-	-	0.59759	Senh	-	-	3.4450
				1.19518	Bath	-	-	10.3320
Congius	-	-	-	7.1712	Coron	-	-	1.6105

(The act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 49., passed in 1834, repealed some of the clauses in the acts 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., and 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., establishing the new system of weights and measures, and enacted others in their stead. But the act referred to has been itself repealed by the 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 63. This new act contains several important provisions. It abolishes all local or customary measures, under a penalty of 40s. for every sale made by them; it prohibits the mischievous practice of selling by heaped measure; it enacts that coals shall in all cases be sold by weight; that, with the exception of gold, silver, platinum, diamonds, and other precious stones (which may be sold by troy weight), and drugs (which may be sold in retail by apothecaries' weight), all other articles sold by weight shall be sold by avoirdupois weight only; and that a stone shall, in all cases, consist of 14 lbs. avoirdupois; a hundred weight of 8 such stones, &c. Lead and pewter weights are not to be stamped.

The act sets out with repealing the 4 & 5 of Will. 4. c. 49., and the provisions in the acts 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. and 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., which require that all weights and measures shall be exact models or copies in shape or form of the standards deposited in the exchequer; and those allowing the use of weights and measures, not in conformity with the Imperial standard, established by said acts; or that allow goods or merchandise to be bought or sold by weights or measures established by local custom, or founded on special agreement. It then goes on to enact as follows:—

Weights and Measures stamped at the Exchequer declared legal.—Weights and measures verified and stamped at the exchequer as copies of standard weights and measures, shall be taken to be legal weights and measures, to be used for comparison as copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures, although not similar in shape to those required under the provisions of the said acts; and the comptroller-general, or other duly authorised officer of the exchequer, may compare and verify, and stamp as correct, standard measures of a yard, standard weights, and standard measures of capacity, any weights and measures which correspond in length, weight, and capacity with the standards, or parts or multiples thereof, deposited in the exchequer, under the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., although such weights and measures may not be models or copies in shape or form of the standards so deposited.—§ 1.

Copies of the Standard Weights and Measures worn to be re-verified.—All copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures which have become defective, or have been mended, in consequence of wear or accident, shall forthwith be sent to the exchequer, for the purpose of being again compared and verified, and shall be stamped as re-verified copies of such standard weights and measures, provided the comptroller-general, or other officer appointed for such verification, deem them fit for the purposes of standards; and every new comparison and verification shall be indured upon the original indenture of verification; and such weights and measures shall be stamped upon the payment of fees of verification only; and the comptroller-general, or other officer shall keep an account of all copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures verified at the exchequer.—§ 5.

Local and Customary Measures abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, the Winchester bushel, the Scotch ell, and all local or customary measures, shall be abolished; and every person who shall sell by any measure other than one of the Imperial measures, or some multiple or aliquot part thereof, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s. for every such sale; but nothing herein shall prevent the sale of any articles in any vessel, where such vessel is not represented as containing any amount of Imperial measure, or of any fixed, local, or customary measure heretofore in use.—§ 6.

Heaped Measure abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, so much of the said acts as relates to heaped measure is hereby repealed, and the use of heaped measure shall be abolished, and all bargains, sales, and contracts made after the passing of this act, by heaped measure, shall be null and void; and every person who shall sell any articles by heaped measure shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s. for every such sale.—§ 7.

Articles sold by Heaped Measure, how to be sold.—Whereas some articles heretofore sold by heaped measure are incapable of being stricken, and may not be conveniently sold by weight; it is enacted, that all such articles may henceforth be sold by a bushel measure, corresponding in shape with the bushel prescribed by the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. for the sale of heaped measure, or by any multiple or aliquot part thereof, filled in all parts as nearly to the level of the brim as the size and shape of the articles will admit; but nothing herein shall prevent the sale by weight of any article heretofore sold by heaped measure.—§ 8.

Coals to be sold by Weight.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, all coals, slack, culm, and cannel of every description shall be sold by weight, and not by measure, under a penalty of 40s. for every anlo.—§ 9.

All Articles to be sold by Avoirdupois, except, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, all articles sold by weight shall be sold by avoirdupois weight, except gold, silver, platinum, diamonds, or other precious stones, which may be sold by troy weight; and drugs, which, when sold by retail, may be sold by apothecaries' weight.—§ 10.

The Stone, Hundred Weight, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, the weight denominated a

Wine Gall.	-	3-5937
"	-	7-1712
"	-	2-2766

REGS FOR LIQUIDS.

Eng. Pint.	-	0-5742
"	-	1-1483
"	-	6-8900
Wine Gall.	-	10-3350

REGS FOR LIQUIDS.

Eng. Pint.	-	0-8612
"	-	1-1483
"	-	4-9533
Wine Gall.	-	1-7223
"	-	3-4150
"	-	10-3350
Imperial	-	1-6105

of the clauses in the acts of weights and measures, itself repealed by the 5 & 6. It abolishes all local... it prohibits that coals shall in all cases diamonds, and other precious... be sold in retail sold by avoirdupois weight... a hundred weight... ped.

ions in the acts 5 Gen. 4. c. 6 exact models or copies in... ing the use of weights and... lid acts; or that all goods... by local custom, or found... and measures verified and... shall be taken to be legal... standard weights and mea... of the said acts; and the... compare and verify, and... and measures of capacity... city with the standards, or... 2.74, although such weights... rds so deposited.—§ 4.

All copies of the Imperial... en mented, in consequence... of being again compared... weights and measures... tion, deem them fit for... be indorsed upon the original... upon the payment of fees... eep an account of all copies... § 5.

of this act, the Winchester... shed; and every person who... one multiple or aliquot part...; but nothing herein shall... presented as containing any... heretofore in use.—§ 6. Each of the said acts as relates... all be abolished, and all bar... measure, shall be null and... be liable to a penalty not...

heretofore sold by heaped... by weight; it is enacted,... depending in shape with the... r by any multiple or aliquot... and staple of the articles... by article heretofore sold by...

all coals, slack, culm, and... under a penalty of 40s. for... of this act, all articles... platina, diamonds, or other... sold by retail, may be sold... t, the weight denominated a...

stone shall, in all cases, consist of 14 standard pounds avoirdupois, the hundred weight of 8 such stones and the ton of 20 such hundred weights; but nothing herein shall prevent any bargain, sale, or contract being made by any multiple or aliquot part of the pound weight.—§ 11.

Contents of Weights and Measures to be stamped on them.—All weights made after the passing of this act of the weight of one pound avoirdupois, or more, shall have the number of pounds contained in them stamped or cast on the top or side thereof in legible figures and letters; and all measures of capacity made after the passing of this act, shall have their contents stamped or marked on the outside thereof in legible figures and letters.—§ 12.

Weights of Lead or Pewter not to be stamped.—The stamping of weights of lead or pewter, or of any mixture thereof, is prohibited after the 1st of January, 1836; but nothing herein shall prevent the use of lead or pewter, or any mixture thereof, in the manufacture of weights wholly and exclusively made with brass, copper, or iron, and legibly stamped or marked "cased," or prevent the insertion of such a plug of lead or pewter into weights as shall be *bona fide* necessary for adjusting them and affixing the stamp thereon.—§ 13.

Conversion of Rents, Tolls, &c.—Clauses 14. and 15. regulate the proceedings that are to take place in England, Ireland, and Scotland, for the conversion of rents, tolls, &c. payable in weights or measures now abolished into Imperial standard weights and measures.

Fair Prices.—In Scotland, from and after the passing of this act, the fair prices of all grain in every county shall be struck by the Imperial quarter, and all other returns of the prices of grain shall be set forth by the same, without any reference to any other measure whatsoever; and any sheriff, clerk, clerk of a market, or other person offending against this provision shall forfeit not exceeding 5s.—§ 16.

Copies of Standards, Inspectors, &c.—Clauses 17, 18, 19, and 20, prescribe the mode in which copies of the standard weights and measures shall be provided in counties, cities, boroughs, &c., the appointment of inspectors of weights and measures, &c. Clause 22. orders, that the expense of providing copies of standard weights, with the remuneration to inspectors, be defrayed out of the county rate, Clause 23. prohibits any maker or seller of weights or measures from being appointed inspector, and orders all inspectors to enter into a bond of 300l. for the due performance of the duties of their office, and the safe custody of the stamps and standard weights and measures committed to their care. Clause 24. orders inspectors to attend at market towns when ordered by justices. The following clauses are of general importance.

Magistrates to procure Stamps for Inspectors for stamping all Weights, &c.—In England, the Justices in general or quarter sessions assembled, and in Scotland the justices and magistrates at a meeting called by the sheriff, and in Ireland the grand juries, shall provide the inspectors with good and sufficient stamps for stamping or sealing weights and measures; and all weights and measures whatsoever, except as herein excepted, used for buying and selling, or for the collecting of any tolls or duties, or for the making of any charges on the conveyance of any goods or merchandise, shall be examined and compared with one or more copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures provided under the authority of this act for such inspectors, who shall stamp, so as best to prevent fraud, such weights and measures, if they be found to correspond with the said copies; and the fees for such examination, comparison, and stamping, shall be those in the schedule at the end of this act; and every person using any weight or measure other than those authorised by this act, or some aliquot part thereof, or which has not been stamped as aforesaid, except as herein excepted, or which shall be found light or otherwise unjust, shall forfeit not exceeding 5s.; and any contract, bargain, or sale made by such weights or measures shall be wholly null and void; and every light or unjust weight and measure shall, on being discovered by any inspector, be seized, and, on conviction, forfeited; but nothing herein shall require any single weight above 5lb. to be inspected and stamped, nor any wooden or wicker measure used in the sale of lime, or other articles of the like nature, such as earthenware, earthenware jug or drinking cup, though represented as containing the amount of any Imperial measure, or of any multiple thereof; but any person buying by any vessel represented as containing the amount of an Imperial measure, or of any multiple thereof, is authorised to require the contents of such vessel to be ascertained by comparison with a stamped measure, such measure to be provided by the person using such wooden or wicker measure, glass jug, or drinking cup; and in case the person using such last-mentioned measure or vessel refuse to make such comparison, or if, upon comparison being made, it be found to be deficient in quantity, the person using the same shall be subject to the forfeitures and penalties imposed on those using light or unjust weights or measures.—§ 21.

Weights and Measures once stamped need not be re-stamped.—No weight or measure duly stamped by any inspector appointed under the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 49, or this act, or by any person or persons authorised to examine and stamp weights or measures, shall be liable to be re-stamped, although the same be used in any other place than that at which it was originally stamped, but shall be considered as a legal weight or measure throughout the U. K., unless found to be defective or unjust.—§ 27.

Power to Justices, &c. to enter Shops and inspect Weights and Measures.—Justices, sheriffs, magistrates, and inspectors are authorised to examine weights and measures, and to order such as are light or otherwise unjust to be seized and forfeited; those using such weights and measures are subjected to a penalty of not more than 5s.; and a like penalty is imposed on those refusing to produce such weights and measures, or obstructing the magistrates.—§ 28.

Penalties on Inspectors counterfeiting Stamps, &c.—Inspectors or other persons authorised to inspect weights or measures, who shall stamp any weight or measure without verifying the same, or who shall otherwise misconduct themselves in their office, shall for every such offence forfeit not more than 5s.; persons forging or counterfeiting any stamp or mark used for stamping or marking weights or measures, forfeit for every offence not more than 50l. and not less than 10l.; and persons knowingly using weights or measures marked with such counterfeit stamps, forfeit for every offence not more than 10l. nor less than 2s.—§ 29. 30.

Ready or Price Lists, &c.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, any person printing, or clerk of any market or other person making any return, price list, price current, or any journal or other paper containing price list or price current, in which the weights and measures quoted or referred to denote or imply a greater or less weight or measure than is denoted or implied by the same denominations of Imperial weights and measures under the provisions of this act, shall forfeit and pay not exceeding 10s. for every copy of every such return, price list, price current, journal, or other paper which they publish.—§ 31.

The remaining clauses relate to the recovery of penalties; and save the rights of the Founders Company, and of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Schedule of fees to be taken by all inspectors of weights and measures appointed under the authority of this act:—

For examining, comparing, and stamping all brass weights, within their respective jurisdictions,	For examining, comparing, and stamping all iron weights, or weights of other descriptions not made of brass, within their respective jurisdictions,—
Each half hundred weight s. d.	Each half hundred weight s. d.
Each quarter of a hundred weight 0 0	Each quarter of a hundred weight 0 3
Each stone 0 0	Each stone 0 2
Each weight under a stone to a pound inclusive 0 1	Each stone 0 1
Each weight under a pound 0 0 1/2	Each weight under a stone 0 1 1/2
Each set of weights of a pound and under 0 0	Each set of weights of a pound and under 0 2

For examining, comparing, and stamping all woollen measures, within their respective jurisdictions,—

	s.	d.
Each bushel	0	3
Each half bushel	0	3
Each peck, and all under	0	1
Each yard	0	0 1-8

For examining, comparing, and stamping all measures of capacity

of liquids, made of copper or other metal, within their respective jurisdictions,—	s.	d.
Each five gallon	1	0
Each four gallon	0	0
Each three gallon	0	0
Each two gallon	0	0
Each gallon	0	0
Each half gallon	0	0 1-2
Each quarter and under	0	0 1-4

["At the organization of the federal government, authority was conferred upon congress to establish a uniform system of weights and measures. But, surprising as it may appear, no laws have as yet been enacted by that body for the perfection of so important an object. Some measures have been taken to obtain information on the subject, and able reports have been made by Messrs. Jefferson Adams, and H. Fraser. By an order of congress, in June, 1836, a set of standard weights and measures, similar to those in use in England anterior to the passing of the 'Act of Uniformity' in May, 1824, have been prepared by Mr. Hassler for the use of each customhouse, and for each state. Hence, the old measures of England, superseded by the imperial system, with such modifications as local customs or state laws have ingrafted upon it, may be regarded as the general standard adopted in this country.

Most of the states of the Union have attempted to reduce their standards of weights and measures to a uniform system, and numerous laws have been enacted with that view; but so far from succeeding in their object, they have had, in most instances, an opposite effect. There are but few states in which the proportions of their measures are required by law to be the same—linear, superficial, and cubic measures excepted—although they may bear the same names; and owing to the difficulty of enforcing new regulations, strong prejudices against any innovation, and a constant influx of settlers from one state into another, and from various countries of Europe, who bring their own accustomed weights and measures, uniformity cannot be said to exist in any state of the Union. In this country, as in England and France before their new systems were adopted, local consumers do not feel the whole disadvantage of this confusion; but merchants and others, who make large sales or purchases in distant parts of the country, often experience serious difficulties in converting to their own local standards the quantities expressed according to another rate. The proportion which one standard bears to another is not always easily obtained; and when it is, the calculations to be made are often long and difficult, and may not always give an accurate result."—*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, vol. iv., page 344.—*Am. Ed.*]

WELD, or DYER'S WEED (Ger. *Wau*; Du. *Wouw*, *Wouwje*; Fr. *Gaude*; It. *Gua-darella*; Lat. *Luteola*), is an imperfect biennial, with small fusiform roots, and a leafy stem from 1 to 3 feet in height. It is a native of Britain, Italy, and various parts of Europe; and is cultivated for the sake of its stalk, flowers, and leaves, which are employed in the dyeing of yellow, whence its botanical name *Reseda luteola*. Weld requires the growth of nearly 2 summers before it comes to maturity; and the crop is liable to fail from so many causes, and is besides so exhausting, that its cultivation is by no means profitable, and is only carried on, in this country at least, to a small extent, principally in Essex. Weld is preferred to all other substances in giving the lively green lemon yellow. It is, however, expensive; and it is found, when employed in topical dyeing, to degrade and interfere with madder colours more than other yellows, and to stain the parts wanted to be kept white. Hence quercitron bark is now employed in calico printing, to the almost total exclusion of weld. It is still, however, employed, in dyeing silk a golden yellow, and in paper staining.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Benca's Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 95—100.; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*.)

WHALEBONE, a substance of the nature of horn, adhering in thin parallel laminae to the upper jaw of the whale. These vary in size from 3 to 12 feet in length; the breadth of the largest at the thick end, where they are attached to the jaw, is about a foot. They are extremely elastic. All above 6 feet in length is called *size bone*.

Whalebone bore anciently a very high price, when the rigid stays and the expanded hoops of our grandmothers produced an extensive demand for this commodity. The Dutch have occasionally obtained 700*l.* per ton, and were accustomed to draw 100,000*l.* annually from England for this one article. Even in 1763, it brought 500*l.*; but soon fell, and has never risen again to the same value. During the present century, the price has varied between 60*l.* and 300*l.*; seldom falling to the lowest rate, and rarely exceeding 150*l.* Mr. Scoresby reckons the price, in the 5 years ending with 1818, at 90*l.*; while at present (April, 1834), it is stated to be from 130*l.* to 145*l.* This is for what is called the *size bone*, or such pieces as measure 6 feet or upwards in length, those below this standard are usually sold at half price. It may appear singular that whalebone should rise, while oil has been so decidedly lowered; but the one change, it is obvious, causes the other. Oil, being the main product of the fishery, regulates its extent; which being diminished by the low price, the quantity of whalebone is lessened, while the demand for it continuing as great as before, the value consequently rises.—(*Polar Seas and Regions*, p. 321., *Edin. Cab. Lib.*)

It may be worth while to remark, as evincing the ignorance that at one time prevailed with respect to the whale, that, by an old feudal law, the *tail* of all whales belonged to the queen, as a perquisite, to furnish her Majesty's wardrobe with whalebone!—(*Blackstone*, vol. i. p. 233.)

WHALE (COMMON), the *Balæna mysticetus* of Linnæus, a marine animal of the cetaceous species, and the largest of all those with which men are acquainted. The whale has sometimes, it is affirmed, been found 160 feet in length; but this is most probably an exaggeration. In the Northern seas, it is at present seldom found above 66 feet long; being now, however, generally killed before it arrives at its full growth, this is no proof that the animal may not formerly have attained to a much larger size. The bodies of whales are covered, immediately under the skin, with a layer of fat or *blubber*, which, in a large fish, is

from 12 to 18 inches thick. In young whales, this fatty matter resembles hog's lard; but in old ones it is of a reddish colour. This is the valuable part of the whale; and the desire to possess it has prompted man to attempt the capture of this mighty animal. The blubber yields, by expression, nearly its own weight of a thick viscid oil (train oil). The common whale is now rarely found, except within the Arctic circle; but at a former period it was not unfrequently met with on our coasts. There is a good account of the common whale, and of the manner in which the fishery is carried on, in Mr. John Laing's "Voyage to Spitzbergen;" one of the shortest, cheapest, and best of the innumerable books published on this hacknied subject.

The *Physeter macrocephalus*, or black-headed spermaceti whale, is chiefly found in the Southern Ocean. It usually measures about 60 feet in length, and 30 in circumference at the thickest part. The valuable part of the fish is the spongy, oily mass dug from the cavity of the head; this is crude spermaceti; and of it an ordinary sized whale will yield about 12 large barrels.

WHALE FISHERY. We do not propose entering, in this article, into any details as to the mode in which the fishery is carried on; but mean to confine ourselves to a brief sketch of its history, and value in a commercial point of view.

It is probably true, as has been sometimes contended, that the Norwegians occasionally captured the whale before any other European nation engaged in so perilous an enterprise. But the early efforts of the Norwegians were not conducted on any systematic plan, and should be regarded only in the same point of view as the fishing expeditions of the Esquimaux. The Biscayans were certainly the first people who prosecuted the whale fishery as a regular commercial pursuit. They carried it on with great vigour and success in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. In 1261, a tithe was laid upon the tongues of whales imported into Bayonne,—they being then a highly esteemed species of food. In 1388, Edward III. relinquished to Peter de Puysanne a duty of 6*l.* sterling a whale, laid on those brought into the port of Biarritz, to indemnify him for the extraordinary expenses he had incurred in fitting out a fleet for the service of his Majesty. This fact proves beyond dispute that the fishery carried on from Biarritz at the period referred to must have been very considerable indeed; and it was also prosecuted to a great extent from Cibourre, Vieux Boucan, and subsequently from Rochelle and other places.*

The whales captured by the Biscayans were not so large as those that are taken in the Polar seas, and are supposed to have been attracted southward in pursuit of herrings. They were not very productive of oil, but their flesh was used as an article of food, and the whalebone was applied to a variety of useful purposes, and brought a very high price.

This branch of industry ceased long since, and from the same cause that has occasioned the cessation of the whale fishery in many other places—the want of fish. Whether it were that the whales, from a sense of the dangers to which they exposed themselves in coming southwards, no longer left the Icy Sea, or that the breed had been nearly destroyed, certain it is, that they gradually became less numerous in the Bay of Biscay, and at length ceased almost entirely to frequent that sea; and the fishers being obliged to pursue their prey upon the banks of Newfoundland and the coasts of Iceland, the French fishery rapidly fell off.

The voyages of the Dutch and English to the Northern Ocean, in order, if possible, to discover a passage through it to India, though they failed of their main object, laid open the haunts of the whale. The companions of Barentz, who discovered Spitzbergen, in 1596, and of Hudson, who soon after explored the same seas, represented to their countrymen the amazing number of whales with which they were crowded. Vessels were in consequence fitted out for the Northern whale fishery by the English and Dutch, the harpooners and a part of the crew being Biscayans. They did not, however, confine their efforts to a fair competition with each other as fishers. The Muscovy Company obtained a royal charter, prohibiting the ships of all other nations from fishing in the seas round Spitzbergen, on pretext of its having been first discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby. There can, however, be no doubt that Barentz, and not Sir Hugh, was its original discoverer; though, supposing that the fact had been otherwise, the attempt to exclude other nations from the surrounding seas, on such a ground, was not one that could be tolerated. The Dutch, who were at the time prompt to embark in every commercial pursuit that gave any hopes of success, eagerly entered on this new career, and sent out ships fitted equally for the purposes of fishing, and of defence against the attacks of others. The Muscovy Company having attempted to vindicate its pretensions by force, several encounters took place between their ships and those of the Dutch. The conviction at length became general, that there was room enough for all parties in the Northern seas; and in order to avoid the chance of coming into collision with each other, they parolled Spitzbergen and the adjacent ocean into districts, which were respectively assigned to the English, Dutch, Hamburgers, French, Danes, &c.

The Dutch, being thus left to prosecute the fishery without having their attention diverted by hostile attacks, speedily acquired a decided superiority over all their competitors.

When the Europeans first began to prosecute the fishery on the coast of Spitzbergen

* See *Mémoire sur l'Antiquité de la Pêche de la Baleine*, par. Noet, 12mn. Paris, 1793.

whales were every where found in vast numbers. Ignorant of the strength and stratagems of the formidable foe by whom they were now assailed, instead of betraying any symptoms of fear, they surrounded the ships and crowded all the bays. Their capture was in consequence a comparatively easy task, and many were killed which it was afterwards necessary to abandon, from the ships being already full.

While fish were thus easily obtained, it was the practice to boil the blubber on shore in the North, and to fetch home only the oil and whalebone. And, perhaps, nothing can give a more vivid idea of the extent and importance of the Dutch fishery, in the middle of the 17th century, than the fact, that they constructed a considerable village, the houses of which were all previously prepared in Holland, on the Isle of Amsterdam, on the northern shore of Spitzbergen, to which they gave the appropriate name of *Smeerenberg* (from *smieren*, to melt, and *berg*, a mountain). This was the grand rendezvous of the Dutch whale ships, and was amply provided with boilers, tanks, and every sort of apparatus required for preparing the oil and the bone. But this was not all. The whale fleets were attended with a number of provision ships, the cargoes of which were landed at *Smeerenberg*; which abounded, during the busy season, with well-furnished shops, good inns, &c.; so that many of the conveniences and enjoyments of Amsterdam were found within about 11 degrees of the Pole! It is particularly mentioned, that the sailors and others were every morning supplied with what a Dutchman regards as a very great luxury—*hot rolls* for breakfast. Batavia and *Smeerenberg* were founded nearly at the same period, and it was for a considerable time doubted whether the latter was not the more important establishment.—(*De Reste, Histoire des Peches*, &c. tome i. p. 42.)

During the flourishing period of the Dutch fishery, the quantity of oil made in the North was so great that it could not be carried home by the whale ships; and every year vessels were sent out in ballast to assist in importing the produce of the fishery.

But the same cause that had destroyed the fishery of the Biscayans, ruined that which was carried on in the immediate neighbourhood of Spitzbergen. Whales became gradually less common, and more and more timid and difficult to catch. They retreated first to the open seas, and then to the great banks of ice on the eastern coast of Greenland. When the site of the fishery had been thus removed to a very great distance from Spitzbergen, it was found most economical to send the blubber direct to Holland. *Smeerenberg* was in consequence totally deserted, and its position is now with difficulty discoverable.

But though very extensive, the Dutch whale fishery was not, during the first 30 years of its existence, very profitable. This arose from the circumstance of the right to carry it on having been conceded, in 1614, to an exclusive company. The expense inseparable from such great associations, the wastefulness and unfaithfulness of their servants, who were much more intent upon advancing their own interests than those of the company, increased the outlays so much, that the returns, great as they were, proved little more than adequate to defray them, and the fishery was confined within far narrower limits than it would otherwise have reached. But after various prolongations of the charter of the first company, and the formation of some new ones, the trade was finally thrown open in 1642. The effects of this measure were most salutary, and afford one of the most striking examples to be met with of the advantages of free competition. Within a few years the fishery was vastly extended; and though it became progressively more and more difficult from the growing scarcity of fish, it proved, notwithstanding these disadvantages, more profitable to the private adventurers than it had ever been to the company; and continued for above a century to be prosecuted with equal energy and success. The famous John de Witt has alluded as follows to this change in the mode of conducting the trade:—

"In this respect," says he, "it is worthy of observation, that the authorised Greenland Company made heretofore little profit by their fishery, because of the great charge of selling out their skins; and that the train oil, blubber, and whale fins were not well made, handled, or cured; and being brought hither and put into warehouse, were not sold soon enough, nor to the Company's best advantage. Whereas now that every one equips their vessels at the cheapest rate, follow their fishing diligently, and manage all carefully, the blubber, train oil, and whale fins are employed for so many uses in several countries, that they can sell them with that conveniency, that though there are now 15 ships for 1 that formerly sailed out of Holland on that account, and consequently each of them could not take so many whales as heretofore, and notwithstanding the new prohibition of France and other countries to import these commodities, and though there is greater plenty of them imported by our fishers—yet these commodities are so much raised in the value above what they were what there was a company, that the common inhabitants do exercise that fishery with profit, to the much greater benefit of our country than when it was under the management of a company carried on but by a few."—(*The Interest of Holland*, p. 63, 8vo. ed. London, 1740.)

The private ships sent by the Dutch to the whale fishery were fitted out on a principle that secured the utmost economy and vigilance on the part of every one connected with them. The hull of the vessel was furnished by an individual, who commonly took upon himself the office of captain; a sail-maker supplied the sails, a cooper the casks, &c. The parties engaged as adventurers in the undertaking. The cargo being brought to Holland and disposed of, each person shared in the produce according to his proportion of the outfit. The crew was hired on the same principle; so that every one had a motive to exert himself, to see that all unnecessary expenses were avoided, and that those that were necessary were

confined within the narrowest limits. This practice has been limited to some extent in this and some other countries, but in none has it been carried so far as in Holland. It appears to us that it might be advantageously introduced into other adventures.

When in its most flourishing state, towards the year 1680, the Dutch whale fishery employed about 260 ships, and 14,000 sailors.

The English whale fishery, like that of Holland, was originally carried on by an exclusive association. The Muscovy Company was, indeed, speedily driven from the field; but it was immediately succeeded by others, that did not prove more fortunate. In 1725, the South Sea Company embarked largely in the trade, and prosecuted it for 8 years; at the end of which, having lost a large sum, they gave it up. But the legislature, having resolved to support the trade, granted, in 1732, a bounty of 20s. a ton to every ship of more than 200 tons burden engaged in it; but this premium being insufficient, it was raised, in 1740, to 40s. a ton, when a number of ships were fitted out, as much certainly in the intention of catching the bounty as of catching fish. Deceived by the prosperous appearance of the fishery, parliament imagined that it was firmly established, and in 1775 the bounty was reduced to 30s. The effects of this reduction showed the factitious nature of the trade, the vessels engaged in it having fallen off in the course of the next 5 years from 105 to 39! To arrest this alarming decline, the bounty was raised to its old level in 1781, and of course the trade was soon restored to its previous state of apparent prosperity. The hostilities occasioned by the American war reduced the Dutch fishery to less than half its previous amount, and gave a proportional extension to that of England. The bounty, which had in consequence become very heavy, was reduced, in 1787, to 30s. a ton; in 1792 it was farther reduced to 25s., and in 1795 it was reduced to 20s., at which sum it continued till 1824, when it ceased.

It appears from accounts given in Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce* (vol. iii. p. 511., vol. iv. p. 130.), that the total bounties paid for the encouragement of the whale fishery, in the interval between 1750 and 1788, amounted to no less than 1,577,935*l*. It will be seen from the official account which follows, that there are no means of furnishing any accurate account of the sums paid as bounties from the year 1780 to 1813 inclusive; but it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain that the total bounties paid during the period from 1780 to 1824 considerably exceeded 1,000,000*l*. Here, then, we have a sum of upwards of two millions and a half laid out since 1750 in promoting the whale fishery. Now we believe, that if we estimate the entire average value of the gross produce of the Northern whale fishery (and it is to it only that the preceding statements apply), during the last 3 or 4 years, at 375,000*l*. a year, we shall be about the mark. But had the 2,500,000*l*. expended in bolstering up this branch of industry been laid out as capital in any ordinary employment, it would have produced 125,000*l*. a year of net profit; and deducting this sum from the above, there remains only 250,000*l*. to replace the capital wasted and ships lost in carrying on the fishery, and to afford a clear national profit! Whatever, therefore, may be the value of the whale fishery as a nursery for seamen, it is absurd to regard it as contributing any thing to the public wealth. The remark of Dr. Franklin, that he who draws a fish out of the sea draws out a piece of silver, is ever in the mouths of those who are clamouring for bounties and protection against competition. But we apprehend that even Franklin himself, sagacious as he was, would have found it rather difficult to show how the wealth of those is to be increased, who, in fishing up one piece of silver, are obliged to throw another of equal value into the sea. We subjoin

An account of the Number of Ships annually fitted out in Great Britain for the Northern Whale Fishery, of the Tonnage and Crews of such Ships, and of the Bounties paid on their Account, from 1789 to 1824.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
1789	161	16,599			1807	There are no documents in this office by which the accounts for these years can be rendered.			
1790	116	33,232	4,482		1813				
1791	116	33,906	4,520		1814	112	36,576	4,708	43,709
1792	93	26,983	3,697		1815	134	43,320	5,753	41,487
1793	82	23,487	3,310		1816	130	41,767	5,519	45,746
1794	60	18,336	2,350		1817	135	43,519	5,703	43,161
1795	44	11,748	1,601		1818	140	45,010	5,003	45,808
1796	51	13,833	1,910		1819	140	45,093	6,291	43,051
1797	60	16,371	2,365		1820	142	45,092	6,137	41,719
1798	66	18,754	2,633		1821	140	44,864	6,074	42,164
1799	67	19,360	2,683		1822	121	38,182	5,231	32,347
1800	61	17,729	2,459		1823	120	37,625	4,981	32,980
1801	64	18,568	2,544		1824	112	35,191	4,867	29,131
1802	79	23,539	3,129						
1803	95	28,698	3,606						
1804	82	28,034	3,507						
1805	91	27,570	3,436						
1806	91	27,697	3,715						

It is not even certain whether the expenditure of 2,500,000*l*. upon bounties would really have had the effect of establishing the whale fishery upon a solid foundation, but for the occupation of Holland by the French, and the consequent hostilities in which she was

involved with this country. These did more to promote and consolidate the British fishery than any thing else. The war entirely annihilated that of the Dutch: and our government having wisely offered to the fisheries of Holland all the immunities enjoyed by the citizens of Great Britain in the event of their settling amongst us, many availed themselves of the invitation, bringing with them their capital, industry, and skill. In consequence of this signal encouragement, the whale fishery of England was prosecuted with greater success than at any previous period: and at the termination of the late war, in 1815, there were 134 valuable ships and about 5,800 seamen engaged in the Northern fishery, and about 30 ships and 800 men in that to the South.

After peace was restored, the English capitalists and others became apprehensive lest the Dutch should engage anew with their ancient vigour and success in the whale fishery. But these apprehensions were without any real foundation. The Hollanders, during the 30 years they had been excluded from the sea, had lost all that practical acquaintance with the details of the fishery, for which they had long been so famous, and which is so essential to its success. The government attempted to rouse their dormant energies by the offer of considerable premiums and other advantages to those who embarked in the trade. Three companies were in consequence formed for carrying it on; 1 at Rotterdam, 1 at Harlingen, and 1 in South Holland. But their efforts have been very limited, and altogether unfortunate. In 1826, the company of South Holland was dissolved, while that of Harlingen despatched 4 ships, and that of Rotterdam 2. In 1827, Rotterdam sent only 1 ship, and Harlingen 2; and in 1828, 1 solitary ship sailed from Holland—a feeble and last effort of the company of Harlingen!

Such has been the fate of the Dutch whale fishery. The attempts to revive it failed, not because the ships sent out were ill calculated for the service, but because they were manned by un-kilful seamen. In the early ages of the fishery, this difficulty would have been got over, because, owing to the fewness of competitors, and the scanty supply of oil and whale-bone, even a small cargo brought a high price; but at present, when the fishery is prosecuted on a very large scale and at a very low rate of profit by the English, the Americans, the Hamburgers, &c., no new competitor coming into the field could expect to maintain himself unless he had nearly equal advantages. The Dutch have, therefore, done wisely in withdrawing from the trade. Any attempt to establish it by the aid of bounties and other artificial encouragements would be one of which the ultimate success must be very doubtful, and which could lead to no really useful result. During the 20 years preceding the late French war, the fishery of Holland was gradually declining, and had, in a great measure, ceased to be profitable. It would be folly to endeavour to raise anew, and at a great expense, a branch of industry that had become unproductive at a former period, when there is no ground for supposing that it would be more productive at this moment.

We have already noticed several changes of the localities in which the whale fishery has been carried on at different periods; within these few years another has taken place even more important. The seas between Spitzbergen and Greenland are now nearly abandoned by the whalers, who resort in preference to Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, or to the sea which washes the coast of West Greenland. The Dutch fishers first began to frequent Davis's Straits in 1719; and as the whales had not hitherto been pursued into this vast recess, they were found in greater numbers than in the seas round Spitzbergen. From about this period it was usually resorted to by about 3-10ths of the Dutch ships. It was not till a comparatively late period that Davis's Straits began to be frequented by English whalers; and even so late as 1820, when Captain Scoresby published his elaborate and valuable work on the whale fishery, that carried on in the Greenland seas was by far the most considerable. But within the last few years, the Greenland fishery has been almost entirely deserted. The various discoveries made by the expeditions recently fitted out by government for exploring the seas and inlets to the westward of Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, have made the fishers acquainted with several new and advantageous situations for the prosecution of their business. What further revolutions the fishery may be destined to undergo, it is impossible to foresee; but there can be little doubt that the same results that have happened elsewhere will happen in Davis's Straits, and that it will be necessary to pursue the whale to new and, perhaps, still more inaccessible haunts.

The sea in Davis's Straits is less incommoded with field ice than the Greenland and Spitzbergen seas, but it abounds with icebergs; and the fishery, when carried on in Baffin's Bay and Lancaster Sound, is more dangerous, perhaps, than any that has hitherto been attempted.

The following Table gives a view of the produce of the Northern whale fishery during the 3 years ending with 1827:—

Years.	No. of Ships despatched.	No. of Whales captured.	Quantity of Oil.	Quantity of Whalebone.
1825	110	501	Tons. 6,597	Tons. 360
1826	94	510	7,087	390
1827	88	1,155	13,179	732

It appears from this and the previous Table, that the number of ships sent out has declined nearly one half since 1820. The bounty was repealed in 1824, and the ships fitted out have since fallen off in the ratio of 112 to 88 or 90. This is a sufficient proof of the insecure foundation on which the trade had previously rested.

The whale fishery has for a lengthened period partaken more of the nature of a gambling adventure than of a regular industrious pursuit. Sometimes the ships do not get half a cargo, and sometimes they come home *clean*. The risk of shipwreck is also very considerable. It appears from Mr. Scoresby's Tables (vol. ii. p. 131.), that of 588 ships sent to the North during the 4 years ending with 1817, *eight* were lost. This period was, however, uncommonly free from disaster. It would seem, too, that the risk of shipwreck is greater in Davis's Straits than in the seas to the east of Greenland. In 1819, of 63 ships sent to Davis's Straits, no fewer than 10 were lost; in 1821, out of 79 ships, 11 were lost; and in 1822, out of 60 ships, 7 were lost. But 1830 has in this respect been the most disastrous.—Of 87 ships that sailed for Davis's Straits, no less than 18, or 22 per cent. of the whole, were totally lost; 24 returned *clean*, or without having caught a single fish; and of the remainder, not 1 had a full cargo, only 1 or 2 being *half fished*! If we estimate the value of the ships cast away, including the outfit, at 7,000*l.* each, the loss from shipwreck only will be 128,000*l.* The following Table exhibits a detailed account of the fishery in 1832:—

Account of the Northern Whale Fishery in 1832; exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of the Ships sent out by each Port, with the Number of Fish taken, and the Quantity of Oil and Bone.

Ports.	No. of Ships.	Tonnage.	Fish.	Oil.		Bones.	
				Tons.	Cwt.	Tons.	Cwt.
Hull - - -	30	9,398	530	4,603	251	11	18
Whitby - - -	1	324	29	235	11	18	11
Newcastle - - -	4	1,509	121	1,019	55	6	10
Berwick - - -	1	309	22	185	9	10	6
London - - -	3	1,151	44	285	12	14	14
Peterhead - - -	11	3,070	159	1,214	63	8	8
Aberdeen - - -	6	1,823	63	833	43	9	9
Dundee - - -	9	2,929	240	1,902	101	10	10
Montrose - - -	3	604	28	257	13	7	7
Kirkcaldy - - -	5	1,609	98	785	41	10	10
Leith - - -	8	2,761	190	1,282	68	17	17
Totals - - -	81	26,393	1,563	12,610	676	120	

Estimated Value.—12,610 tons of oil, at 20*l.*, 252,200*l.*; 676 tons of whalebone, at 12*s.*, 84,560*l.*; making in all, 336,760*l.*

There has been a somewhat singular change in the ports from which the fishery is chiefly carried on. In London were undertaken all the discoveries which led to its establishment; and for some time a complete monopoly was enjoyed by the great companies formed in that city. Even between the years 1760 and 1790, the metropolis sent out 4 times the number of vessels that sailed from any other port. It was observed, however, that her fishery was, on the whole, less fortunate than that of the new rivals which had sprung up; and her merchants were so much discouraged, that in Mr. Scoresby's time they equipped only 17 or 18 vessels. They have since almost entirely abandoned the trade, employing in 1832 not more than 3 ships.

Hull early became a rival to London, having sent out vessels at the very commencement of the fishery. Although checked at first by the monopoly of the great companies, as soon as the trade became free she prosecuted it with distinguished success. In the end of the last century, that town attained, and has ever since preserved, the character of the first whale-fishing port in Britain.

Whitby engaged in this pursuit in 1753, and carried it on for some time with more than common success; but her operations have since been much limited. Liverpool, after embarking in the undertaking with spirit, has now entirely relinquished it. Meantime the eastern ports of Scotland have steadily carried on, and even extended, their transactions, while those of the country at large were diminishing. The increase has been most remarkable at Peterhead; and indeed this town, as compared especially with London, must derive a great advantage from avoiding, both in the outward and homeward voyages, 600 miles of somewhat difficult navigation.

The following summary has been collected from Mr. Scoresby, as the average quantity of shipping fitted out in the different ports for 9 years, ending with 1818; and the comparison of it with the number sent out in 1832 will show the present state of the trade:—

England—	Average of 1810-18.		1832.	Scotland—	Average of 1810-18.		1832.
	No.	Tons.			No.	Tons.	
Berwick - - -	1	300	1	Burntisland - - -	0	0	0
Grimaby - - -	1	300	0	Dundee - - -	7	0	0
Hull - - -	53	30	30	Greenock - - -	2	0	0
Liverpool - - -	1	0	0	Kirkcaldy - - -	2	0	5
London - - -	17	3	3	Kirkwall - - -	0	0	0
Lynn - - -	1	0	0	Leith - - -	8	0	8
Newcastle - - -	4	4	4	Montrose - - -	2	0	3
Whitby - - -	8	1	1	Peterhead - - -	6	0	11
	91	39	39		40	43	
Scotland—Aberdeen - - -	10	6	6	Total - - -	131	61	
Banff - - -	0	0	0				

Hardly a ship now goes to Greenland.

We have already seen that, as a source of national wealth, the whale fishery is of exceedingly little importance. Neither does it seem to be of so much consequence as a nursery

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Quantity of Whalebone.
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for seamen as is commonly supposed. The number employed in the Northern fishery, does not exceed 4,500; and it may be doubted whether the casualties to which they are exposed, do not, in a public point of view, more than balance the increased skill and hardihood they acquire in so perilous an occupation.

There seems no reason to apprehend any deficiency in the supply of oil from a falling off in the fishery. We have seen from the foregoing statements, that the fish oil imported in 1832 amounted to 12,610 tons. But at present nearly half this quantity of olive oil is annually imported; and as olive oil is loaded with a duty of 8*l.* 8*s.* a tun, it is obvious that if this duty were reduced, as it ought to be, to 2*l.* or 3*l.* a tun, the increased quantity imported would go far to balance any falling off in the supply of train oil. When a coarser species is required, rape and linseed oil may be advantageously substituted for that of the whale. Tallow may also be applied to several purposes, to the exclusion of train oil. Although, therefore, the whale fishery should decline, we need not fear that any material injury will thence arise to the industry of the country; and it would be most impolitic to attempt to bolster it up, either by resorting to the exploded system of bounties, or by laying heavy duties on oil or tallow imported from other countries.

The South Sea fishery was not prosecuted by the English till about the beginning of the American war: and as the Americans had already entered on it with vigour and success, 4 American harpooners were sent out in each vessel. In 1791, 75 whale ships were sent to the South Sea; but the number has not been so great since. In 1820, only 31 ships were sent out, of the burden of 10,997 tons, and carrying 937 men. The *Macrocephalus*, or spermaceti whale, is particularly abundant in the neighbourhood of the Spice Islands, and Mr. Crawford, in his valuable work on the *Eastern Archipelago*, (vol. iii. p. 447.), has entered into some details to show that the fishery carried on there is of greater importance than the spice trade. Unluckily, however, the statements on which Mr. Crawford founded his comparisons were entirely erroneous, neither the ships nor the men employed amounting to more than 1-5th or 1-6th part of what he has represented.

But errors of this sort abound in the works of those who had better means of coming at the truth. Mr. Barrow, in an article on the fisheries, in the *Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica*, states the number of ships fitted out for the Northern whale fishery in 1814 at 143, and their crews at 7,150; and he further states the number of ships fitted out for the Southern fishery in 1815 at 107, and their crews at 3,210. In point of fact, however, only 112 whale ships cleared out for the north in 1814, carrying 4,708 men; and in 1815, only 22 whale ships cleared out for the South, carrying 592 men! How Mr. Barrow, who has access to official documents, should have given the sanction of his authority to so erroneous an estimate, we know not. In the same article, Mr. Barrow estimates the entire annual value of the British fisheries of all sorts, at 8,300,000*l.* But it might be very easily shown that, in rating it at 3,500,000*l.*, we should certainly be up to the mark, or rather, perhaps, beyond it.—(See *FISH.*)

We annex a detailed account of the progress of the Southern whale fishery, since 1814.

An Account of the Number of Ships annually fitted out in Great Britain, with their Tonnage and Crews, for the Southern Whale Fishery, and of the Bounties on their Account, from 1814 to 1821, both inclusive.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
1814	30	8,009	701	5,600	1820	68	10,755	1,827	9,100
1815	32	6,985	592	8,000	1821	55	14,398	1,316	8,300
1816	34	10,332	852	4,500	1822	44	11,432	1,023	7,400
1817	42	14,785	1,201	10,000	1823	59	17,669	1,530	6,800
1818	58	18,214	1,643	6,600	1824	31	9,123	790	7,300
1819	47	14,668	1,245	9,100					

An Account of the Number of Ships fitted out in the different Ports of Great Britain (specifying the same) for the Southern Whale Fishery, their Tonnage, and the Number of Men on board, during the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1830.

Ports.	Year ending 5th of January, 1828.			Year ending 5th of January, 1829.			Year ending 5th of January, 1830.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
London - -	31	10,158	674	21	7,000	604	31	10,997	937
Greenock - -	2	216	28		nil.				nil.

Office of Registrar General of Shipping,
Custom-house, London, Dec. 16. 1830.

JOHN COVEY,
Reg. Gen. of Shipping.

American Whale Fishery.—For a lengthened period, the Americans have prosecuted the whale fishery with greater vigour and success than, perhaps, any other people. They commenced it in 1690, and for about 50 years found an ample supply of fish on their own shores. But the whale having abandoned them, the American navigators entered with extraordinary ardour into the fisheries carried on in the Northern and Southern Oceans. From 1778 to 1775, Massachusetts employed annually 183 vessels, carrying 13,820 tons, in the

the Northern fishery, for which they are exposed to skill and hardihood they

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whale fishery, since 1814.

in, with their Tonnage and Account, from 1814 to 1821.

Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
		£
0,755	1,827	0,100
4,399	1,316	8,300
1,432	1,022	7,400
7,609	1,535	6,800
9,122	790	1,300

Great Britain (specifying the ber of Men on board, during

Year ending 9th of January, 1833.		
Ships.	Tons.	Men.
31	10,997	937

AIN COVEY,
Reg. Gen. of Shipping.
icans have prosecuted the other people. They con- pply of fish on their own gators entered with extra- Southern Oceans. From ying 13,820 tons, in the

former; and 121 vessels, carrying 14,026 tons, in the latter. Mr. Burke, in his famous speech on American affairs in 1774, adverted to this wonderful display of daring enterprise as follows:—

"As to the wealth," said he, "which the colonists have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought these acquisitions of value, for they seemed to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exer- cised sought rather, in my opinion, to have raised esteem and admiration. And pray, Sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the New England people carry on the whale fishery. While we follow them among the trembling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the South. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and too romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place for their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both poles. We learn, that while some of them draw the line or strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their pringle game along the coast of Brazil. No sea, but what is used with their fisheries. No climate that is not witness of their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprises, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent in which it has been pursued by this recent people; a people who are still in the prime, and not hardened into manhood."

The unfortunate war that broke out soon after this speech was delivered, checked for a while the progress of the fishery; but it was resumed with renewed vigour as soon as peace was restored. The American fishery has been principally carried on from Nantucket and New Bedford in Massachusetts; and for a considerable time past the ships have mostly re- sorted to the Southern seas. "Although," says Mr. Pitkin, "Great Britain has, at various times, given large bounties to her ships employed in this fishery, yet the whalemens of Nan- tucket and New Bedford, unprotected and unsupported by any thing but their own industry and enterprise, have generally been able to meet their competitors in a foreign market."— (*Commerce of the United States*, 2d ed. p. 46.) The following statement may not be uninteresting.

Account of Vessels at Sea, from the United States, employed in the Southern, or Sperm Whale Fishery on the 1st of January, 1833.

Owned in Massachusetts.		Vessels.	Owned in other States.		Vessels.
At New Bedford and Fairhaven		50	At New London, Con.		19
Nantucket		57	Bristol, R. I.		10
Biquerra		5	Warren, ditto		5
Falmouth		5	Newport, ditto		4
Plymouth		2	Hudson, New York		4
Salem		2	Foughkeepsie		1
Full River		1	New York		1
Rochester		1	Sag Harbour		1
Wilmington		1	Fortsmouth, N. H.		1
Dorchester		1			
Boston's Hole		1			
Total absent from Massachusetts		148	Total		37
			Owned in Massachusetts		166
			Total		203

The produce in oil, of the sperm whale fishery, in 1832, was as follows:—

Barrils.		Barrils.	
Exported to ships from the Pacific Ocean,—		At Sag Harbour	1,000
At New Bedford and Fairhaven	30,476	Bristol	200
Nantucket	39,450	Warren	923
Newport	4,120	Sent home by various merchant ships	8,900
Plymouth	5,100	Taken in the Atlantic by small vessels	1,500
Imported in ships from the Brazils,—		Total of sperm oil in 1832	78,749
At New Bedford	8,560		
New London	703	Imported in 1831	107,758
Nantucket	407		

French Whale Fishery.—France, which preceded the other nations of Europe in the whale fishery, can hardly be said, for many years past, to have had any share in it. In 1784, Louis XVI. endeavoured to revive it. With this view, he fitted out 6 ships at Dunkirk on his own account, which were furnished with harpooners and a number of experienced sea- men brought at a great expense from Nantucket. The adventure was more successful than could have been reasonably expected, considering the auspices under which it was carried on. Several private individuals followed the example of his Majesty, and in 1790 France had about 40 ships employed in the fishery. The revolutionary war destroyed every vestige of this rising trade. Since the peace, the government has made great efforts for its renewal, but hitherto without much success. At present there are only from 12 to 15 ships engaged in the fishery.

(This article has been principally taken from the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 14, to which publication it was contributed by the author of this work.)

(*Whale Fishery (Southern).*)—This consists of three distinct branches; viz.; 1st, the catch of the sperm whale; 2d, that of the common black whale of the southern seas; and, 3d, that of the sea elephant, or southern walrus.

The sperm whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*) is found in all tropical climates, and on the coasts of New Zealand and Japan. The ordinary duration of the voyage of a ship from England, employed in this department of the fishery, is about 3 years.

The common black whale of the southern seas (*Physeter microops*) is met with in various places, but principally on the coast of Brazil; in the bays on the west coast of Africa; and in some of the bays in New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, &c.

Sea elephants (intermediate between the walrus of the northern seas and the seal) are principally met with in the seas around the Islands of Desolation, South Georgia, and South Shetland, the coast of California, &c. Vast numbers of these animals are annually captured; vessels frequently load entirely with them; and they are believed to furnish more oil than the common South Sea whale. The oil of the black whale and that of the sea elephant, are both known in the market by the name of southern oil; and they are so very similar, that those most versed in the trade can with difficulty distinguish the one from the other. Hence ships commonly engage indifferently in either fishing as opportunity offers. The usual duration of the voyage of a ship from England in either of the last two departments, or in the two combined, varies from 12 to 18 months. We subjoin a

Statement of the Southern Whales Fishery carried on from Great Britain since 1800; exhibiting the Total Number of Ships annually absent from Great Britain on Whaling Expeditions; the Total Number of Ships that annually returned to Great Britain; the Annual Imports of Sperm and Common Oil, with the Prices of each; the Average Tonnage of the Ships at Sea; and the Average Number of Men to each Ship.

Years.	Ships at Sea.	Ships returned.	Sperm Oil imported.		Common Oil imported.		Price of Sperm Oil per Tun.		Price of Common Oil per Tun.		Total Value of Imports.	Average Tonnage of Ships.	Average Number of Men to a Ship.
			Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	£.	s.	£.	s.			
1800	64	89	1,211	2,831	70	30	70	30	178,850				
1801	18	28	658	1,506	84	40	84	40	188,140				
1802	90	96	1,108	2,516	80	29	80	29	280,972				
1803	92	82	1,710	4,496	80	35	80	35	296,280				
1804	99	87	1,952	4,610	78	34	78	34	326,276				
1805	96	83	2,419	5,059	75	30	75	30	373,945				
1806	66	80	2,369	5,799	70	26	70	26	280,974				
1807	43	80	1,881	4,473	78	34	78	34	140,730				
1808	53	80	1,861	4,140	83	34	83	34	225,093				
1809	53	15	1,924	4,605	100	40	100	40	314,600				
1810	45	18	1,410	3,765	105	42	105	42	180,180				
1811	68	87	2,404	5,968	100	37	100	37	376,142				
1812	62	12	1,499	3,899	90	42	90	42	306,496				
1813	41	23	3,696	8,121	82	50	82	50	819,586				
1814	48	39	2,695	6,865	86	40	86	40	624,350				
1815	46	15	1,161	1,897	66	36	66	36	146,238				
1816	54	31	2,305	5,929	53	39	53	39	267,749				
1817	76	54	1,469	3,409	63	30	63	30	618,235				
1818	91	63	2,393	4,367	73	36	73	36	406,462				
1819	112	41	3,679	4,885	85	33	85	33	473,835				
1820	137	89	2,711	4,061	71	25	71	25	318,432				
1821	123	66	3,606	4,570	60	18	60	18	303,180				
1822	118	41	6,011	1,370	54	22	54	22	266,834				
1823	114	57	British. 6,891	Colonial. 899	British. 1,723	Colonial. 668	45	21	269,626				
1824	96	42	5,926	150	748	619	40	22	373,040				
1825	53	31	4,231	65	1,104	413	48	30	226,466				
1826	78	34	3,696	269	434	299	55	34	269,827				
1827	90	30	4,476	304	665	474	70	27	367,453				
1828	85	30	3,216	116	106	338	79	25	376,078				
1829	69	39	4,488	110	12	478	74	27	406,082				
1830	104	31	4,177	498	418	904	78	43	392,049				
1831	108	27	4,839	1,576	192	1,482	75	43	634,747				
1832	105	30	4,576	1,549	432	1,755	61	29	498,301				
1833	110	18	6,451	2,609	220	2,845	62	25	437,283				
1834	99	27	4,021	2,710	149	2,384	65	23	496,004				
1835	99	33	3,631	2,280	311	3,137	75	28	626,369				
1836	99	26	4,066	2,716	99	4,180	80	32	697,016				
1837	99	18	3,118	3,891	261	4,323	84	33	646,576				
1838	54	21	2,301	3,484	80	7,004	94	25	721,840				
1839	57	22	4,390	1,222	170	6,316	83	23	624,360				
1840	57	22	4,390	1,222	170	6,316	83	23	624,360				

* The ships for this and the succeeding years, as for the previous ones, do not include colonial ships, but those from Britain only.
 † From this year commenced the Imperial Measure.
 ‡ American sperm oil.

We are indebted for the above valuable table, the only one of its kind that has ever been published, to a gentleman connected with a house that has been largely engaged in the trade since its commencement. The details may, therefore, be safely depended upon.

The sperm and southern colonial oils are principally imported from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. There used also to be a very considerable importation from the Cape of Good Hope; but that is now much fallen off. The imports of whale and seal oil from our North American possessions have been greatly augmented of late years. That, however, is mostly the product of the northern sea.

Whale Fishery (Northern).—We regret to have to state that additional experience has served to confirm the unfavourable view we took in the *Dictionary* of this branch of industry. The subjoined account exhibits its condition in each year, from 1815 to 1834, both inclusive. It is seen from it that the ships and tonnage sent out have fallen off about a half since 1821! The years 1835 and 1836 were peculiarly disastrous: the trade has since, however, somewhat improved. But the fishery has, in fact, been for several years past more akin to a lottery than to any thing else; and, latterly, the blanks seem to have predominated very decidedly over the prizes. Considering the profitless nature of the business, and the hazards to which the seamen engaged in it are exposed, it would seem to be high time to put an end to the existing temptations to embark in it, by reducing the duties on vegetable oils. A reduction of this sort would, besides, be of much advantage to several of our most important manufactures; and would, in no small degree, contribute to promote the commerce of the country.

WHALE FISHERY (AMERICAN).

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Abstract Account of the Northern Whale Fishery for the 20 Years ending with 1834.

Year.	Number of Ships to Greenland and Davis's Straits.		Total Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships Lost.	Number of Whales.	Tons of Oil.	Tons of Bone.
	G.	D. S.						
1815	09	48	146	47,148	1	733	10,682	528
1816	101	45	146	46,668	1	1,330	12,590	632
1817	97	53	150	48,084	5	628	10,871	539
1818	94	63	157	50,302	2	1,268	14,482	666
1819	96	63	159	51,072	12	989	11,401	517
1820	102	57	159	50,546	3	1,595	18,745	946
1821	80	79	159	50,709	14	1,405	16,853	922
1822	61	60	121	38,144	6	630	8,663	422
1823	55	62	117	36,759	3	2,018	17,074	921
1824	32	79	111	35,013	1	761	9,271	534
1825	31	89	110	34,751	5	500	6,370	350
1826	5	90	95	30,414	5	512	7,200	400
1827	16	72	88	28,273	1	1,162	12,166	733
1828	14	79	93	28,665	3	1,197	13,966	808
1829	1	83	89	28,812	4	871	10,072	608
1830	0	91	91	28,390	10	161	2,199	0
1831	6	80	86	28,606	3	451	5,104	272
1832	19	62	81	28,393	5	1,563	12,610	676
1833	3	74	77	25,294	1	1,695	14,508	802
1834	7	69	76	24,955	3	872	8,214	442
Yearly average			115½	37,013½	5	1,024	11,213	591½

Whale Fishery (American Southern).—The Americans were among the first to begin, and have long outstripped every other people in the extent and success with which they have prosecuted, the southern whale fishery. It is principally carried on from New Bedford and other ports in the state of Massachusetts; and from Nantucket, a small island dependent on this state, celebrated for the bold adventurous character of its sailors, and for being the earliest seat of the fishery. We borrow from a Nantucket journal the following details with respect to this fishery in 1834:—

Spermaceti Whale Fishery.—The whole number of ships engaged in this valuable branch of the fisheries is 273, of which 257 are now actual; viz from—

New Bedford	94	Falmouth	6
Nantucket	1	Newport	3
Fairhaven	14	Sagharbour	5
Rial	13	Stam	3
New London	10	Newburyport	3
Hobson	7	Poughkeepsie	2
Warra	8	Portsmouth	2
Edgartown	6	Dartmouth	2

And one from each of the following ports, viz.—Boston, Plymouth, Wiscam, Rochester, Portland, Wiscam, Fall River, Providence, Swanton, Newbury, New York, and Wilmington, Delaware. Sixteen ships only are in port, belonging as follows: to New Bedford, 7; Nantucket, 5; Fairhaven, Plymouth, Sagharbour, and Edgartown, each 1.

The aggregate tonnage of the 257 absent ships is nearly 400,000 tons. In those, only 91 had each at last dates obtained 1,000 brls. of oil upwards; and about the same number are not yet reported with any oil. The number of seamen and navigators employed on had these vessels is not far from 9,000. The cost of the entire fleet, as first for these voyages of 3 years' duration, probably exceeds 4,000,000 dollars.

Whale Fishery.—Annexed is a statement of the whale fishery of the United States during the year 1833, together with the arrivals for the last seven years. It will be seen (as we predicted in our statement last year) that the arrivals of sperm oil have fallen considerably short of last year, being only 120,400 brls. against 182,569 brls. in 1837, showing a decrease of 53,169 brls.; to which may be attributed the present high prices, together with the great increase of consumption. It will also be seen that the imports of whale oil have been larger than the previous year, having amounted to 223,710 brls.: yet so great has been the increase of home consumption, that prices have risen high during the year, and there is not at the present time any considerable quantity in the importers' hands. The quantity of whitebait has also increased pro rata.

Below is a Memorandum of arrivals at the different Ports in the United States during the Year 1838.

Ports.	Ships.			brls.			Other places	Ships.			brls.		
	Brigs.	Sch.	Sch.	Spermaceti.	Whale.	W.		Brigs.	Sch.	Sch.	Spermaceti.	Whale.	W.
N. Bedford and Fairhaven	10	10	3	27,600	84,100			21	11	6	6,290	24,810	
Nantucket	13	3	3	81,730	6,300								
Sagharbour	24			1,980	37,800								
New London	30	1	3	4,400	84,000								
N. York, including places in North River	7		1	8,830	7,000								
Fairhaven	6			1,300	5,900								
Salmon	3	1		1,000	4,750								
Warren	7			2,600	8,700								
Edgartown	1			1,400	1,960								
Edgartown	1			470	2,500								
Newport	3	1		4,000	6,800								
Arrived in 1836												73,180	13,590
Arrived in 1837												151,810	133,050
Arrived in 1835												175,130	128,100
Arrived in 1834												129,814	122,292
Arrived in 1833												113,711	162,168
Arrived in 1832												79,067	179,241
Arrived in 1831												9,532	113,918
Arrived in 1830												114,929	86,284
(Boston Daily Advertiser.)													

There are various circumstances that conspire to give the Americans advantages for the prosecution of the southern whale fishery that are not enjoyed by any European nation. It is difficult, however, to see why it should not be prosecuted with still greater advantage from the ports of New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, &c. It is supposed by many that Rio de Janeiro would be a good station for the fishing.

) is met with in various east coast of Africa; and c. seas and the seal) are south Georgia, and South animals are annually captured to furnish more oil that of the sea elephant, they are so very similar, the one from the other. opportunity offers. The last two departments, a since 1800; exhibiting the Imports of Sperm and Cetus at Sea; and the Average

Total Value of Imports.	Average Tonnage of Ships.	Average Number of Men to a Ship.
176,650		
188,140		
280,972	348	33
298,180		
286,978		
273,945		
267,874		
140,733		
229,026	300	30
214,600		
185,190		
378,142		
306,496		
81,658		
356,590		
146,228		
287,743		
812,255		
406,462		
478,555		
318,132	340	32
303,190		
806,954		
363,668		
173,040		
256,438		
369,827		
367,453		
378,079		
406,082		
392,048		
634,747	360	34
498,301		
437,283		
406,024		
689,368		
697,048		
646,278	650	67
721,640		
661,280		

at ships, but those from Britain only. ed, to a gentleman connected with a brains be safely deposited upon. d from New South Wales and oration from the Cape of Good oil from our North American er, is mostly the product of the t additional experience has art of this branch of indus- try, from 1815 to 1834, both have fallen off about a half ous: the trade has since, n for several years past more seem to have predominated ure of the business, and the ould seem to be high time to being the duties on vegetable ntage to several of our most ute to promote the comm-2002

We believe, however, that the southern, as well as the northern, whale fishery has passed its zenith, and from the same cause—the decreasing supply of fish. The whales are gradually becoming scarcer and more difficult to catch. They have been entirely, or almost entirely, driven from some of their old haunts; and the fishery is now very frequently prosecuted in very high latitudes.—*Sup.*

[See *Sup.* article FISH. *Am. Ed.*]

WHARF, a sort of quay, constructed of wood or stone, on the margin of a roadstead or harbour, alongside of which ships or lighters are brought for the sake of being conveniently loaded or unloaded.

There are 2 denominations of wharfs, viz. *legal quays* and *suffrance wharfs*. The former are certain wharfs in all sea-ports, at which all goods are required by the 1 Eliz. c. 11. to be landed and shipped, and they were set out for that purpose by commission from the Court of Exchequer, in the reign of Charles II. and subsequent sovereigns. Many others have been legalized by act of parliament. In some ports, as Chepetow, Gloucester, &c., certain wharfs are deemed legal quays by immemorial practice, though not set out by commission, or legalized by act of parliament.

Suffrance wharfs are places where certain goods may be landed and shipped; such as hemp, flax, coal, and other bulky goods; by special suffrance granted by the Crown for that purpose.

WHARFAGE, the fee paid for landing goods on a wharf, or for shipping them off. The stat. 22 Chas. 2. c. 11., after providing for the establishment of wharfs and quays, makes it lawful for any person to lade or unlade goods, on paying wharfage and crauage at the rates appointed by the king in council.

WHEAT (Ger. *Weitzen*; Du. *Turw*; Da. *Hvede*; Sw. *Hvete*; Fr. *Froment*, *Bled*, *Blé*; It. *Grano*, *Formento*; Sp. and Port. *Trigo*; Rus. *Pscheniza*; Pol. *Pszeniça*), a species of bread corn (*Triticum* Lin.), by far the most important of any cultivated in Europe. We are totally ignorant of the country whence this valuable grain was first derived; but it was very early cultivated in Sicily. It is raised in almost every part of the temperate zones, and in some places as high as 2,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The kinds of wheat sown are numerous, but they may be classed under 4 heads: viz. cone or bearded wheat, which, however, is now little cultivated; white wheat, of which there are innumerable varieties, the *white Dantzic* being considered one of the best; red wheat, which is seldom sown where the climate is good and early, and the land in proper condition; and spring wheat. A greater number of people are nourished by rice than by wheat; but owing to the greater quantity of gluten which the latter contains, it makes by far the best bread. Rye comes nearer to wheat in its bread-making qualities than any other sort of grain; still, however, it is very inferior to it. The finest samples of wheat are small in the berry, thin skinned, fresh, plump, and bright, slipping readily through the fingers.

Being very extensively cultivated on soils of very various qualities, and frequently with very imperfect preparation, the produce of wheat crops in Great Britain varies from about 12 to 56 bushels per acre.

The counties most distinguished for the quantity and quality of their wheat are, Kent, Essex, Suffolk, Rutland, Hertfordshire, Berkshire, Hampshire, and Herefordshire, in England; and Berwickshire, and the Lothians, in Scotland. In the northern counties it is, speaking generally, of an inferior quality; being cold to the feel, dark coloured, thick skinned, and yielding comparatively little flour. In the best wheat counties, and in good years, the weight of a Winchester bushel of wheat is from 60 to 62 lbs. In the Isle of Sheppey, in Kent (where, perhaps, the best samples of wheat sent to the London market are produced), this grain, in some favourable seasons, weighs 64 lbs. a bushel. Where the climate is colder, wetter, or more backward, or in bad seasons, the weight of the bushel of wheat is not more than 56 or 57 lbs. It is calculated that the average weight of the bushel of good English wheat is 58½ lbs.; and that the average yield of flour is 13 lbs. of flour to 14 lbs. of grain.—(See Mr. Stevenson's very valuable article on *England in Brewster's Encyclopædia*, vol. viii. p. 720.; *Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*, &c.)

For a view of the regulations with respect to the importation and exportation of wheat, &c., see **CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE**. The price of wheat in 1833 was 52s. 11d. per quarter.

WHISKY, a spirit obtained by distillation from corn, sugar, or molasses, though generally from the former. Whisky is the *national spirit*, if we may so term it, of Scotland and Ireland; but that distilled in the former is generally reckoned superior to that of the latter.—See (**SPRITS**.)

WINE (Ger. *Wein*; Fr. *Vin*; It. and Sp. *Vino*; Port. *Vinho*; Rus. *Wino*, *Wino-gradnoe winoc*; Lat. *Vinum*; Gr. *Oinos*; Arab. *Khumr*), the fermented juice of the grape, or berries of the vine (*Vitis vinifera*).

The vine is indigenous to Persia and the Levant; but it is now found in most temperate regions. The limits within which it is cultivated in the northern hemisphere of the Old World vary from about 15° to 48° and 52°; but in North America it is not cultivated farther north than 38° or 40°. It is rarely grown at a greater altitude than 3,000 feet. From Asia the vino was introduced into Greece, and thence into Italy. The Phœceans, who founded Marseilles, carried the vine to the south of France; but it is doubtful whether it was introduced into Burgundy till the age of the Antonines.* The species of *Vitis* indigenous

* The ancient writers give the most contradictory accounts with respect to the introduction of the vine into Gaul.—(See the learned and excellent work of Le Grand d'Aussy, *Vie Privée des Français*, tome II. pp. 329—333.) The statement given above seems the most probable.

North America is very different from the *Vitis vinifera*. In favourable seasons, the vine ripens in the open air in England; and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, considerable quantities of inferior wine were made from native grapes. Vineyards are now, however, unknown in this country; but the grapes raised in hot-houses, and used in desserts, are excellent.

The vine grows in every sort of soil; but that which is light and gravelly seems best suited for the production of fine wines. It succeeds extremely well in volcanic countries. The best wines of Italy are produced in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius: the famous Tokay wine is also made in a volcanic district, as are several of the best French wines; many parts of the south of France bearing evident marks of extinct volcanoes. Hermitage is grown among the debris of granite rocks. The most favourable situation for a vineyard is upon a rising ground or hill facing the south-east, and the situation should not be too confined;

————— apertos
Bacchus amat colles.

The art of expressing and fermenting the juice of the grape appears to have been practised from the remotest antiquity. The sacred writings tell us that Noah planted a vineyard soon after the deluge—(*Gen. ix. 20.*); and a modern Latin poet ingeniously represents the vine as a gift from Heaven, to console mankind for the miseries entailed upon them by that grand catastrophe!

Omnia vastatis ergo quum cerneret arvis.
Desolata Deus, nobis felicia vini
Dona dedit; tristes heminum quo munere fovit
Reliquias, mundi solatus vite rubrum!

Vanierni Prod. Rusticum, lib. xi.

Species of Wine.—There are many varieties of vines; and this circumstance, combined with differences of soil, climate, mode of preparation, &c., occasions an extreme variety in the species of wine. But even between places immediately contiguous to each other, and where a cursory observer would hardly remark any difference, the qualities of the wines, though produced by the same species of grape, and treated in the same way, are often very different. A great deal evidently depends upon the aspect of the vineyard; and it is probable that a good deal depends on peculiarities of soil. But whatever may be the cause, it is certain that there are wines raised in a few limited districts, such as Tokay, Johannisberger, Constantia, the best Burgundy, Champagne, claret, &c., that no art or care has hitherto succeeded in producing of equal goodness in other places.

ANCIENT WINES.—The wines of Lesbos and Chios among the Greeks, and the Falernian and Cecuban among the Romans, have acquired an immortality of renown. Great uncertainty, however, prevails as to the nature of these wines. Dr. Henderson thinks that the most celebrated of them all, the Falernian, approached, in its most essential characters, near to Madeira. In preparing their wines, the ancients often inspissated them till they became of the consistence of honey, or even thicker. These were diluted with water previously to their being drunk; and, indeed, the habit of mixing wine with water seems to have prevailed much more in antiquity than in modern times.

MODERN WINES.—The principal wines made use of in this country are port, sherry, claret, Champagne, Madeira, hock, Marsala, Cape, &c.

Port,—the wine most commonly used in England,—is produced in the province of Upper Douro, in Portugal; and is shipped at Oporto, whence its name. When it arrives in this country, it is of a dark purple or inky colour; has a full, rough body, with an astringent bitter-sweet taste, and a strong flavour and odour of brandy. After it has remained some years longer in the wood, the sweetness, roughness, and astringency of the flavour abate; but it is only after it has been kept 10 or 15 years in bottle, that the odour of the brandy is completely subdued, and the genuine aroma of the wine developed. When kept to too great an age, it becomes tawny, and loses its peculiar flavour. During the process of melioration, a considerable portion of the extractive and colouring matter is precipitated on the sides of the vessels in the form of crust. In some wines this change occurs much earlier than in others.

A large quantity of brandy is always mixed with the wine shipped from Oporto for England. Genuine unmixed port wine is very rarely met with in this country. We have been so long accustomed to the compounded article, that, were it possible to procure it unmixed, it is doubtful whether it would be at all suited to our taste. According to Mr. Brande's analysis, on which, however, owing to the differences in the quality of the wine, no great stress can be laid, port, as used in England, contains about 23 per cent. of alcohol. In 1833, 2,598,550 gallons of port were retained for consumption in the United Kingdom.

Oporto Wine Company.—The quality of the wine shipped from Oporto has been materially injured by the monopoly so long enjoyed by the Oporto Wine Company. This company was founded in 1756, during the administration of the Marquis Pombal. A certain extent of territory is marked out by its charter as the only district on the Douro in which wine is to be raised for exportation; the entire and absolute disposal of the wines raised in this district is placed in the hands of the Company; who are further authorized to fix the prices to be paid for them to the cultivators, to prepare them for exportation, and to fix the price at which they shall be sold to foreigners! It is obvious that a company with such powers cannot be any thing else than an intolerable nuisance. What could be more arbitrary

and unjust than to interdict the export of all wines raised out of the limits of the Company's territory. But even in its own district, its proceedings have been most oppressive and injurious. The Company annually fix, by a fiat of their own, 2 rates of prices—one for the *vinho de feitoria*, or wine for exportation, and the other for *vinho de rama*, or wine for home consumption—at which the cultivators are to be paid, *whatever may be the quality of their wines!* They have, therefore, no motive to exert superior skill and industry; but content themselves with endeavouring to raise at the least possible expense, the greatest supply of *vinho de feitoria*, for which the Company allow the highest price. All emulation is thus effectually extinguished, and the proprietors who possess vineyards of a superior quality invariably adulterate their wines with inferior growths, so as to reduce them, to the average standard. "In this way," says Dr. Henderson "the finer products of the Douro vineyards have remained in a great measure unknown to us; and port wine has come to be considered as a *liquor*, if I may use the expression, of nearly uniform flavour and strength; varying, it is true, in a certain extent in quality, but still always approaching to a definite standard, and admitting of few degrees of excellence. The manipulations, the admixtures—in one word, the *adulterations*—to which the best wines of the Cinn do Douro are subjected, have much the same effect as if all the growths of Burgundy were to be mingled in one immense vat, and sent into the world as the only true Burgundian wine. The delicious produce of Romanée, Chambartin, and the Clos Vougeot, would disappear, and in their places we should find nothing better than a second-rate Beaune or Macon wine."—(*History of Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 210.)

Not only, however, have the Oporto Wine Company deteriorated the quality, but they have also raised the price of their wines to an enormous height. Secured against the competition of their countrymen, and enjoying, down to 1831, a nearly absolute monopoly of the British market, by means of the high duties on French wines, they have filled their pockets at our expense. At the very moment when the Company have been shipping wine for England at 40*l.* a pipe, they have frequently shipped the same wine to other countries at 20*l.*—(*Fleetwood Williams on the Wine Trade*.) And the authentic Tables published by Bulbi show that the price of wine has been trebled or quadrupled under the management of this corporation.—(*Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal*, tome 1. p. 157.)

But though the abuses inherent in the constitution of the Company have been carried of late years to an enormous extent, it is long since its injurious effects on the commerce of this country were distinctly perceived and pointed out. So far back as 1767, the Board of Trade laid a memorial before his Majesty in council, in which they state, "With respect to many particular regulations of the Oporto Company, which we think justly objected to by the merchants as highly grievous and oppressive, we have not thought it necessary to enter into a minute description of them, being of opinion that one general and fatal objection lies against them all; viz.—that they all contribute to establish in the Company a monopoly against your Majesty's subjects, from which by treaty they have a right to be exempted."

But notwithstanding this authoritative exposition of the injury done to the English by this monopoly, and the experience which every subsequent year afforded of its mischievous influence, such has been the inveteracy of ancient prejudice, that it was not till the session of 1831 that we took the only step by which we could hope to rid ourselves of its evils, as well as of a host of others, by equalising the duties on French and Portuguese wines, and putting an end to the absurd and injurious preference in favour of the latter established by the Methuen treaty.

England and Brazil are the only countries to which any considerable quantity of port wine is exported. Our imports amounted, at an average of the 10 years ending with 1833, to 22,121 pipes a year; of which, however, a portion is subsequently exported; while the exports from Portugal to all other countries, Brazil inclusive, have not recently amounted to 3,000 pipes. It has been supposed, now that there is no discriminating duty in favour of port, that its consumption in this country will gradually fall off, its place being filled by French and other wines; but though such a result be not improbable, it derives no confirmation from the pretty gradual decrease in the quantities of port retained for home use since 1827, the French wines retained for the same purpose having declined still more rapidly.

Sherry is of a deep amber colour; when good, it has a fine aromatic odour; its taste is warm, with some degree of the agreeable bitterness of the peach kernel. When new, it tastes harsh and fiery; it is mellowed by being allowed to remain 4 or 5 years or longer in the wood; but it does not attain to its full flavour and perfection until it is kept for 15 or 20 years. It is a very strong wine, containing about 19 per cent. of alcohol. It is principally produced in the vicinity of Xeres, not far from Cadiz, in Spain. It is very extensively used in this country as a dinner wine. Dry sherry, or *amontillado*, when genuine and old, fetches a very high price. Perhaps no wine is so much adulterated as sherry. With the exception of Marsala, the consumption of sherry has been far more influenced than that of any other wine by the reduction of the duties in 1825. In 1833, the quantity retained for home consumption amounted to 2,246,085 gallons, being more than double the quantity retained for consumption at an average of 1823 and 1824!—(See *post*.)

Claret.—the term generally used in England to designate the red wines, the produce of the Bordelais. Of these, Lafite, Latour, Château-Margaux, and Haut-Brion, are so generally esteemed, that they always sell from 20 to 25 per cent. higher than any others of the province. The first mentioned is the most choice and delicate, and is characterised by its silky softness on the palate, and its charming perfume, which partakes of the nature of the violet and the raspberry. The Latour has a fuller body, and at the same time a considerable aroma, but wants the softness of the Lafite. The Château-Margaux, on the other hand, is lighter, and possesses all the delicate qualities of the Lafite, except that it has not quite so high a flavour. The Haut-Brion, again, has more spirit and body than any of the preceding, but is rough when new, and requires to be kept 6 or 7 years in the wood; while the others become fit for bottling in much less time.

Among the second-rate wines, that of Rozan, in the parish of St. Margaux, approaches in some respects to the growth of the Château-Margaux; while that of Gorce, in the same territory is little inferior to the Latour; and the vineyards of Leoville, Larose, Bran-moulon, and Pichon-Longueville, in the canton of Pauillac, afford light wines of good flavour, which, in favourable years, have much of the excellence of the finer growths. In the Entre-deux-Mers, the wines of Canon and St. Emilion, in the vicinity of Libourne, are deemed the best, being of a full body and very durable. When new, these wines are always harsh and astrin-

gent; but they acquire an agreeable softness, and are characterised by a peculiar flavour, which has been not unsightly compared to the smell of burning wax. The aroma of the first growth is seldom fully developed till after they have been kept 8 or 9 years: but the secondary qualities come to perfection a year or two sooner. The colour often grows darker as the wine advances in age, in consequence of the deposition of a portion of its tartar; but, when well made, and thoroughly fined, it seldom deposits any crust.

(These particulars are borrowed from the excellent work of *Dr. Henderson, on Ancient and Modern Wines* (p. 184.). We have given, in a previous article—(see *BOURNEUX*),—full and authentic details as to the trade in claret. We beg, also, to refer the reader to that article for some observations on the wine trade of France, and on the injury done to it by the restrictive system of commerce.)

There is generally a very good supply of claret in bond in the docks in London. Its price varies from about 15*l.* per hogshead for the inferior, to 50*l.* and 55*l.* per hogshead for the superior growths. What are called cargo or shipping clarets may be bought at from 5*l.* to 10*l.* per hogshead. The finest case claret in bond at about 50*l.* per dozen; but parcels of very well flavoured wine may be bought at 25*l.*

Champagne,—so called from the province of France of which it is the produce,—is one of the most deservedly esteemed of the French wines. The wines of Champagne are divided into the 2 grand classes of white and red wines; and each of these again into still and sparkling; but there is a great variety in the flavour of the produce of different vineyards. Sillery is universally allowed to be the best of the still wines. It is dry, of a light amber colour, has a considerable body, and a charming aroma. "Le corps," (says M. Jullien,) "le spiritueux, le charmant bouquet, et les vertus toniques dont il est pourvu, lui assurent la priorité sur tous les autres."—(*Topographie de tous les Vignobles*, p. 30.) Dr. Henderson agrees with M. Jullien, in considering it as one of the wholesomest of the Champagne wines. The sparkling wines are, however, the most popular, at least in this country. Of these, the wine of Ay, 5 leagues south from Rheims, is, perhaps, the best. It is lighter and sweeter than Sillery, and has an exquisite flavour and aroma. That which merely creams on the surface (*demi-mousseux*) is preferred to the full frothing wine (*grand-mousseux*). Being bright, clear, and sparkling, it is as pleasing to the eye as it is grateful to the palate.

"Cernis micanti concolor ut vitro
Latic in auras, gemmeus aspicit,
Sclitillet exultum; utque dulces
Naribus illecebras propinat.

"Succi latentis proditor habitus:
Ut spinus motu lactea turbido
Crystallinum letis referre
Mox oculis properet nitorem."

Hautvillers, about 4 leagues from Rheims and 1 from Epernay, used formerly to produce wine that equalled, and sometimes surpassed, the wine of Ay. But it is no longer cultivated with the same care; so that, though still very good, it now only ranks in the 2d class.

The best of the red wines of Champagne are those of Verzy, Verzenay, Mailly, Bouzy, and St. Basle. "Ils ont une belle couleur, du corps, du spiritueux, et surtout beaucoup de finesse, de sève, et de bouquet."—(*Jullien*, p. 27.) The Clos St. Thierry, in the vicinity of Rheims, produces wine which, according to M. Jullien, unites the colour and the aroma of Burgundy to the lightness of Champagne.

The province of Champagne produces altogether about 1,100,000 hectolitres of wine; of which, however, the finest growths make but a small part. The principal trade in wine is carried on at Rheims, Avise, and Epernay. The vaults in which the vintages are stored are excavated in a rock of calcareous tufa to the depth of 30 or 40 feet. Those of M. Moët, at Epernay, are the most extensive, and few travellers pass through the place without going to see them. The briskest wines (*grands-mousseux*) keep the worst.—(*Jullien*, p. 34.)

Burgundy.—The best wines of this province, though not so popular in England as those of Champagne, enjoy the highest reputation. "In richness of flavour and perfume, and all the more delicate qualities of the juice of the grape, they unquestionably rank as the first in the world; and it was not without reason that the dukes of Burgundy, in former times, were designated as the *princes des bons vins*."—(*Henderson*, p. 161.) M. Jullien is not less decided:—"Les vins des premiers crus, lorsqu'ils proviennent d'une bonne année, renissent, dans de justes proportions, toutes les qualités qui constituent les vins parfaits; ils n'ont besoin d'aucun mélange, d'aucune préparation, pour attendre leur plus haut degré de perfection. Ces opérations, que l'on qualifie dans certains pays de *soins qui aident à la qualité*, sont toujours nuisibles aux vins de Bourgogne."—(p. 104.)

Romané-Conti, Chambertin, the Clos Vougeot, and Richebourg, are the most celebrated of the great wines of Burgundy. Chambertin was the favourite wine of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon. It is the produce of a vineyard of that name, situated 7 miles to the south of Dijon, and furnishing each year from 130 to 150 puncheons, from an extent of about 65 acres. It has a fuller body and colour, and greater durability, than the Romané, with an aroma nearly as fragrant.

The white wines of Burgundy are less numerous, and, consequently, less generally known, than the others; but they maintain the highest rank among French white wines, and are not inferior to the red, either in aroma or flavour.

The entire annual produce of wine in Burgundy and Beaujolais may at present be estimated, at an average, at nearly 3,000,000 hectolitres, of which about 750,000 suffice for the consumption of the inhabitants. Since the Revolution, the cultivation of the vine has been greatly extended in the province. Many of the new vineyards having necessarily been planted in comparatively unfavourable situations, a notion has been gaining ground that the wines of Burgundy were degenerating. This, however, is not the case. On the contrary, the quantity of *bons crus*, instead of being diminished, has increased considerably; though, as the supply of inferior wines has increased in a still greater degree, the fine wines bear a less proportion to the whole than they did previously to the Revolution.—(Jullien, p. 90.)

The principal trade in Burgundy is carried on at Dijon, Gavey, Châlons-sur-Saône, &c. Besides the above, France has a great variety of other excellent wines. Hermitage, Saunterne, St. Pôry, &c. are well known in England; and deservedly enjoy, particularly the first, a high degree of reputation.

Account of the Quantity and Value of the Wines exported from France in 1831; distinguishing between those of the Gironde and those of other Departments, and between those exported in Casks and Bottles; and specifying the Quantity and Value of those sent to each Country.—(Administration des Douanes for 1831, p. 219.)

Countries to which exported.	Wine in Casks.				Wine in Bottles.			
	Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.		Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Sweden	1,781,178	784,158	804,157	180,931	44,453	88,906	411,870	416,324
Norway	88,072	48,440	32,873	61,998	10,128	30,216	14,738	14,128
Denmark	239,249	126,087	58,109	11,622	1,126	2,952	5,147	5,147
Hanse Towns	808,236	300,812	595,139	118,884	8,752	17,504	7,881	7,881
Prussia	2,533,214	641,270	1,284,978	246,566	10,976	30,756	169,249	185,468
Holland	7,034,402	1,999,519	5,811,562	1,162,512	42,345	84,690	110,211	110,521
Belgium	1,781,574	1,199,023	5,641,811	728,268	7,586	15,172	14,752	14,752
Germany	642,885	324,941	176,068	34,914	1,027	2,054	24,281	24,281
Denmark	1,148,676	3,780,410	337,210	67,433	292,738	685,676	670,611	570,811
Portugal	221	73	4,171	834	114	223	160	166
Spain	13,900	4,587	431,571	86,314	23,210	46,420	13,386	13,386
Austria	-	-	33,012	6,602	50	100	18,838	18,838
Sardinia	4,032	1,331	6,233,656	1,247,131	67	1,194	38,330	38,330
The Two Sicilies	-	-	38,448	7,689	-	-	13,232	13,232
Tuscany, Modena, Parma, Roman States	-	-	406,404	81,281	-	-	24,930	24,930
Switzerland	-	-	7,013,678	1,402,736	-	-	31,217	31,217
Germany	-	-	1,688,974	175,715	-	-	277,382	277,382
Greece	-	-	196,466	39,280	-	-	1,790	1,790
Turkey	-	-	174,878	31,936	-	-	19,449	19,449
Egypt	-	-	536,788	127,319	-	-	19,378	19,378
Algeria	-	-	6,723,966	1,344,781	-	-	26,648	26,648
Barbary States	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,381	2,381
English possessions in Africa	765,047	2,214,616	869,325	117,865	72,680	145,322	2,425	2,425
(Other countries on the coast of Africa)	-	-	64,018	10,804	-	-	1,848	1,848
India, English possessions	45,684	18,576	6,875	1,175	3,072	667,404	1,634	1,634
Spanish do.	16,312	6,214	-	-	-	5,904	-	-
Dutch do.	-	-	25,666	5,127	-	-	2,614	2,614
French do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	283	283
China	-	-	-	-	-	-	285	285
United States	1,648,845	544,449	3,078,097	654,707	684,000	875,600	534,174	534,174
Haiti	303,426	67,131	291,369	58,303	7,045	14,190	7,692	7,692
English possessions in America	-	-	2,789	659	110	220	-	-
Spanish do.	618,091	203,714	763,815	176,763	57,718	106,766	14,979	14,979
Danish do.	195,748	64,597	246,914	53,391	16,004	32,188	8,010	8,010
Brazil	134,729	45,710	2,222,088	445,168	47,851	95,702	32,018	22,018
Mexico	85,510	28,318	41,088	8,208	23,018	47,036	7,463	7,463
Colombia	7,980	2,638	18,464	3,692	3,330	7,460	9,272	9,272
Peru	80,745	26,846	-	-	15,613	31,366	1,201	1,201
Chili	39,186	12,031	-	-	27,212	54,164	11,117	11,117
Rio de la Plata	196,084	63,666	175,040	25,188	17,697	34,184	10,212	10,212
Guadeloupe	619,297	201,375	2,491,518	419,907	41,811	81,242	10,212	10,212
Martinico	480,376	159,324	2,491,428	474,086	43,897	87,794	14,618	14,618
Quarion	753,175	246,207	1,542,935	301,587	47,514	95,108	15,262	15,262
Senegal	236,851	78,161	188,242	37,018	9,240	18,480	6,703	6,703
French Guiana	507,345	167,585	323,891	64,778	6,796	13,592	15,274	15,274
St. Pierre and Miquelon	-	-	30,617	7,932	-	-	169	169
Totals	36,131,116	11,438,849	50,769,137	10,153,827	1,840,052	3,761,816	2,558,162	2,558,162

Exclusive of the above, there were exported from France, in the same year, 2,753,199 litres of *cins de liqueurs*, valued at 4,130,250 francs.

The total produce of the vineyards of France is estimated at about 25,000,000 hectolitres (77,000,000 Imp. gallons), worth 510,000,000 francs (21,000,000*l.*). We beg to refer the reader to the article BODEAUX, for an account of the influence of the French system of commercial policy on this great department of industry.

Dispute as to the Comparative Merit of Champagne and Burgundy.—The question, whether the wines of Champagne or of Burgundy were entitled to the preference, was agitated during the reign of Louis XIV. with extraordinary keenness. The celebrated Charles Coffin, rector of the University of Bourdeaux, published, during this controversy, the classical ode, partly quoted above, in which Champagne is eulogised, and its superiority vindicated, with a spirit, vivacity, and delicacy worthy of the theme. The citizens of Burgundy were not ungrateful to the poet; but liberally rewarded him with an appropriate and magnificent donation of the wine he had so happily panegyriced. Grégoire wrote an ode in praise of Burgundy; but, unlike its subject, it was flat and insipid, and failed to procure any recompense to its author. The different pieces in this amusing controversy were collected and published in octavo, at Paris, in 1712.—(See *Le Grand d'Assy, Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 30., and the

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Wine in Bottles.		
From	Of other Countries.	
Value.	Quantity.	Value.
France.	Litres.	Francs.
86,862	41,334	410,911
20,236	14,934	141,314
9,252	5,147	5,147
17,564	7,881	7,881
107,742	189,110	189,110
34,680	116,211	116,211
1,772	14,752	14,752
56,876	58,281	58,281
223	160	160
46,420	13,366	13,366
150	18,819	18,819
1,194	36,330	36,330
	11,232	18,212
	24,950	24,950
	31,257	31,257
	277,552	277,552
	1,780	1,780
	19,549	19,549
	13,379	13,379
	28,819	28,819
	2,381	2,381
145,922	2,425	2,425
	1,818	1,818
667,474	1,634	1,634
5,884		
24,452	2,614	2,614
	285	285
	285	285
875,600	53,174	531,174
14,190	7,692	7,692
220		
106,769	14,939	14,939
32,188	8,670	8,670
65,792	92,019	92,019
479,636	7,403	7,403
7,460	8,272	8,272
31,366		
54,494	1,260	1,260
24,194	11,147	11,147
91,242	10,232	10,232
87,874	14,618	14,618
95,198	15,752	15,752
7,840	5,793	5,793
13,392	15,273	15,273
	109	109
3,761,916	2,558,162	2,558,162

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Biographie Universelle, tom. ix. art. *Coffin (Charles)*. Erasmus attributes the restoration of his health to his having drunk liberally of Burgundy; and has eulogized it in the most extravagant terms. An epistle of his, quoted by Le Grand d'Aussy, shows that Falstaff and he could have spent an evening together less disagreeably than might have been supposed:—"Le premier qui enseigne l'art de faire ce vin (Bourgogne), on qui en fit present, ne doit-il point passer plutôt pour nous avoir donné la vie que pour nous avoir gratifié d'une liqueur."—(*Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 9.)

Consumption of French Wine in England. Discriminating Duties.—Owing to the intimate connection subsisting between England and France for several centuries after the Conquest, the wines of the latter were long in almost exclusive possession of the English market; but the extension of commerce gradually led to the introduction of other species; and in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., the dry white wines of Spain seem to have been held in the highest estimation. This, however, was only a temporary preference. Subsequently to the Restoration, the wines of France regained their former ascendancy. In 1687, their importations amounted to 15,518, in 1688 to 14,218, and in 1689 to 11,106 tons. It is exceedingly doubtful whether so much as a single pipe of port had ever found its way to England previously to this period—(Henderson, p. 313.); and it is most probable that the wines of France would have continued to preserve their ascendancy in our markets, had not their importation been artificially checked.

The trade with France had occasionally been prohibited previously to the accession of William III.; but it was not until 1693 that any distinction was made between the duties payable on French and other wines. But Louis XIV. having espoused the cause of the exiled family of Stuart, the British government, in the irritation of the moment, and without reflecting that the blow aimed at the French would infallibly recoil upon themselves, imposed, at the period above-mentioned, a discriminating duty of 8*l.* a tun on French wines, and in 1697 increased to 33*l.* In consequence of this enormous augmentation of duty on French wines, the merchants began to import wine from Oporto as a substitute for the red wines of Bordeaux, excluded by the high duties. It is probable, however, that these discriminating duties would have been repealed as soon as the excitement which produced them had subsided, and that the trade would have returned to its old channels, had not the stipulations in the famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen, in 1703, given them permanence. Such, however, was un luckily the case; for, according to this treaty, we bound ourselves to charge in future one third higher duties on the wines of France than on those of Portugal; the Portuguese, by way of compensation, binding themselves to admit our woollens into their markets in preference to those of other countries, at a fixed and invariable rate of duty.

Though very generally regarded at the time as the highest effort of diplomatic skill and address, the Methuen treaty was certainly founded on the narrowest views of national interest, and has proved, in no common degree, injurious to both parties, but especially to England. By binding ourselves to receive Portuguese wines for two thirds of the duty payable on those of France, we, in effect, gave the Portuguese growers a monopoly of the British market, and thereby attracted too great a proportion of the deficient capital of Portugal to the production of wine; while, on the other hand, we not only excluded one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our commodities, and proclaimed to the world that we considered it better to deal with two millions of poor beggary customers, than with thirty millions of rich ones, but we also provoked the retaliation of the French, who forthwith excluded most of our articles from their markets!

The injurious effects of the regulations in the Methuen treaty were distinctly pointed out by Dr. Davanant and Mr. Hume. The latter, in his *Essay on the Balance of Trade*, published in 1752, says, "Our jealousy and hatred of France are without bounds. These passions have occasioned insuperable barriers and obstructions on commerce, where we are commonly accused of being the aggressors. But what have we gained by the bargain? We lost the French market for our woollen manufactures, and transferred the commerce of wine to Spain and Portugal, where we buy much worse liquor at a much higher price! There are few Englishmen who would not think their country absolutely ruined were French wine sold in England so cheap, and in such abundance, as to supplant ale and other home-brewed liquors. But, would we lay aside prejudice, it would not be difficult to prove that nothing could be more innocent; perhaps, more advantageous. Each new acre of vineyard planted in France, in order to supply England with wine, would make it requisite for the French to take an equivalent in English goods, by the sale of which we should be equally benefited."

In consequence of the preference so unwisely given to the wines of Portugal over those of France, a preference continued, in defiance of every principle of sound policy and common sense, down to 1831,—the imports of French wine were for many years reduced to a mere trifle; and notwithstanding their increased consumption, occasioned by the reduction of the duties in 1825, the quantity made use of in 1833 did not exceed 232,500 gallons; while the consumption of Portuguese wines amounts to about 2,600,000 Imperial gallons! This is the most striking example, perhaps, in the history of commerce, of the influence of customs duties in diverting trades into new channels, and altering the taste of a people. All but the most opulent classes having been compelled, for a long series of years, either to renounce wine, or to use port, the taste for the latter has been firmly rooted; the beverage that was originally forced upon us by necessity having become congenial from habit. We have little doubt, however, now that the discriminating duty in favour of port is abolished, that the excellence of the French wines will ultimately regain for them some portion of that favour in the English market they formerly enjoyed.*

Madeira,—so called from the island of that name,—is a wine that has long been in extensive use in this and other countries. Plants of the vine were conveyed from Crete to Madeira in 1421, and have succeeded extremely well. There is a considerable difference in the flavour and other qualities of the wines of Madeira: the best are produced on the south side of the island. Though naturally strong, they receive an addition of brandy when racked from the vessels in which they have been fermented, and another portion is thrown in previously to their exportation. This is said to be required to sustain the wine in the high temperature to which it is subjected in its passage to and from India and China, to which large quantities of it are sent; it being found that it is mellowed, and its flavour materially improved by the voyage. It does not, however, necessarily follow, that the wines which have made the longest voyages are always the best. Much must obviously depend on the original quality of the wine; and many of the parcels selected to be sent to India are so inferior, that the wine, when brought to London, does not rank so high as that which has been imported direct. But when the parcel sent out has been well chosen, it is very much

*The mischievous operation of the Methuen treaty, and of the discriminating duty on French wines, were very strikingly exhibited by Mr. Hyde Villiers, in his able speech on the 15th of June, 1830. It is highly deserving of the reader's attention.

matured and improved by the voyage; and it not only fetches a higher price, but is in all respects superior to the direct importations. Most of the adventitious spirit is dissipated in the course of the Indian voyage.

Madeira wines may be kept for a very long period. "Like the ancient vintages of the Surrentine hills, they are truly *firmissima vina*, retaining their qualities unimpaired in both extremes of climate, suffering no decay, and constantly improving as they advance in age. Indeed, they cannot be pronounced in condition until they have been kept for 10 years in the wood, and afterwards allowed to mellow nearly twice that time in bottle: and even then they will hardly have reached the utmost perfection of which they are susceptible. When of good quality, and matured as above described, they lose all their original harshness, and acquire that agreeable pungency, that bitter sweetness, which was so highly prized in the choicest wines of antiquity; uniting great strength and richness of flavour with an exceedingly fragrant and diffusible aroma. The nutty taste, which is often very marked, is not communicated, as some have imagined, by means of bitter almonds, but is inherent in the wine."—(Henderson, p. 253.)

The wines of Madeira have latterly fallen into disrepute in England. The growth of the island is very limited—not exceeding 20,000 pipes, of which a considerable quantity goes to the West Indies and America. Hence, when Madeira was a fashionable wine in England, every sort of deception was practised with respect to it, and large quantities of spurious trash were disposed of for the genuine vintage of the island. This naturally brought the wine into discredit; so that sherry has been for several years the fashionable white wine. It is difficult, however, to imagine that adulteration was ever practised to a greater extent upon Madeira than it is now practised upon sherry. The quantity entered for home consumption in 1827 amounted to 308,295 gallons, whereas the quantity entered for home consumption in 1833 only amounted to 161,042 gallons.

Malmsey, a very rich luscious species of the Madeira, is made from grapes grown on rocky grounds exposed to the full influence of the sun's rays, and allowed to remain on the vine till they are over-ripe.

The trade in Madeira wine is carried on at Funchal, the capital of the island, in lat. 32° 37' N., lon. 17° 6' W. *Weights and Measures* same as Lisbon.

Teneriffe wine,—so called from the island of that name,—resembles Madeira, and is not unfrequently substituted in its place; but it wants the full body and rich flavour of the best growths of Madeira.

German Wines.—The wines of Germany imported into England are principally produced on the banks of the Rhine and the Moselle. The Rhine wines constitute a distinct order by themselves. They are drier than the French white wines, and are characterised by a delicate flavour and aroma, called in the country *gäre*, which is quite peculiar to them, and of which it would, therefore, be in vain to attempt the description. A notion prevails that they are naturally acid; and the inferior kinds, no doubt, are so: but this is not the constant character of the Rhine wines, which in good years have no perceptible acidity in the taste, at least not more than is common to them with the growths of warmer regions. Their chief distinction is their extreme durability. The wines made in warm dry years are always in great demand, and fetch very high prices.

The *Johannisberger* stands at the head of the Rhine wines. It has a very choice flavour and perfume, and is characterised by an almost total want of acidity. The vineyard is the property of Prince Metternich. The *Steinberger* ranks next to the *Johannisberger*. It is the strongest of all the Rhenish wines, and in favourable years has much flavour and delicacy.

The produce of certain vineyards on the banks of the Moselle, is of superior quality. The better sorts are clear and dry, with a light pleasant flavour and high aroma; but they sometimes contract a stony taste, from the strata on which they grow. They arrive at maturity in 5 or 6 years; though when made in a favourable season, they will keep twice that time, without experiencing any deterioration.—(Henderson, p. 226.)

Tokay,—so called from a town in Hungary, near which it is produced,—is but little known in England. It is luscious, possessing at the same time a high degree of flavour and aroma. It is scarce and dear; and very apt to be counterfeited.

Marsala.—The Sicilian white wine called *Marsala*, from the town (the ancient Lilybecum) whence it is shipped, and near which it is made, is now pretty largely consumed in England; the entries for home consumption having increased from 79,686 gallons in 1823, to 312,993 in 1833; an extraordinary increase, particularly when it is considered that during the same period the consumption of most sorts of wine has been nearly stationary. *Marsala* is a dry wine; the best qualities closely resembling the lighter sorts of Madeira; but the increasing demand for it seems to be owing as much to its cheapness as to any peculiarity of quality. It is, however, an agreeable dinner wine. *Marsala* has been brought to its present state of perfection and repute by the care and exertions of 2 Englishmen, the Messrs. Woodhouse established in Sicily, who have an extensive factory in the neighbourhood of Marsala. The wine is shipped in large quantities for America; whence a considerable quantity is again

conveyed to the West Indies, where it is not unfrequently disposed of as real Madeira.

With the exception of Marsala, very little wine either of Sicily or Italy is imported into England. The wines of those countries are, indeed, without, perhaps, a single exception, very inferior to those of France. The natives bestow no care upon the culture of the vine; and their ignorance, obstinacy, and want of skill in the preparation of wine, are said to be almost incredible. In some districts, the art is, no doubt, better understood than in others; but had the Falernian, Cecuban, and other famous ancient wines, not been incomparably better than the best of those that are now produced, they never would have elicited the glowing panegyrics of Horace.

Wines of Greece and Cyprus.—The soil in most parts of Greece and the Grecian islands is admirably fitted for the growth of the vine; and, in antiquity, they produced some of the choicest wines. But the rapacity of the Turks, and the insecurity of person and property that has always prevailed under their miserable government, has effectually prevented the careful cultivation of the vine; and has occasioned, in many places, its total abandonment. It may, however, be fairly presumed, now that Greece has emancipated herself from the iron yoke of her oppressors, that the culture of the vine will attract some portion of that attention to which it is justly entitled; and that, at no distant period, wine will form an important article of export from Greece.

Nowhere, perhaps, has the destructive influence of Turkish barbarism and misgovernment been so apparent as in Candia and Cyprus. While these 2 renowned and noble islands were possessed by the Venetians, they supplied all Europe with the choicest dessert wines. Bacci affirms, that towards the end of the 16th century, Candia sent annually 200,000 casks of malmsey to the Adriatic; whereas at present it hardly produces sufficient to supply the wants of its few impoverished inhabitants.—(Henderson, p. 243.) The wines of Cyprus, particularly those produced from the vineyard called the Commandery, from its having belonged to the Knights of Malta, were still more highly esteemed than those of Crete. In the earlier part of last century, the total produce of the vintage of the island was supposed to amount to above 2,000,000 gallons, of which nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ was exported; but now, the wine grown and exported does not amount to 1-10th part of these quantities! The oppression of which they have been the victims, has reduced the peasantry to the extreme of indigence. The present population of the island is not supposed to exceed 60,000,—a number insufficient to have peopled one of its many ancient cities; and small as this number is, it is constantly diminishing by the inhabitants availing themselves of every opportunity of emigrating. Recently Cyprus has passed into the hands of Mohammed Ali; but unless the Pacha establishes a different government in it from what he has established in Egypt, the miserable inhabitants will gain nothing by the change.—(There is a brief but good account of Cyprus in *Kinneir's Travels in Asia Minor, &c.* pp. 176—197.)

Cape Wines.—Of the remaining wines imported into England, those of the Cape of Good Hope form the largest proportion; the quantity annually entered for home consumption being about 540,000 Imperial gallons. The famous Constantia wine is the produce of 2 contiguous farms of that name, at the base of Table Mountain, between 8 and 9 miles from Cape Town. The wine is very rich and luscious; though, according to Dr. Henderson, it yields, in point of flavour and aroma, to the muscadine wines of Languedoc and Roussillon. But, with this exception, most of the Cape wines brought to England have an earthy disagreeable taste, are often acid, want flavour and aroma, and are, in fact, altogether execrable. And yet this vile trash, being the produce of a British possession, enjoys peculiar advantages in our markets; for while the duty on Cape wine is only 2s. 9d. a gallon, that on all other wines is 5s. 6d. The consequences of this unjust preference are doubly mischievous: in the first place it forces the importation of an article of which little is directly consumed, but which is extensively employed as a convenient menstruum for adulterating and degrading sherry, Madeira, and other good wines; and, in the second place, it prevents the improvement of the wine; for, while the legislature thinks fit to give a bounty on the importation of so inferior an article, is it to be supposed that the colonists should exert themselves to produce any thing better? It is not easy to imagine a more preposterous and absurd regulation. The act enforcing it ought to be entitled, an act for the adulteration of wines in Great Britain, and for encouraging the growth of bad wine in the Cape colony!

Consumption of Wine in Great Britain. Duties.—We have repeatedly had occasion, in the course of this work, to call the reader's attention to the injurious operation of unequal and exorbitant duties. Perhaps, however, the trade in wine has suffered more from this cause than any other department of industry. We have already endeavoured to point out some of the effects resulting from the inequality of the duties, or from the preference so long given to the inferior wines of Portugal and Spain over the superior wines of France. But the exorbitance of the duties was, if possible, still more objectionable than the partial principle on which they were imposed. It appears from the subjoined Table, that during the 3 years ending with 1792, when the duty on French wines was 3s. 9d., and on Portuguese 2s. 6d. per wine gallon, the consumption in Great Britain amounted, on an average, to 7,110,917 gallons a year, producing about 900,000*l.* of revenue. It is probable, had the increase taken place gradually, that these duties might have been doubled without any material diminution of consumption. But in 1795 and 1796 they were raised to 8s. 6d. per gallon on French, and to 5s. 2d. per gallon on

Portuguese and Spanish wine; and the consequence of this sudden and inordinate increase, as exhibited in the Table, was, that the consumption fell from nearly 7,000,000 gallons in 1795, to 5,752,283 gallons in 1796, and to 3,970,901 in 1797! But this unanswerable demonstration of the ruinous effects of heavy and sudden additions to the duties did not prevent them being raised, in 1804, to 11s. 3d. on French, and to 7s. 6d. on Portuguese and Spanish wine. They continued at this rate till 1825; and such was their influence, that, notwithstanding the vast increase of wealth and population since 1790, and the general improvement in the style of living, the total consumption of wine, during the 35 years ending with 1824, amounted, at an average, to only 5,918,767 gallons a year; being no less than 2,162,180 gallons under the annual consumption of the 3 years ending with 1793! It may, therefore, be truly said, making allowance for the increase of population, that the consumption of wine in Great Britain fell off more than fifty per cent. between 1790 and 1824!

If Mr. Vansittart continued in power, it is difficult to say when this system might have terminated; but no sooner had Mr. Robinson (now Lord Ripon) become Chancellor of the Exchequer, than he resolved upon the effortful reduction of the wine duties. In pursuance of this wise determination, Mr. Robinson took, in 1825, nearly 50 per cent. from the previously existing duties; and notwithstanding the spirit duties were at the same time reduced in a still greater degree, the consumption of wine in Great Britain has been increased from little more than 4,150,000 to about 5,300,000 Imperial gallons, while the loss of revenue has been but inconsiderable. We are, therefore, justified in affirming that this measure has been very successful, and that it is a most valuable example of the superior productiveness of low duties.*

The duties, as reduced by Mr. Robinson, were 7s. 3d. per Imperial gallon on French wines, 4s. 10d. per do. on all other foreign wines, and 2s. 5d. on those of the Cape of Good Hope. They continued on this footing till the equalisation act (1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 30), which imposes a duty of 5s. 6d. per Imperial gallon on all foreign wines, and of 2s. 6d. on those of the Cape.

But the equalisation effected by this act might not have been brought about by adding any thing to the duties on port, sherry, &c., but exclusively by reducing those on French wines to their level. The subjoined Tables show that the consumption of wine in the United Kingdom was about stationary from 1820 to 1831; and the addition of 8d. a gallon, that was then made to the duties on all sorts of foreign wine except French, from which 1s. 9d. was deducted, appears to have sensibly affected the consumption of 1832. Considering, indeed, the increasing wealth and population of the British empire, and the more generally diffused use of wine, the small increase of the quantities retained for consumption is not a little surprising. A good deal is, we believe, ascribable to adulteration. It is certain, however, that the duties are still too high; but they are principally objectionable from the mode of their assessment. The trade will never be placed on a proper footing till the duty is imposed on an *ad valorem* principle. The imposition of the same duty on inferior and cheap wines, worth 10l. a hogshead, as on the choicest Burgundy and Champagne, worth 50l. or 60l. a hogshead, is an utterly unjust and absurd principle, that one is astonished it should be maintained for an instant. Its absurdity would not be exceeded, were the same duty charged on small beer that is charged on gin! The effect of this apparently equal, but really most unequal duty, is to exclude all low priced wines from the English markets; and to deprive the middle classes of the gratification derivable from their use. Commercially speaking, Bordeaux is much nearer London than Paris: and, but for this preposterous system, the cheap wines of the Gironde, Languedoc, and Provence might be bought here at a less price than in most parts of France. Were it necessary for the sake of revenue to continue the present system, it might be reluctantly submitted to; but it is abundantly certain, that a fairly assessed *ad valorem* duty would, by increasing the consumption of the middle classes, yield a much larger amount of revenue than is produced by the constant duty: and it is not to be endured, that the trade of the country should be deeply injured, and the enjoyments of the great bulk of the community materially impaired, for no purpose of public utility, but merely that injustice and absurdity may be prolonged! It is said, indeed, that the imposition of an *ad valorem* duty would lead to the commission of fraud; but we have been assured, by those intimate with the customs, that such precautions might easily be adopted as would prevent any danger on this head. And though it were otherwise—though a few thousand gallons of wine were admitted for home consumption at a somewhat lower duty than they ought to have paid—the injury would be of the most trivial kind, and would hardly, indeed, deserve a moment's attention. In the United States, most duties are imposed on an *ad valorem* principle; and it is not alleged that any real difficulty has to be encountered in their collection.

Consumption of Wine in Ireland. Duties.—In 1790, the duties on wine consumed in Ireland were considerably below the level of those imposed in Great Britain, and the average annual quantity of all sorts retained for home consumption in that country amounted to about 1,160,000 Imperial gallons, producing about 138,000*l.* a year of revenue. Had those to whom the government of Ireland was intrusted possessed the slightest knowledge of the merest elements of finance, or of the condition of the Irish people, they would not have attempted to add to the public revenue by augmenting the duties on wine. Owing to the limited number of the middle classes in Ireland, an increase of duty could not be expected to be productive; and though it has yielded 50,000*l.*, or even 100,000*l.* a year additional revenue, that would have been no compensation for the injury it was sure to do in checking the diffusion of that taste for the luxuria and enjoyments so essential to the improvement of the people. But those who had to administer the affairs of Ireland were insensible to such considerations; and never doubted that 2 and 2 make 4 in the arithmetic of the customs as well as in Cocker! Such, indeed, was their almost incredible rapacity, that in the interval between 1791 and 1814, they raised the duty on French wine from 33*l.* 7s. a tun to 144*l.* 7s. 6d.; and that on port from 22*l.* 4s. 8d. to 56*l.* 11s. This was a much more rapid increase than had taken place in England; and as the country was far less able to bear even the same increase, the consequences have been proportionally more mischievous. In 1815, the quantity of wine retained for home consumption in Ireland had declined, notwithstanding the population had been doubled, to 608,000 Imperial gallons, or to about half the quantity consumed in 1790; and in 1824, the consumption had fallen to 467,000 gallons, while the revenue only amounted to 185,000*l.*

It is unnecessary to make any commentary on such statements. But it is mortifying to reflect, that the legislature of a civilized country like Great Britain should have obstinately persevered in such a system for about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a century. We venture to affirm, that those who ransack the financial annals of Turkey and Spain, will find nothing in them evincing in every part greater rapacity, ignorance, and contempt for the public interest, than is displayed in the history of Irish taxation from 1790 to 1819.

The reduction of the duties in 1825 has nearly doubled the consumption of wine in Ireland, and has added considerably to the revenue. The duties are still, however, oppressively high as compared with the means of the population; and hence, notwithstanding the population of Ireland has more than doubled, and the wealth of the country been materially increased in the interval, the quantity of wine

* An article in the Edinburgh Review, No. 80., contributed to bring about this measure. See also an excellent tract on the *Wine Trade*, by Mr. Warre, published in 1821.

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ordinate increase, as shown in 1795, to 5,732,383 gallons of the ruinous effluvia, and, in 1804, to 11,514,000 at this rate till 1823; and population since 1790, wine, during the 3 years being no less than 9,162,180 may, therefore, be truly said to be in Great Britain full

retained for home consumption in 1700, exceeded that retained for the same purpose in 1832, by more than 350,000 Imperial gallons! The Irish are particularly attached to French wines; and supposing the duty were fixed on an *ad valorem* principle, so that it should be 3s. 6d. or 4s. a gallon on the finer wines, we have no doubt whatever that the consumption would be speedily doubled or trebled, not only in Ireland, but also in Britain. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of all Sorts of Wine retained for Consumption in IRELAND, during the Four Years ending with 1832, and of the Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Year.	Retained for Consumption.	Revenue.	Year.	Retained for Consumption.	Revenue.
1830	Imp. Gall. 757,381	£. 181,144	1831	Imp. Gall. 757,381	£. 179,218
1810	Imp. Gall. 797,874	£. 172,561	1832	Imp. Gall. 766,319	£. 196,169

Rates of duty same in Ireland as in Great Britain, since 1814.

Alteration of Wine.—We have already alluded to this practice. It was prosecuted to a very great extent previously to the reduction of the duties in 1825, and is still very far from being suppressed. It has been affirmed, but we are inclined to suspect the statement of exaggeration, that at this moment more than a third of all the sherry consumed in London is the produce of the *house pressers*! Indeed, wines are every day offered for sale at prices at which every one conversant with the trade knows they could not be afforded were they genuine. Mr. Fleetwood Williams has given, in his valuable pamphlet on the *Wine Trade* (1821), some curious details on this subject.

The imposition of the duties on an *ad valorem* principle, by allowing genuine wine to be sold at low prices, would not be an effectual stop to the practices of the adulterators. The increase of the duties in the reigns of William and Anne first gave birth to this discreditable fraternity—(see a curious account of Addison's, *Tracts*, No. 131.); and it will continue to flourish as long as the duties are imposed on their present footing.

The only security against being imposed upon, is to deal only with respectable houses; with those largely engaged in the trade; and to whom a reputation for selling good wine is of ten times more importance than any thing they could expect to make by adulteration.

Account of the Quantity of French and other Sorts of Wine retained for Home Consumption in GREAT BRITAIN from 1789 to 1832; specifying the Produce of the Duty, and the Rates of Duty thereon.

Year.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.			Rates of Duty.							Nett Revenue.					
	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.	French.	Malaga.	Port & other of Spain.	Rhenish.	Capa.	Other Sorts.	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.				
	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	£.	£.	£.				
1789	231,259	5,250,326	5,481,585	3	9	2 6 1 1	2 6 1 1	4 1	2 11 3 3	33	36,549	894,999	721,514			
1790	248,914	6,243,969	6,492,883	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	41,352	779,239	820,592			
1791	243,839	7,107,357	7,351,196	-	-	-	-	-	-	43	43,117	873,351	916,468			
1792	303,727	7,777,522	8,081,249	-	-	-	-	-	-	63	63,665	1,018,319	1,081,984			
1793	296,180	6,634,759	6,930,939	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	30,308	680,377	710,685			
1794	399,114	6,707,102	7,106,216	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	14,477	780,536	795,013			
1795	118,387	6,836,584	7,054,971	6	14	1 6 4	1 6 5	5	4 8 3 5	65	65,579	1,374,143	1,439,722			
1796	50,881	5,881,502	5,932,383	6	6	5 8 1 4	5 8 1 4	7 3	8 1 3 4 6 11	25	25,433	1,131,370	1,156,803			
1797	Excess of exports, 4,374 gals. 3,975,775			3,975,775			3,975,775			36,232			1,347,433	1,383,665		
1798	45,367	4,715,290	4,760,657	6	9	5 11	6 9 1 8	7 6 3 4	6 3 7 0 1 8	33	33,247	1,330,414	1,373,661			
1799	51,126	4,726,501	4,777,627	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	31,238	1,361,140	1,392,378			
1800	83,171	7,615,400	7,728,571	-	-	-	-	-	-	42	42,311	1,324,571	1,366,882			
1801	141,673	6,884,917	7,026,590	8	6	5 8 1 4	5 8 1 4	7 3	6 1 3 4 6 11	64	64,846	1,400,310	1,465,157			
1802	129,980	6,226,468	6,356,448	8	10	5 11 4 6	10 1 4	7 7 3 8	3 3 4 7 1	61	61,714	1,375,354	1,437,072			
1803	192,156	7,399,830	7,591,986	10	4	6 11 4 6	10 1 4	8 7 1 4	6 10 1 4	72	72,108	2,469,252	2,541,360			
1804	21,901	4,818,615	4,840,516	11	3	7 7 7 6	7 7 6 9	5 7 7 6	7 7 6	34	34,423	1,773,899	1,818,323			
1805	69,983	4,401,569	4,471,552	11	5	7 7 7 6	7 7 6 9	4 1 9 7 7	7 7 6	81	81,358	1,922,450	2,003,808			
1806	136,032	5,781,333	5,917,365	-	-	-	-	-	-	84	84,513	2,223,615	2,308,128			
1807	169,114	5,762,223	5,931,337	-	-	-	-	-	-	89	89,139	2,343,058	2,432,197			
1808	186,944	6,121,590	6,308,534	-	-	-	-	-	-	126	126,938	2,226,800	2,353,738			
1809	125,266	5,652,821	5,808,087	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			2,361,113			
1810	180,917	6,614,359	6,805,276	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			2,318,515			
1811	63,221	5,787,653	5,850,874	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			2,169,571			
1812	77,312	5,659,178	5,736,490	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1813	186,747	4,531,821	4,718,568	16	5	7 6	7 7	9 4 1 2	3 8 1 3 7 7	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			2,005,299			
1814	36,850	4,901,783	4,938,633	11	5	7 8	7 7	9 4 1 2	2 6 1 3 7 7	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			2,005,299			
1815	91,024	5,667,111	5,758,135	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1816	12,623	4,294,182	4,306,805	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1817	147,971	4,495,811	4,643,782	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1818	26,424	6,873,998	6,900,422	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1819	218,546	4,762,751	4,981,300	11	5	7 8	7 7	9 5	3 6 1 3 7 7	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1820	190,175	4,937,735	5,127,910	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1821	163,701	4,502,776	4,666,477	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1822	177,759	4,797,401	4,975,160	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1823	183,268	5,196,114	5,379,382	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1824	201,901	6,127,831	6,329,732	-	-	-	-	-	-	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
1825	184,016	6,121,979	6,305,995	6	0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	[The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.]			1,811,358			
											Allowances for stock in hand	-	3	1,021,544		
													794,009			
											Imp. Gall.	Imp. Gall.	Imp. Gall.	Per Imperial Gallon.		
1826	356,816	6,093,994	6,450,814	7	3	14 10	14 10	14 10	12 5 14 10	107,292	1,162,925	1,270,216				
1827	340,471	6,321,639	6,662,110							102,509	1,384,040	1,486,550				
1828	491,261	7,132,441	7,623,702							136,084	1,370,098	1,506,182				
1829	316,941	6,104,892	6,421,833							113,850	1,178,522	1,292,372				
1830	396,095	6,410,890	6,806,985							95,139	1,266,468	1,361,607				
1831	226,413	5,228,470	5,454,883	5	6	15 6	15 6	15 6	12 9 15 6	70,935	1,295,273	1,366,208				
1832	205,215	4,995,811	5,199,026							55,989	1,211,862	1,317,851				

at this measure. See also

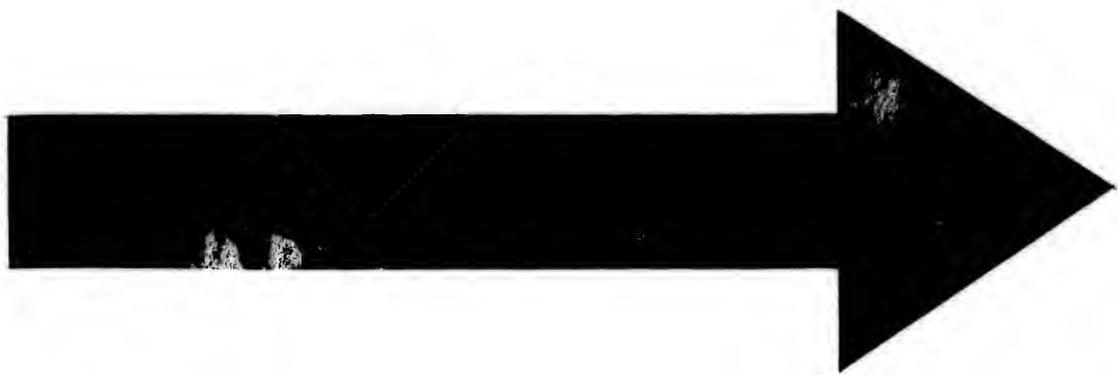
of wine in Ireland, and has very high in comparison with that of Ireland has more than doubled, the quantity of wine

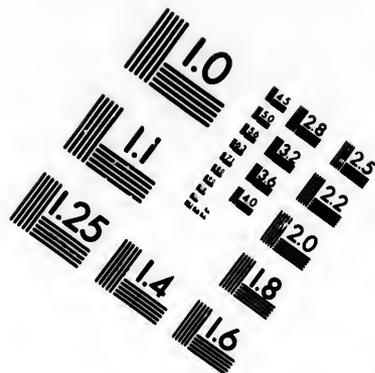
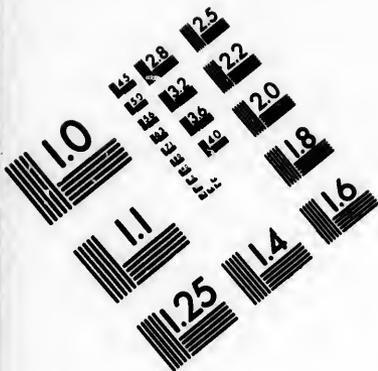
might have terminated; the Exchequer, than be this wise determination, duties; and notwithstanding the consumption of wine 2,200,000 Imperial gallons, justified in affirming that the of the superior produc-

on French wines, 4s. 10d. alone. They continued on duty of 5s. 6d. per Imperial about by adding any thing each wine to their level. dom was about stationary the duties on all sorts of have sensibly affected the of the British empire, the retained for consump- tation. It is certain, tionable from the mode of the duty is imposed on an p wine, worth 10s. a hogs- head, is so utterly subver- tent. Its absurdity would on gin! The effect of this damped! It is said, indeed, fraud; but we have been easily be adopted as would a few thousand gallons of they ought to have paid- erva a moment's attention.

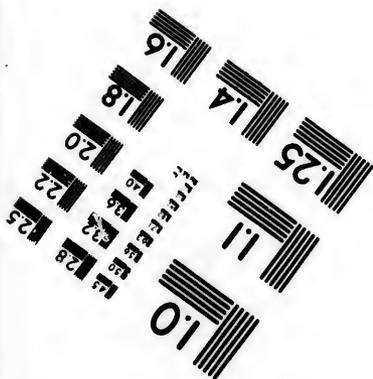
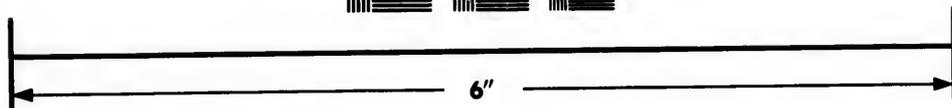
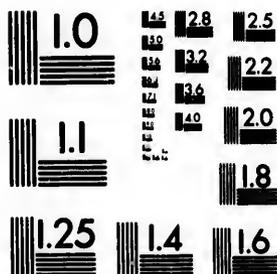
consumed in Ireland were average annual quantity of 1,160,000 Imperial gallons, government of Ireland was ce, or of the condition of e by augmenting the duties increase of duty could not 100,000l. a year additional e to do in checking the di- mprovement of the people, such considerations; and well as in Cocker! Such, 1791 and 1814, they raised port from 22l. 4s. 8d. to 95l. and; and as the country in proportionally mischiev- and had declined, now fit- to about half the quantity a, while the revenue only

is mortifying to reflect, that inately persevered in such nsnack the financial annals rater rapacity, ignorance, rish taxation from 1750 to





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
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(716) 872-4503

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3.6 3.2 2.8
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Account of the Quantities of Foreign Wines retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom distinguishing each Sort, during each of the 13 Years ended 5th January, 1836. (Imp. Meas.)

Years.	Cape.	French.	Portuguese.	Madeira.	Spanish.	Canary.	Rhenish.	Sicilian, &c.	Total.
1823	615,110	171,641	6,492,913	258,754	1,078,528	153,096	20,678	79,988	4,544,020
1824	596,299	197,447	6,512,243	297,478	1,217,084	117,428	28,978	77,068	5,050,091
1825	670,639	215,779	6,500,719	278,554	1,250,978	197,408	107,999	184,899	5,009,542
1826	630,436	243,707	6,553,888	288,273	1,082,540	159,445	69,984	160,311	4,954,453
1827	606,483	311,599	6,522,192	300,385	1,304,331	158,838	78,161	158,721	6,096,361
1828	654,296	431,488	6,507,021	272,977	1,097,688	187,548	88,805	118,537	7,162,578
1829	578,744	368,388	6,591,751	329,208	1,084,163	101,808	78,306	216,172	6,817,652
1830	515,235	308,394	6,508,038	317,138	1,011,422	101,968	68,383	259,513	6,454,445
1831	530,584	354,308	6,707,734	339,187	1,095,538	84,117	37,868	259,916	6,812,384
1832	514,268	328,317	6,717,405	159,893	1,060,099	78,808	38,197	254,351	6,907,770
1833	545,101	323,159	6,556,430	161,043	1,244,085				6,985,342
1834	524,111	380,630	6,760,308	180,289	1,278,633		other sorts not distinguished	485,308	6,450,544
1835	622,941	271,081	6,780,084	188,423	1,230,167	80,968	48,868	87,655	6,490,342

Account exhibiting the Quantities of the different Sorts of Wine imported into and exported from the United Kingdom in the Year ending the 5th of January, 1840; the Quantities of each Sort retained for Home Consumption; the Rates of Duty; and the Gross and Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Species of Wine.	Quantities		Rates of Duty.	Gross Amount of Revenue received thereon.	Nett Amount of Revenue received thereon.
	imported into the United Kingdom.	retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.			
Cape	Gallons. 723,740	Gallons. 3,160	Gallons. 5 6	£. 73,505	£. 73,505
French	508,280	191,425	5 6	109,500	104,118
Madeira	307,047	163,587			
Portuguese	6,872,308	238,255			
Spanish	4,183,763	999,770			
Rhenish	86,910	18,320	6,304,784	5 0	1,732,232
Canary	341,233	384,778			
Payal	308	308			
Sicilian and other Wines*	682,810	170,169			
Total	8,908,722	2,953,085	7,230,567	1,915,648	1,849,989

Price of Wine in London.—The following is an account of the price of wine in bond in London, in December, 1836.

	L. s.	d.	L. s.	d.		L. s.	d.	L. s.	d.
Port, 1st class, old	40	0	48	0	Myraia	12	0	15	0
2d and 3d, do.	30	0	38	0	Mountain	16	0	18	0
light and common	20	0	28	0	Claret, 1st growth	40	0	45	0
Sherry, 1st quality, high flavoured	50	0	60	0	2d and 3d	30	0	38	0
2d and 3d quality	38	0	45	0	cargo, and inferior qualities	5	0	10	0
4th and 5th do.	20	0	20	0	Burgundy, red	40	0	45	0
common, country	12	0	15	0	white	48	0	50	0
Madeira, East India, fine	38	0	45	0	Champagne	1	4	2	10
do., very fine	30	0	38	0	Sauternes, 1st and 2d quality	17	0	21	0
do., middling and common	20	0	28	0	3d and 4th do.	10	0	12	0
West India, 1st quality	50	0	60	0	Harmilings, 3d do.	30	0	35	0
2d and 3d do.	25	0	40	0	3d do.	20	0	25	0
direct London particular	45	0	55	0	Moselle	18	0	20	0
3d quality	10	0	15	0	Hook	20	0	25	0
inferior	17	0	25	0	Cape Madeira, best	60	0	18	0
Theophile, best 2d	30	0	34	0	2d and 3d quality	18	0	14	0
cargo	2	0	14	0	common	10	0	11	0
Lisbon	22	0	24	0	Spanish, red	12	0	14	0
Sicilian	20	0	32	0	Sicilian	9	0	10	0

Measures.—According to the system of wine measures that prevailed down to 1826, the gallon contained 231 cubic inches; the tierce, 42 gallons; the puncheon, 54 gallons; the hoghead, 63 gallons; the pipe or butt, 126 gallons; and the tun, 252 gallons. But in the new system of measures introduced by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 74, the Imperial standard gallon contains 277.274 cubic inches; so that the tierce = 33 (very nearly) Imperial gallons; the puncheon = 70 (very nearly) do.; the hoghead = 52 (very nearly) do.; the pipe or butt = 105 (very nearly) do.; and the tun = 310 (very nearly) do.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

A very great quantity of wine is sold to the consumer in dozens; and much more, indeed, than is sold in any other way; and yet there is no regulation as to the size of bottles, a defect which has occasioned a great deal of abuse. No one doubts the propriety of making all gallons, bushels, &c. of the same capacity; and why should not similar regulations be enforced in the case of measures so universally used as bottles?

Wine the produce of Europe may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which the wine is the produce, or of the country from which it is imported, on forfeiture thereof, and 100l. by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54.)

No abatement of duties made on account of any damage received by wine.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52.)

Wine from the Cape must be accompanied by a certificate of its production.—(See ante, p. 8.)

Wine exported to foreign parts, from the bonded warehouses, must be shipped in vessels of not less than 70 tons burthen.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57.)

Wine for Officers of Navy.—For the quantity of duty-free wine to be allowed to officers of the navy, and the regulations under which it is to be allowed, see ante, p. 15.

Regulations as to mixing, bottling, &c. in Warehouses.—1. Wines, when deposited in warehouses of special security, or in warehouses situated near the places of landing and shipping, and declared in the order of approval to be substantially built, and capable of affording general accommodation to the trade, may be allowed to be fitted up, lined, and racked, as often as the owners may deem necessary, the lees to be destroyed without payment of duty, the quantities destroyed being correctly ascertained for the purpose of being eventually deducted from the official accounts.

2. Bonded brandy may be allowed to be added to wine in the bonded stores for its preservation or improvement, and the whole to pay duty as wine upon being taken out for home consumption, provided the whole quantity of brandy contained in the wine, at the time of entry for home consumption,

*The other sorts are quite trifling, and do not deserve notice.

in the UNITED KINGDOM
1836. (Imp. Meas.)

Stellian, &c.	Total.
<i>Galls.</i>	<i>Galls.</i>
79,896	4,845,090
77,065	8,000,091
154,959	8,009,542
140,318	6,058,448
158,721	6,926,361
116,627	7,164,376
616,172	6,517,932
252,513	6,544,445
259,916	6,319,284
254,251	5,993,542
196,572	6,207,770
185,308	6,190,544
1 87,455	6,420,543

to and exported from the
tion of each Sort retained
value accruing thereon.

Amount of Revenue received thereon.	Net Amount of Revenue received thereon.
£ 73,698	£ 73,502
109,830	104,112
732,252	1,672,375
976,548	1,849,989

ine in bond in London, in

	L.	s.	d.
per pipe	12	0	15
per bid.	40	0	45
per doz.	30	0	38
per pipe	5	0	10
per doz.	40	0	45
per pipe	49	0	50
per doz.	1	4	—
per pipe	17	0	34
per doz.	10	0	16
per pipe	30	0	35
per doz.	17	0	16
per sam.	18	0	20
per pipe	20	0	30
per doz.	50	0	—
per pipe	12	0	14
per doz.	10	0	11
per pipe	12	0	14
per doz.	3	0	10

wn to 1826, the gallon com-
the hogshead, 63 gallons;
am of measures introduced
e inches; so that the tierce
the hogshead = 52½ (very
0 (very nearly) do.—(See

more, indeed, than is sold
a defect which has occa-
allons, bushels, &c. of the
case of measures so un-

except in British ships, or
from which it is imported,
54.)

—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52.)
om.—(See *anté*, p. 3.)

ipped in vessels of not less
ved to officers of the navy,

positied in warehouses of
shipping, and declared in
eral accommodation to the
era may deem necessary,
being correctly ascertained

era for its preservation at
er home consumption, pro-
try for home consumption,

notice.

do not exceed 30 per cent., and that a proper sample for the purpose of ascertaining the strength be allowed to be taken out by the proper officers.

3. Wines may be allowed to be mixed with wines of the same description as often as necessary for their preservation or improvement; provided that wine so mixed be kept separate from other wine, and that the packages containing the same be branded as mixed wine, and the brand or other marks of the original shipper be affixed.—(*Treasury Order*, 30th of May, 1830.)

Wine may be bottled for exportation in a bonded vault appropriated for the purpose, upon giving 24 hours' notice; but no foreign bottles, corks, or packages may be used, except those in which the wine may have been imported and warehoused, unless the full duties shall have been paid on the same; and not less than 3 dozen reputed quart, or 6 dozen reputed pint bottles, shall be exported in each package; and if any surplus or sediment remain, it is to be immediately destroyed in the presence of the officer, or the full duties paid upon it.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57., and *Customs Act*, 31st of Dec. 1828.)

The brands or marks on the casks into which wines or spirits may be racked at the bonded warehouses are to be effaced, and no other brand or mark to be retained thereon than those which were on the casks when originally imported.—(*Treasury Order*, 30th of June, 1830.)

(The Oporto Wine Company, described *anté*, p. 741., abolished by a decree dated Lisbon, 30th of May, 1834, has been re-established by the following decree, dated April 7, 1838:—

"1. Dona Maria, by the grace of God Queen of Portugal, &c. do hereby make it known to all my subjects, that the general, extraordinary, and constitutional Cortes have decreed, and I have sanctioned, the following law:—

"Art. 1. The General Company for the culture of the vines in Upper Douro, suppressed by the law of the 30th of May, 1834, is again established for the period of twenty years. This company will, however, merely have the right of proving and lotting the wines of Upper Douro, marking the casks, and issuing transit permits, according to the laws of May 17 and December 20, 1824, modified by the resolutions of December 8, 1834, and November 14, 1836, by which the mode of proving the wines was prescribed.

"Art. 2. Such wines only as shall have been approved of and furnished with a permit by the company, will be allowed to be exported over the bar of Oporto.

"The wine at present in store at Oporto, Villa Nova de Gaia, and in the Douro, shall be manifested immediately after the publication of the law; and, if previously qualified, may be exported over the bar of Oporto, either with or without a permit.

"Art. 3. As a compensation for the expenses to which the company will be put in proving and lotting the wines, branding casks, and issuing permits, they shall be entitled to levy 400 reis upon each pipe of wine receiving a permit. This sum of 400 reis shall be deducted from the amount of duties payable for consumption or exportation; and the company shall be obliged to render an annual account of the receipts and expenses to government, and to hand over the balance if there should be any.

"Art. 4. The company may promote the augmentation of its stock by means of shares, for which purpose the necessary authorisation is to be applied for to government, in whom the company shall also propose whatever else may be necessary for the execution of the law.

"Art. 5. All legislation to the contrary is hereby revoked.

"THE QUEEN.

"ANTONIO FERNANDES COLLO.

"Palace of Newitadon, April 7, 1838."

Wine, Survey of Permits, &c.—The 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 39, exempts the dealers in and retailers of wine, not being dealers in or retailers of spirits, from the obligation to allow their premises to be entered and their stocks and premises to be surveyed by the officers. It also enacts that a permit shall no longer be necessary for the removal of wine. Licences may be granted by the commissioners of excise to sell wine in theatres, &c.—(See *sup*.)

WOAD (Ger. *Waid*; Du. *Weede*; Fr. *Pastel*, *Guède*, *Youède*; It. *Guadone*, *Guado*, *Glastro*; Sp. *Pastel*, *Glasto*), the *Isatis tinctoria* of botanists, a biennial plant, with a fusiform fibrous root, and smooth branchy stem, rising from 3 to 5 feet in height. Woad is indigenous to most parts of Europe; and was extensively used from a very remote period, down to the general introduction of indigo, in the dyeing of blue. It is still cultivated to a considerable extent in France; but in this country its cultivation is chiefly restricted to a few districts in Lincolnshire. After being bruised by machinery, to express the watery part, it is formed into balls, which ferment and fall into a dry powder, which is sold to the dyer. Woad is now seldom employed without a mixture of indigo. By itself, it is incapable of giving a bright and deep blue colour; but the colour which it does give is very durable. The best methods of conducting the fermentation and preparation of woad are still so very ill understood, that the goodness of any parcel of it can never be ascertained till it be actually used; so that it has the disadvantage of being purchased under the greatest uncertainty as to its true value. At the proper age, indigo plants yield about 30 times as much colouring matter, and of a far superior quality, as an equal weight of woad; so that there is no prospect that any improvement that may be made in its preparation will ever render it, either in goodness or cheapness, a rival of the former.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Baneroff on Colours*, vol. i. p. 187.) We have previously—(see *Iranio*)—given some account of the efforts made by the woad growers to prevent the use of indigo.

WOOL. See *ТІННІА*.

WOOL (Ger. *Wolle*; Du. *Wol*; Da. *Uld*; Sw. *Ull*; Fr. *Laine*; It. and Sp. *Lana*; Port. *Lã*, *Lãa*; Rus. *Wolna*, *Scherst*; Pol. *Wolna*; Lat. *Lana*), a kind of soft hair or down. The term is not very well defined. It is applied both to the fine hair of animals, as sheep, rabbits, some species of goats, the vicuna, &c.; and to fine vegetable fibres, as cotton. In this article, however, we refer only to the wool of sheep,—an article which has continued, from the earliest period down to the present day, to be of primary importance,—having always formed the principal part of the clothing of mankind in most temperate regions.

Species of Wool.—It has been customary in this country to divide wool into 2 great classes—long and short wools; and these again into subordinate classes, according to the fineness of the fibre.

Short wool is used in the cloth manufacture; and is, therefore, frequently called clothing wool. It may vary in length from 1 to 3 or 4 inches: if it be longer, it requires to be cut or broken to prepare it for the manufacture.

The *felting* property of wool is known to every one. The process of hat making, for example, depends entirely upon it. The wool of which hats are made is neither spun nor woven; but locks of it, being thoroughly intermixed and compressed in warm water, cohere and form a solid tenacious substance.

Cloth and woollen goods are made from wool possessing this property; the wool is carded, spun, woven, and then being put into the fulling mill, the process of felting takes place. The strokes of the mill make the fibres cohere; the piece subjected to the operation contracts in length and breadth, and its texture becomes more compact and uniform. This process is essential to the beauty and strength of woollen cloth. But the long wool of which stuffs and worsted goods are made is deprived of its felting properties. This is done by passing the wool through heated iron combs, which takes away the lamina or feathery part of the wool, and approximates it to the nature of silk or cotton.

Long or combing wool may vary in length from 3 to 8 inches. The shorter combing wools are principally used for hose, and are spun softer than the long combing wools; the former being made into which is called hard, and the latter into soft worsted yarn.

The fineness of the hair or fibre can rarely be estimated, at least for any useful purpose, except by the wool sorter or dealer, accustomed by long habit to discern those minute differences that are quite inappreciable by common observers. In sorting wools, there are frequently 8 or 10 different species in a single fleece; and if the best wool of one fleece be not equal to the finest sort, it is thrown to a 2d, 3d, or 4th, or to a still lower sort, of an equal degree of fineness with it. The best English short native fleeces, such as the fine Norfolk and Southdown, are generally divided by the wool sorter into the following sorts, all varying in fineness from each other—viz. 1. Prime; 2. Choice; 3. Super; 4. Head; 5. Down-rights; 6. Seconds; 7. Fine Abb; 8. Coarse Abb; 9. Livery; 10. Short coarse or breech wool. The relative value of each varies, according to the greater demand for coarse, fine, or middle cloths.

The softness of the fibre is a quality of great importance. It is not dependent on the fineness of the fibre; and consists of a peculiar feel, approaching to that of silk or down. The difference in the value of 2 pieces of cloth made of 2 kinds of wool equally fine, but one distinguished for its softness and the other for the opposite quality, is such, that, with the same process and expense of manufacture, the one will be worth from 20 to 25 per cent. more than the other. Mr. Bakewell showed that the degree of softness depends principally on the nature of the soil on which sheep are fed; that sheep pastured on chalk districts, or light calcareous soils, usually produce hard wool; while the wool of those that are pastured on rich, loamy, argillaceous soils, is always distinguished by its softness. Of the foreign wools, the Saxon is generally softer than the Spanish. Hard wools are all defective in their *felting* properties.

In clothing wool, the colour of the fleece should always approach as much as possible to the purest white; because such wool is not only necessary for cloths dressed white, but for all cloths that are to be dyed bright colours, for which a clear white ground is required to give a due degree of richness and lustre. Some of the English fine woolled sheep, as the Norfolk and Southdown, have black or gray faces and legs. In all such sheep there is a tendency to grow gray wool on some part of the body, or to produce some gray fibres intermixed with the fleece, which renders the wool unfit for many kinds of white goods; for though the black hairs may be too few and minute to be detected by the wool sorter, yet when the cloth is stoved they become visible, forming reddish spots, by which its colour is much injured. The Herefordshire sheep, which have white faces, are entirely free from this defect, and yield a fleece without any admixture of gray hairs.

The cleanness of the wool is an important consideration. The Spanish wool, for example, is always scoured after it is shorn; whereas the English wool is only imperfectly washed on the sheep previously to its being shorn. In consequence, it is said that while a pack of English clothing wool of 240 lbs. weight will waste about 70 lbs. in the manufacture, the same quantity of Spanish will not waste more than 48 lbs. Cleanness, therefore, is an object of much importance to the buyer.

Before the recent improvements in the spinning of . . . by machinery, great length and strength of staple was considered indispensable in most combing wools. The fleeces of the long woolled sheep fed in the rich marshes of Kent and Lincoln used to be reckoned peculiarly suitable for the purposes of the wool-comber; but the improvements alluded to have effected a very great change in this respect; and have enabled the manufacturer to substitute short wool of 3 inches staple, in the place of long combing wool, in the preparation of most worsted articles. A great alteration has, in consequence, taken place in the proportion of long to short wool since 1800; there having been in the interim, according to Mr. Hubbard's calculations—(see *post*)—an increase of 132,053 packs in the quantity of the former produced in England, and a decrease of 72,820 in the quantity of the latter.

Whiteness of fleece is of less importance in the long combing than in clothing wool, provided it be free from gray hairs. Sometimes, however, the fleece has a dingy brown colour, called a *winter stain*, which is a sure indication that the wool is not in a thoroughly sound state. Such fleeces are carefully thrown out by the wool sorter; being suitable only for goods that are to be dyed black. The fineness of heavy combing wool is not of so much consequence as its other qualities.

The Merino or Spanish breed of sheep was introduced into this country about the close

of last century. George III. was a great patron of this breed, which was for several years a very great favourite. But it has been ascertained that, though the fleece does not much degenerate here, the carcase, which is naturally ill formed, and affords comparatively little weight of meat, does not improve; and as the farmer, in the kind of sheep which he keeps, must look not only to the produce of wool, but also to the butcher market, he has found it his interest rather to return to the native breeds of his own country, and to give up the Spanish sheep. They have, however, been of considerable service to the flocks of England; having been judiciously crossed with the Southdown, Ryeland, &c.

Deterioration of British Wool.—It appears to be sufficiently established, by the evidence taken before the House of Lords in 1828, and other authorities, that a considerable deterioration has taken place in the quality of British wool, particularly during the last 30 years. The great object of the agriculturist has been to increase the weight of the carcase and the quality of the wool; and it seems very difficult, if not quite impossible, to accomplish this without injuring the fineness of the fleece. Mr. Cully says, that the Herefordshire sheep that produce the finest wool are kept lean, and yield 1½ lb. each; he adds, "if they be better kept, they grow large and produce more wool, but of an inferior quality." This would seem to be universally true. The great extension of the turnip husbandry, and the general introduction of a larger breed of sheep, appears, in every instance, to have loosened the value of the fleeces. Speaking of the Norfolk fleeces, Mr. Fison, a wool sorter, says, that 25 years ago the weight was 2½ lbs. a fleece, and that now it is 3 lbs. or 2½ lbs.—(*Report*, p. 356.) But according to a Table furnished by the same gentleman, containing the results of his experience, it appears that of 15 tods, or 420 lbs. of clothing wool grown in Norfolk, in 1790, 200 lbs. were *prime*, while, in 1828, the same quantity of Norfolk wool only yielded 14 lbs. *prime*!—(*Ibid.* p. 207.) The statements of other witnesses are to the same effect.—(*Ibid.* pp. 338, 640, and 644.) According to the estimate in Mr. Luccock's *Treatise on English Wool*, which has always enjoyed the highest reputation, the produce of all sorts of wool in England, in 1800, was 384,000 packs, of 240 lbs. a pack. But Mr. Hubbard, a very intelligent and extensive wool-stapler at Leeds, has shown, that, supposing Mr. Luccock's estimate of the number of sheep to be correct, the quantity of wool now produced cannot, owing to the greater weight of the fleece, be estimated at less than 463,169 packs; being an increase of 20 per cent. ! It is, therefore, probable, notwithstanding the decline in the price of wool, that, taking into account the greater weight of the carcase, and the greater weight of the fleeces, sheep produce more at present to the farmer than at any former period.

Number of Sheep in Great Britain.—It is not possible to form any accurate estimate, either of the number of sheep, or of the quantity of wool annually produced. With the exception of Mr. Luccock's, most of the statements put forth with respect to both these points seem much exaggerated. But Mr. L.'s estimate, which is considerably under any that had previously appeared, was drawn up with great care; and is supposed to approach near to accuracy. According to Mr. Luccock, the

Number of long woolled sheep in England and Wales in 1800, was	4,153,308	
of short woolled ditto	14,854,399	
Total number shorn		19,007,607
Slaughter of short woolled sheep per annum	4,221,748	
Carrion of ditto	211,087	
Slaughter of long woolled ditto	1,180,413	
Carrion of ditto	59,020	
Slaughter of lambs	1,400,560	
Carrion of ditto	70,093	
		7,140,856
Total number of sheep and lambs	26,148,463	

In some parts of England there has been an increase in the number of sheep since 1800, and in others they have decreased. But we have been assured by competent judges, that, on the whole, the number has not materially varied in the interim.

During the last half century a very decided increase has taken place in the number of sheep in Scotland, and a very great improvement in the breed, particularly in the Highlands. In this district, many of the proprietors have let their estates in large farms to *store farmers*, who have introduced the Cheviot breed of sheep, in the place of the small black-faced heath breed that was formerly the only one to be met with. We may remark, by the way, that a good deal of unmerited odium has attached to the patrons of this system; for, though it be true that, in a few instances, the peasantry were rudely ejected from their little possessions, there can be no doubt that it has, on the whole, been decidedly advantageous. Besides rendering large tracts of country more valuable to the proprietors and the public generally, the condition and habits of the peasantry have been materially improved. Instead of loitering away more than half their time, as was their former practice, they have now either become the servants of the large farmers, or have resorted to towns and villages, and been metamorphosed into industrious tradesmen, fishermen, &c. A very small proportion of the whole has emigrated; and the country is more populous at present than before the sheep farming system began.

In the *General Report of Scotland* (vol. iii. Appen. p. 6.), the number of sheep is estimated at 2,850,000; and allowing for the increase that has taken place since 1814, we may, perhaps, estimate the total number of sheep in that part of the empire at this moment at 3,500,000.

According to Mr. Wakefield, there is not a single flock of breeding sheep in the whole province of Ulster.—(*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 341.) And though there be considerable flocks in Roscommon and other counties, we believe that, if we estimate the whole number of sheep in Ireland at 2,000,000, we shall be a good deal beyond the mark.

On the whole, therefore, if we are right in these estimates, the total number of sheep in Great Britain and Ireland may be taken at about 32,000,000. This estimate is 10,000,000 under that given by Dr. Colquhoun for 1812; but that learned person assigns no grounds whatever for his estimate, which is utterly inconsistent with all the really authentic information on the subject. It is curious enough to observe the German statistical writers referring to Dr. Colquhoun's statements, as if they were of standard authority. They would be about as near the mark, were they to quote the "Arabian Nights" in proof of any disputed historical fact.

British Trade in Wool.—From 1660 down to 1825, the export of wool was strictly prohibited. A notion grew up towards the end of the 17th, and continued to gain ground during the first half of last century, that the wool of England was superior to that of every other country; that long wool could not be produced anywhere else; and that, if we succeeded in keeping the raw material at home, we should infallibly command the market of the world for our woollen manufactures. In consequence, innumerable statutes were passed,—the enactments in some of which were the most arbitrary and severe that can be imagined,—to prevent the clandestine exportation of wool. Mr. John Smith was one of the first who, in his excellent work, entitled *Memoirs of Wool*,* exposed the injustice and absurdity of this system, by proving that whatever advantages the manufacturers might gain by preventing the exportation of wool, were more than lost by the agriculturists. But in despite of Mr. Smith's reasonings, which were enforced by many later writers, and which experience had proved to be in all respects accurate, the prohibition of the exportation of wool was continued till 1825, when Mr. Huskisson happily succeeded in procuring the abolition of this miserable remnant of a barbarous policy. The improvement of machinery, by enabling short or clothing wool to be applied to most of those purposes for which long or combing wool had been exclusively appropriated, had annihilated the only apparently tenable argument on which the prohibition of exportation had ever been vindicated; and even this, it will be observed, applied only to a small proportion of the whole wool produced in England.

Down to 1802, the importation of foreign wool into Great Britain had been quite free; and, being the raw material of an important manufacture, the policy of allowing it to be imported free of duty is obvious. In 1803, however, a duty of 5s. 3d. a cwt. was laid on all foreign wool imported. In 1813, this duty was raised to 6s. 8d.; and in 1819, Mr. Vansittart raised it to the enormous amount of 56s. a cwt., or to 6d. per lb.! Had English wool sufficed for all the purposes of the manufacture, such a duty would have been less objectionable; but the very reverse was the case. The use of foreign wool had become, owing to the deterioration of British wool, and other circumstances, quite indispensable to the prosecution of the manufacture: and as our superiority over the foreigner in several departments of the trade was by no means decided, it is plain that the imposition of a duty which amounted to about 50 per cent. upon the price of a considerable quantity of the wool we were obliged to import, must, had it been persevered in, have ruined the manufacture. It occasioned, indeed, during the period of its continuance, a considerable decline of the exports of woollens, and was productive of other mischievous effects, from which the manufacture suffered for a considerable period after it was repealed.

The evidence as to the absolute necessity of employing foreign wool, taken before the Lords' committee, was as decisive as can well be imagined. Mr. Gott, of Leeds, one of the most extensive and best informed manufacturers of the empire, informed the committee, that, in his own works, he used only foreign wool. On being asked whether he could carry on an export trade to the same extent as at present, if he manufactured his cloth of British wool, Mr. G. replied, that, in certain descriptions of cloth, "he could not make an article that would be merchantable at all for the foreign market, or even for the home market, except of foreign wool." We subjoin a few additional extracts from the evidence of this most competent witness.

"Can you give the committee any information with respect to the competition that now exists between foreigners and this country in woollen cloths?"—"I think the competition is very strong. In some instances, the foreigner has, probably, the advantage; and in others, the superiority of the British manufacture, I think, has greatly the advantage; and that would apply, I should say, particularly to the fine cloths of Great Britain compared with

* This learned and accurate work contains a great deal of information with respect to the progress of manufactures and commerce in England.

number of sheep is estimated since 1814, we may, I presume at this moment at

the number of sheep in the whole country there be considerable ground to estimate the whole number at no mark.

The total number of sheep in the country is estimated to be 10,000,000. No person assigns no grounds for a really authentic information. Statistical writers referring to the wool. They would be about the proof of any disputed history

of wool was strictly prohibited. It is continued to gain ground superior to that of every other; and that, if we succeed in commanding the market of innumerable states were very easy and severe that can be done. John Smith was one of the witnesses who exposed the injustice and the manufacturers might be aided by the agriculturists. But any later writers, and which would be the ruin of the exportation of wool. It succeeded in procuring the improvement of machinery for most of those purposes for which had annihilated the only spinners had ever been vindicated; and the ruin of the whole wool pro-

duction in Britain had been quite free; and the policy of allowing it to be sold for 5s. 3d. a cwt. was laid on in 1819, Mr. Vanper lb. Had English wool would have been less objectionable. Foreign wool had become, owing to its being quite indispensable to the manufacturer in several departments of the wool trade, the imposition of a duty which would have ruined the manufacture. It was a considerable decline of the exports from which the manufacture

of foreign wool, taken before the evidence of Mr. Gott, of Leeds, one of the witnesses, informed the committee, that he did not think he could carry on the manufacture of his cloth of British wool could not make an article for even for the home market, as appears from the evidence of this

to the competition that now exists. "I think the competition is not to the advantage; and in others, it is to the advantage; and that Great Britain, compared with other countries, is in a position with respect to the progress

foreign cloths: in some descriptions of low cloths, the foreigners are nearly on a footing, and in some instances, perhaps, superior to us."

"Speaking of the finer cloths, is the competition such as to render an additional duty on the importation of foreign wool, likely to injure the export trade?"—"I have no doubt, speaking on my oath, that it would be fatal to the foreign cloth trade of the country. I would say further, that it would be equally injurious to coarse manufactures of all kinds made of English wool. The competition now with foreigners is as nearly balanced as possible; and the disturbing operation of attacks of that description would necessarily enable the foreigner to buy his wool cheaper than we should do it in this country; the result would be, that foreigners would, by such a premium, be enabled to extend their manufactures, to the exclusion of British manufactures of all descriptions."

In another part of his evidence, Mr. Gott says,—"If 2 pieces of cloth at 10s. a yard were put before a customer, one made of British wool, the other of foreign wool, one would be sold, and the other would remain on hand: I could not execute an order with it. If any person sent to me for cloth of 7s. or 8s. a yard, and it were made of English wool, it would be sent back to me, and I should resort to foreign wool or foreign mixed with British, to execute that order."

On Mr. Gott being asked whether, in his opinion, the price of British wool would have been higher, had the duty of 6d. per lb. on foreign wool been continued, he answered,—"My opinion is, that the price of British wool would have been less at this time; the demand for British wool would have been very much less. *British manufactures would have been shut out of every foreign market*; and the stock of wool would have accumulated, as it will do if ever that duty be imposed again."—(*Mr. Gott's Evidence*, pp. 292, 293.)

The view taken by Mr. Gott of the effect of the importation of foreign wool on the price of British wool was supported by the concurrent testimony of all the manufacturing witnesses examined by the committee. Blankets, flannels of all sorts, haizes, carpets, bearskins, &c. are made principally of English wool; and the command of foreign wool enables the manufacturer to use a considerable quantity of English wool in the manufacture of certain descriptions of cloth, which, if made entirely of it, would be quite unsaleable. On Mr. Goodman, a wool-stapler of Leeds, being asked whether, if a duty were laid on foreign wool, it would force the use of English wool in the manufacture of cloths, from which it is now excluded, he answered,—"Certainly not: we could not get people to wear such a cloth they want a better, finer cloth; it is so much handsomer in its wear, and so much more durable."—(*Report*, p. 241.) Mr. Francis, of Heytesbury, declared that there was no demand for cloth made wholly of British wool; that it was principally applicable to the manufacture of blankets, haizes, &c.; and that the exclusion of foreign wool would only injure the manufacture, without raising the price of British wool.—(p. 268.) Statements to the same effect were made by Mr. Webb (p. 270.), Mr. Sheppard (p. 294.), Mr. Ireland (p. 319.), and, in short, by every one of the witnesses conversant with the manufacture.

The history of the manufacture since 1828 has completely confirmed the accuracy of the statements made by Mr. Gott and the other witnesses. Its progress from that period down to the present time has been one of uninterrupted prosperity; and so far from having been injured by the immense importations that have been made of foreign wool, the price of British wool is higher at this moment (March, 1834,) than at any former period! We believe, indeed, that it has now attained an unnatural elevation; and that its extreme high price, by making a corresponding addition to the price of cloth, will react on the manufacture, and will, consequently, by occasioning its depression, lower wool to a more moderate level.

Foreign Wool imported into England.—A very great change has taken place, within the course of the present century, both as respects the quantity of foreign wool imported, and the countries whence it is derived. Previously to 1800, our average imports of wool did not much exceed 3,000,000 lbs., mostly brought from Spain; the wool of which has long maintained a high character. In 1800, our imports amounted to near 9,000,000 lbs.; and they have since gone on gradually increasing, till they now amount to between 25,000,000 and 40,000,000 lbs. Instead, however, of being principally derived from Spain, as was the case down to 1814, the greater part of this immense supply of foreign wool is now furnished by Germany. The late king of Saxony, when elector, introduced the breed of Merino sheep into his dominions, and exerted himself to promote the growth of this valuable race of animals. His praiseworthy efforts have been crowned with the most signal success. The Merino sheep seem to succeed better in Saxony and other German states than in Spain; and have increased so rapidly, that the Spanish wool trade has become insignificant compared with that of Germany! The importations of German wool were quite trifling during the war—amounting, in 1812, to only 28 lbs.; but since the peace they have increased beyond all precedent. In 1814, they amounted to 3,432,456 lbs.; in 1820, they were 5,113,442 lbs.; in 1825, they reached the enormous amount of 28,799,661 lbs.; but this being a year of overtrading, they declined, in 1826, to 10,645,232 lbs. They have since, however, recovered from this depression; and, in 1833, amounted to 25,370,106 lbs.—(There is a very good account of the German wool trade in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. xi. art. 8.)

I. Number of Sheep and Quantity of Sheep's Wool produced in England, according to Mr. Luscock's Tables, revised by Mr. Hubbard, and made applicable to 1828.

County.	1800.				1828.			
	Number of Short Wool Sheep.	Weight of Fleeces.	Number of Packs.	Number of Long Wool Sheep.	Number of Packs.	Weight of Fleeces.	Number of Packs of Short Wool.	Number of Packs of Long Wool.
Northumberland	538,168	54	12,323	-	-	64	6,167	6,166
Durham	159,355	5	2,350	-	-	54	-	2,818
Ditto	-	9	-	67,900	2,980	64	-	2,350
Cumberland	378,400	34	5,915	-	-	5	7,823	-
Westmoreland	323,725	34	3,282	-	-	5	4,660	-
York, West Riding	382,123	var.	6,678	-	-	54	4,390	4,380
East ditto	306,240	5	6,380	-	-	0	-	7,656
North ditto	366,326	var.	5,939	-	-	5	5,706	1,902
Holderness	-	8	-	84,099	2,800	8	-	2,800
Other part of Yorkshire	-	8	-	14,310	477	8	-	477
Lancaster	310,000	34	4,528	-	-	44	5,213	-
Chester	65,000	var.	926	-	-	44	-	1,918
Derby	368,400	3	4,530	-	-	64	-	9,000
Nottingham	253,147	var.	4,113	-	-	0	-	6,910
Lincoln	122,649	54	2,833	-	-	6	-	2,691
Ditto, rich land	-	0	-	1,241,025	46,561	0	-	46,561
Ditto, marsha	-	6	-	87,500	2,916	9	-	2,281
Ditto, miscellaneous land	-	8	-	505,657	16,865	6	-	12,641
Rutland	-	5	-	114,000	2,370	6	-	2,350
Northampton	-	6	-	640,000	16,000	6	-	16,000
Warwick	182,968	3	2,267	-	-	5	-	6,374
Ditto	-	5	-	100,000	3,333	5	-	-
Leicester	20,000	34	891	-	-	6	-	10,013
Ditto	-	7	-	280,328	11,100	5	-	0,345
Oxford	204,564	var.	5,303	-	-	5	-	4,643
Bucks	222,068	3	2,787	-	-	5	-	8,873
Gloucester	355,000	var.	5,400	-	-	8	-	6,666
Ditto	-	8	-	200,000	6,666	8	-	5,215
Somerset	500,700	44	6,388	-	-	5	-	6,541
Worcester	322,504	34	4,820	-	-	44	-	2,960
Monmouth	177,610	var.	1,431	-	-	4	-	2,776
Hereford	500,000	3	4,200	-	-	4	-	2,344
Shropshire	423,034	34	4,397	-	-	4	-	3,503
Stafford	182,120	3	1,626	-	-	44	-	4,250
Ditto	-	7	-	3,720	113	5	-	4,471
Bedford	201,000	5	4,250	-	-	34	-	4,480
Berke	206,600	34	4,151	-	-	54	-	-
Huntingdon	108,000	44	2,000	-	-	54	-	-
Ditto	-	7	-	67,500	2,552	44	-	1,370
Cambridge	67,744	4	1,198	-	-	8	-	1,300
Ditto	-	8	-	41,698	1,300	44	-	8,801
Suffolk	497,000	34	5,175	-	-	44	-	4,273
Norfolk	682,704	3	5,697	-	-	44	-	1,303
Ditto	-	7	-	26,500	1,123	74	-	8,650
Essex	519,000	3	6,498	-	-	5	-	2,985
Hertford	277,000	44	6,297	-	-	5	-	937
Middlesex	45,000	4	750	-	-	5	-	-
Kent	224,475	34	7,000	-	-	44	-	10,360
Do., Romney market	-	7	-	185,000	5,400	64	-	5,010
Ditto, the marsh	-	7	-	108,330	2,160	64	-	2,934
Surrey	262,000	3	2,540	-	-	34	-	4,127
Sussex, downs	216,800	3	2,540	-	-	3	-	2,960
Ditto, lowlands	547,000	3	6,637	-	-	3	-	6,637
Hampshire	516,600	3	6,437	-	-	3	-	1,016
Isle of Wight	61,000	34	800	-	-	4	-	6,885
Wilt, downs	583,500	24	6,684	-	-	24	-	1,938
Ditto, pastures	617,500	3	1,460	-	-	4	-	8,778
Dorset	632,245	34	6,850	-	-	34	-	2,275
Devon	426,350	4	7,280	-	-	6	-	-
Ditto	-	8	-	192,750	6,458	8	-	5,920
Cornwall	202,000	4	3,323	-	-	7	-	-
Total	14,854,309		192,475	4,152,308	131,794		120,658	263,847

1800—Short fleeces	192,475	1828—Short fleeces	120,658
Long fleeces	131,794	Long fleeces	263,847
	324,269		384,505
Short and long, akin and } lamb's wool	69,705	Short and long, akin and } lamb's wool	69,405
	254,564		315,100
Part of Wales not included } in the above Tables	9,269	Wales, taken as before	9,269
Increase from 1800 to 1828	69,923		463,169
	463,169		
1800—Packs of short wool	103,478	1828—Packs of long wool	131,794
1828—Ditto ditto	120,655	1828—Ditto ditto	263,847
	73,690	Increase	123,663

according to Mr. Luceock's to 1898.

1898.		
Weight of Fleeces.	Number of Flocks of Short Wool.	Number of Flocks of Long Wool.
5 1/2	6,167	6,166
5 1/4	-	3,918
5 1/8	-	2,930
5	7,883	-
4 3/4	4,660	4,399
4 1/2	4,390	7,656
4 1/4	-	1,902
4 1/8	6,706	2,800
4	-	477
3 3/4	5,813	-
3 1/2	1,318	-
3 1/4	-	9,060
3 1/8	-	6,910
3	-	2,991
2 3/4	-	46,581
2 1/2	3,981	-
2 1/8	-	12,641
2 1/4	-	2,850
2	-	16,000
1 3/4	8,574	-
1 1/2	-	16,018
1 1/4	-	6,345
1 1/8	-	4,645
1 1/2	-	8,573
1	-	6,660
3/4	5,915	5,916
2/4	6,511	2,960
1/4	2,778	3,535
0	2,344	4,900
0	-	3,503
0	-	4,350
0	4,471	4,480
0	-	1,370
0	-	1,390
0	8,801	8,540
0	4,373	1,303
0	-	6,650
0	-	2,865
0	-	937
0	-	10,390
0	-	5,010
0	-	2,034
0	4,137	-
0	3,960	-
0	6,537	-
0	6,437	-
0	1,016	-
0	6,685	-
0	1,938	-
0	9,878	-
0	2,375	6,590
0	-	6,458
0	-	5,920
0	190,655	263,847
0	-	190,655
0	-	263,847
0	-	384,503
0	-	69,405
0	-	453,907

1800—Total quantity of short wool	193,475
Ditto ditto of long wool	131,794
1825—Total quantity of short wool	120,055
Ditto ditto of long wool	243,847
	394,503

Increase of wool - 59,233 fleeces.
Increase of skin and lambs' wool - 10,700

Total increase - 69,933

N. E.—The wool from slaughtered sheep and carion not mentioned in this Table; but allowed for above.

II. Account of Sheep and Lambs' Wool Imported into Great Britain from Foreign Parts in the under-mentioned Years; specifying the Countries whence it was brought, and the Quantity brought from each, with the Rates of Duty and the Produce of the Duty.

Countries from which imported.	1810.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1832.	1833.	Rate of Duty chargeable.
Russia, Sweden, and Norway	98,508	75,814	1,995,900	208,221	651,600	1,405,096	Until 5 July 1800 From 5 July 1800, 5s. 3d. per cwt.
Denmark	351,741	19,347	654,318	179,717	303,248	372,248	to June 1804, 5s. 10d. —
Prussia	123,057	107,101	131,100	712,249	323,289	375,379	— 1 June 1804, to 3 April 1805, 5s. 10d. —
Germany	776,355	515,442	33,795,951	26,173,282	19,322,225	23,270,162	— 3 April 1805, to 10 May 1806, 5s. 11d. 3-8ctas.
The Netherlands	8,973	190,031	1,059,248	630,123	309,144	811,081	— 10 May 1806, to 5 July 1809, 5s. 4d. 3-8ctas.
France	-	320,979	634,678	46,098	1,973	300,844	— 5 July 1809, to 15 April 1813, 7s. 11d. —
Portugal	3,014,961	25,187	238,763	481,243	196,244	691,298	— 15 April 1813, to 8 July 1819, 1d. per lb. —
Spain & Canaries	5,254,407	3,559,329	8,306,437	1,243,515	2,826,624	4,389,150	— 8 July 1819, to Oct. 1819, 1d. per lb.
Gibraltar	848,053	2,321	10,260	-	-	-	
Italy	81,854	3,515	877,438	9,601	76,556	366,510	
India	49,040	4,050	73,181	-	664	4,988	
Ionian Islands	-	-	33,383	-	-	-	
Turkey	-	188,664	612,414	-	17,988	361,691	
Morocco	-	-	-	-	14,465	105,669	
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man.	41,407	18,016	32,306	7,745	18,316	30,374	Of British Possessions.
East Indies	791	4,366	-	-	-	-	Of Foreign Countries.
New Holland & Van D's Land	-	99,415	221,996	1,967,309	2,377,697	3,318,989	Per lb. From 10 Oct. 1819, to 6 Jan. 1822, 1d. 6d. per lb.
Cape of G. Hope	20,717	15,989	27,619	58,407	25,357	25,525	From 6 Jan. 1822, to 10 Sept. 1824, 2d. 6d. —
British North America colonies, India, and the West Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-	From 10 Sept. 1824, to 10 Dec. 1824, 1d. 3d. —
United States of America	4,111	1,477	80,589	3,038	686,315	385,649	From 10 Dec. 1824, to 8 July 1833, 1d. —
Mexico	-	-	-	-	3,130	-	1834, to 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Peru	-	-	14,313	5,741	23,191	14,640	From 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Chili	-	14,798	8	-	-	-	1834, to 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Rio de la Plata and Brazil	119,173	78,006	291,308	30,369	30,352	2,013	From 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Prise	23,837	-	-	-	18,466	-	1834, to 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Total import from foreign parts	10,814,137	9,789,020	65,795,251	32,313,058	25,142,489	58,078,419	1834, to 8 July 1835, 1d. —
Quantities retained for home consumption	-	7,061,773	41,101,696	21,522,269	37,066,350	38,006,620	on wool not of the value of 1s. per lb. on wool of the value of 1s. per lb. and upwards.
Amount of duty received	£ 2,580 4 3	£ 191,820 10 6	£ 1,726 18 7	£ 120,620 8 3	£ 108,051 2 3	£ 127,565 1 8	

III. Account of the Quantities of British Wool and Woollen Yarn, exported from the United Kingdom in 1833; specifying the Countries to which they were sent.

Countries to which exported.	Wool.	Woolles and Worsted Yarn (including Wool or Worsted Yarn mixed.)	Countries to which exported.	Wool.	Woolles and Worsted Yarn (including Wool or Worsted Yarn mixed.)
Russia	1,200	28,790	Other parts of Africa	100	169
Denmark	-	7	British colonies in N. America	864	11,308
Prussia	-	2,963	British West Indies	-	194
Germany	4,423	1,053,940	Foreign West Indies	-	112
Holland	173,178	490,458	United States of America	105,214	283,393
Belgium	2,373,498	119,040	Mexico	-	2,558
France	1,424,208	3,282	Colombia	-	47
Portugal, Annes, and Madeira	144	2,498	Peru	-	1,233
Spain and the Canaries	-	551	Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney and Man.	6,002	23,518
Italy	-	20,649			
East Indies and China	-	790			
Cape of Good Hope	-	1,120			
			Total	4,922,110	2,107,478

IV. Price of Southdown Wool per lb. from 1784 to 1833, both inclusive.

Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.
1784	2 s. d.	1794	1 s. 1 d.	1804	1 s. 10 d.	1814	2 s. 2 d.	1824	2 s. 2 d.
1785	0 s. 8 d.	1795	1 s. 3 d.	1805	1 s. 9 d.	1815	1 s. 11 d.	1825	1 s. 2 d.
1786	0 s. 9 d.	1796	1 s. 4 d.	1806	1 s. 10 d.	1816	1 s. 9 d.	1826	0 s. 10 d.
1787	0 s. 11 d.	1797	1 s. 3 d.	1807	1 s. 9 d.	1817	1 s. 7 d.	1827	0 s. 9 d.
1788	1 s. 0 d.	1798	1 s. 3 d.	1808	1 s. 9 d.	1818	1 s. 6 d.	1828	0 s. 8 d.
1789	1 s. 0 d.	1799	1 s. 5 d.	1809	1 s. 9 d.	1819	1 s. 7 d.	1829	0 s. 8 d.
1790	1 s. 0 d.	1800	1 s. 5 d.	1810	1 s. 9 d.	1820	1 s. 5 d.	1830	0 s. 10 d.
1791	9 s. 11 d.	1801	1 s. 7 d.	1811	1 s. 8 d.	1821	1 s. 3 d.	1831	1 s. 1 d.
1792	1 s. 4 d.	1802	1 s. 7 d.	1812	1 s. 8 d.	1822	1 s. 2 d.	1832	1 s. 0 d.
1793	0 s. 11 d.	1803	1 s. 9 d.	1813	1 s. 11 d.	1833	1 s. 1 d.	1833	1 s. 0 d.

Prices of Wool in the London market, December, 1836.

		L. a. d.		L. a. d.		L. a. d.		L. a. d.	
		per lb.		to		to		to	
Spanish									
	Lanona	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Segovia	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Soria	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Caracas	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Serilla	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Portugal	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	lamb's wool	0 1 7	0 1 7	0 1 7	0 1 7				
German									
	1st and 2d elect.	0 4 8	0 4 8	0 4 8	0 4 8				
	3d elect.	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0				
	prima	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	secunda	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0				
	tertia	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0				
	electoral	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Austrian	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Bohemian	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	and	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	Hungarian	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0				
	lamb's	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6				
	prime	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6				
Australian									
	best fleeces, superior fleeces	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 0				
Australian—continued.									
	seconds	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
	inferior fleeces	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0				
Van Diemen's Land									
	inferior	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0				
	middling	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0				
	combing	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
Capr									
	combing	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
British fleeces									
	North and South Down hoggets	0 1 7	0 1 7	0 1 7	0 1 7				
	half-bred ditto	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
	ditto a few clothing	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
	Kent fleeces	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 1 8				
	combing skins	0 1 5	0 1 5	0 1 5	0 1 5				
	ditto finest woad	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4				
	ditto 1/2 of ditto	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1				
	Leicester fleeces	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4				
	In To h Down	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1				
	ditto Down	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0				
	ditto Merino	0 1 2	0 1 2	0 1 2	0 1 2				
	grain wool, Turkey	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1	0 1 1				
	year, mohair	0 2 1	0 2 1	0 2 1	0 2 1				

The breed of sheep that was carried out to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land has succeeded remarkably well; and Australia promises, at no distant day, to be one of the principal wool-growing countries of the world. The imports into Great Britain have been rapidly increasing. In 1833, they amounted to 3,516,869 lbs., while the imports from Spain only amounted to 3,339,150 lbs. The Spanish fleeces suffered severely during the campaigns in Spain; and the best Spanish wool does not now bring more than $\frac{1}{2}$ the price of the best German wool.

[The value of the wool imported into the United States, in the year ending September 30th, 1839, not exceeding 8 cents per pound, amounted to \$627,620, and, exceeding that rate, to \$171,918, both together not much exceeding the value of the wool produced in Massachusetts alone. This amounted, in 1837, to \$539,689.—*Am. Ed.*]

WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE, the art of forming wool into cloth and stuffs. This has always ranked as an important branch of national industry; and, until it was recently surpassed by the cotton manufacture, was decidedly the most important of all the manufactures carried on in England.

Rise and Progress of the British Woollen Manufacture. Exports.—There can be no doubt that the arts of spinning wool, and manufacturing the yarn into cloth, were introduced into England by the Romans,—the inhabitants being previously clothed only in skins. From the period of the Romans quitting England, down to the 10th century, there are no notices of the manufacture; and those relating to the period from the 10th to the 13th century are but few and imperfect. It is certain, however, that the manufacture of broad cloths was established soon after the year 1200, if not previously.—(*Smith's Memoirs of Wool*, vol. i. p. 17.) But the woollen manufactures of Flanders being at this period, and long afterwards, in a comparatively advanced state, English wool was exported in large quantities to Bruges and other Flemish cities, whence fine cloths and other products were brought back in exchange. Edward III. took the most judicious measures for improving the English manufacture, by inviting over Flemish weavers, fullers, dyers, and others, and protecting them from the assaults of the rabble. Shortly after the first emigration of Flemings, or in 1337, an act was passed, prohibiting the wear of any cloths made beyond seas, and interdicting the export of English wool.—(*Ibid.* vol. i. p. 25.) But in these turbulent times such restraining acts were little better than a dead letter; and this, indeed, was soon after repealed.—(*Ibid.* vol. i. pp. 32, 30.) From this remote period the manufacture has always been regarded as of primary importance, and has been the object of the especial solicitude of the legislature. It may be doubted, however, whether it has derived any real advantage from the numberless statutes that have been passed in the view of contributing to its advancement. With the exception, indeed, of the prohibition of the export of English wool, which was finally put a stop to in 1660, the other acts, being mostly intended for the regulation of the manufacture, could not be otherwise than mischievous; and the benefit derived by the manufacturers from the prohibition was more apparent than real; inasmuch as it occasioned a diminished growth of wool, at the same time that it was impossible to prevent its clandestine exportation. Mr. Smith has proved that the manufacture made a far more rapid progress during the reign of Elizabeth, when wool might be freely carried out of the kingdom, than it ever did during any equal period subsequent to the restriction on exportation. Foreign wool began to be imported in small quantities in the 13th century.

At first, the manufacture seems to have been pretty equally distributed over the country. In an insurrection that took place in 1525, more than 4,000 weavers and other tradesmen are said to have assembled out of Laneham, Sudbury, and other towns in Suffolk. The manufacture had been previously introduced into Yorkshire. In 1533, an act was passed (34 & 35 Hen. 8. c. 10.), reciting, "that the city of York afore this time had been upholden principally by making and weaving of coverlets, and the poor thereof daily set on work in spinning, carding, dyeing, weaving, &c.;" that the manufacture, having spread into other parts, was "thereby debased and discredited;" and enacting, as a remedy for this evil, that henceforth "none shall make coverlets in Yorkshire, but inhabitants of the city of York!"

This may be taken as a fair specimen of the commercial legislation of the time. Indeed, it was enacted, nearly at the same period, that the manufacture should be restricted, in Worcestershire, to Worcester and 4 other towns. Worsted goods, so called from Worsted, now an inconsiderable town in Norfolk, where the manufacture was first set on foot, were produced in the reign of Edward II., or perhaps earlier; but Norwich soon after became, and, notwithstanding the competition of Bradford, probably is still, the principal seat of this branch of the manufacture. In an act of Henry VIII. (33 Hen. 8. c. 16.), worsted yarn is described as "the private commodity of the city of Norwich." In 1614, a great improvement took place in the woollen manufacture of the west of England, by the invention of what is called medley or mixed cloth, for which Gloucestershire is still famous. During the reign of Charles II., there were many, though unfounded, complaints of the decay of the manufacture; and, by way of encouraging it, an act was passed (30 Car. 2. st. i. c. 3.), ordering that all persons should be buried in woollen shrouds! This act, the provisions of which were subsequently enforced, preserved its place on the statute book for more than 130 years!

Towards the end of the 17th century, Mr. Gregory King and Dr. Davenant—(*Davenant's Works*, Whitworth's ed. vol. ii. p. 233)—estimated the value of the wool shorn in England at 2,000,000*l.* a year; and they supposed that the value of the wool (including that imported from abroad) was quadrupled in the manufacture; making the entire value of the woollen articles annually produced in England and Wales, 8,000,000*l.*, of which about 2,000,000*l.* were exported. In 1700 and 1701, the official value of the woollens exported amounted to about 3,000,000*l.* a year. Owing to the vast increase of wealth and population, the manufacture must have been very greatly extended during last century; but the increase in the amount of exports was comparatively inconsiderable. At an average of the 6 years ending with 1789, the official value of the exports was 3,544,160*l.* a year, being only about 540,000*l.* above the amount exported in 1700. The extraordinary increase of the cotton manufacture soon after 1780, and the extent to which cotton articles then began to be substituted for those of wool, though it did not occasion any absolute decline of the manufacture, no doubt contributed powerfully to check its progress. In 1802, the official value of the exports rose to 7,321,012*l.*, being the largest amount they ever reached till 1833, when they amounted to 7,777,952*l.* During the last few years, indeed, every branch of the manufacture has been in a state of unexampled improvement and extension. It was supposed that the high price of wool would give it a temporary check; but such has not hitherto been the case. During the 6 years ending with 1835, the official and real values of the woollen manufactures exported from the United Kingdom have been as under:—

	1800.	1831.	1839.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Official value of woollen manufactures exported. - - - -	£ 5,558,709	£ 6,097,558	£ 6,544,576	£ 7,777,952	£ 6,514,704	£ 7,406,909
Declared or real value of ditto -	4,850,684	5,237,701	5,239,992	6,289,649	5,736,870	6,840,511

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.—The most discordant estimates have been given as to both these points. For the most part, however, they have been grossly exaggerated. In a tract published in 1739, entitled *Considerations on the Running (Smuggling) of Wool*, the number of persons engaged in the manufacture is stated at 1,500,000, and their wages at 11,737,560*l.* a year. Dr. Campbell, in his *Political Survey of Great Britain*, published in 1774, observes,—"Many computations have been made upon this important subject, and, amongst others, one about 30 years since, which, at that time, was thought to be pretty near the truth. According to the best information that can be obtained, there may be from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 sheep in England, some think more. The value of their wool may, one year with another, amount to 3,000,000*l.*; the expense of manufacturing this may probably be 3,000,000*l.*, and the total value 12,000,000*l.* We may export annually to the value of 3,000,000*l.*, though one year we exported more than 4,000,000*l.* In reference to the number of persons who are maintained by this manufacture, they are probably upwards of 1,000,000. Sanguine men will judge these computations too low, and few will believe them too high."—(Vol. ii. p. 158.) But the moderation displayed in this estimate was very soon lost sight of. In 1800, the woollen manufacturers objected strenuously to some of the provisions in the treaty of union between Great Britain and Ireland, and were allowed to urge their objections at the bar of the House of Lords, and to produce evidence in their support. Mr. Law (afterwards Lord Ellenborough), the counsel employed by the manufacturers on this occasion, stated, in his address to their Lordships, on information communicated to him by his clients, that 600,000 pecks of wool were annually produced in England and Wales, worth, at 11*l.* a peck, 6,600,000*l.*; that the value of the manufactured goods was 3 times as great, or 19,800,000*l.*; that not less than 1,500,000 persons were immediately engaged in the operative branches of the manufacture; and that the trade collaterally employed about the same number of hands.—(*Account of the Proceedings of the Merchants, Manufacturers, &c.* p. 34.)

It is astonishing that reasonable men, conversant with the manufacture, should have put forth such ludicrously absurd statements. We have already seen that the quantity of wool

produced in England and Wales, in 1800, did not really amount to 400,000 pecks; and the notion that three out of the nine millions of people then in the country were directly and indirectly employed in the manufacture, is too ridiculous to deserve notice, though it was generally acquiesced in at the time.—(See Middleton's Survey of Middlesex, 2d ed. p. 614; Adolphus's Political State of the British Empire, vol. iii. p. 236.)

Mr. Stevenson, who is one of the very few writers on British statistics to whose statements much deference is due, has given the following estimate of the value of the woollen manufactured goods annually produced in England and Wales, and of the interest, &c. of the capital, and the number of persons employed in the manufacture—

Total value of manufactured articles	£ 18,000,000
Value of raw material	£ 6,000,000
Interest on capital, sum to replace its wear and tear, and manufacturers' profits	2,400,000
Wages of workmen	9,600,000
	£ 18,000,000
Number of people employed, 480,000, or perhaps 500,000.	

But even this estimate requires to be materially modified. Taking Scotland into account, and allowing for the increase of population and of exportation since Mr. Stevenson's estimate was made, the total value of the various descriptions of woollens annually produced in Great Britain may, at present, be moderately estimated at from 20,000,000*l.* to 22,000,000*l.*, or 21,000,000*l.* at a medium. We have further been assured by the highest practical authorities, that Mr. Stevenson's distribution of the items is essentially erroneous; and that, assuming the value of the manufacture to be 21,000,000*l.*, it is made up nearly as follows:—

Total value of manufactured articles	£ 21,000,000
Value of raw material	£ 7,000,000
Oil, soap, dye stuffs, &c.	1,450,000
Wear and tear of capital, and profit	4,250,000
Wages	8,300,000
	£ 21,000,000

At present, the average wages of the people employed may be taken at about 25*l.* a year, making the total number employed 332,000. And, however small this may look as compared with former estimates, we believe it is fully up to the mark, if not rather beyond it.

Most of the innumerable statutes formerly passed for the regulation of the different processes of the manufacture have been repealed within these few years; and the sooner every vestige of the remainder disappears from the statute book, the better.

I. Account of the Quantities of each Description of Woollen Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom in 1835; specifying the Quantities and Total Value of those sent to each Country.

Countries to which exported.	Cloths of all Sorts.	Nap- ped Coat- ings, Dufls, &c.	Ker- sey- meres.	Balles of all Sorts.	Stuffs, Woollen or Worsted.	Flannels.	Blankets and Blanket- ings.	Carpets and Tapest- ring.	Work- ing mixed with Cotton.	Hosiery & Stockings, of Hoary or Worsted.		Sundries, consisting of Hosiery Rags, Coverlets, Tapes, &c.		Declared Value.
										Yards.	Doz.	Pairs.	L.	
Russia	3,737	5	407	60	98,510	4,998	7,769	12,619	6,340	86	0	159	0	95,691 10
Sweden	33	53	47		9,091	630	2,920	4,262	48	63	0	144	1	14,053 15
Norway	919	31	111	54	6,386	2,271	2,081	246	1,018	1,081	6	719	3	15,328 11
Denmark	40		30		1,040	880			580			86	0	2,309 0
Prussia	9				59	703		852	800					277 2
Germany	19,948	6,262	7,069	183	408,545	208,184	11,780	37,450	258,493	2,900	0	6,944	10	631,171 12
Holland	2,642	5,548	668	6,092	88,189	375,697	5,900	66,984	37,482	11,847	0	1,845	6	218,729 11
Belgium	481	6,289	1,234	828	47,172	118,898	4,230	13,386	156,831	7,838	0	1,457	10	128,727 4
France	1,581	481	254	7	26,008	13,163	2,000	10,482	61,800	1,291	6	574	10	66,272 14
Portugal, Am- ica and Madeira	62,369	930	1,641	15,393	44,548	8,263	8,234	16,748	61,791	86	6	2,440	0	367,992 11
Spain and the Canaries	2,850		684	129	18,488	5,896	4,086	5,316	600	39	0	159	0	63,618 7
Gibraltar	3,451	63	195	369	5,043	1,164	610	1,663	45,069	726	8	662	0	31,478 1
Italy	7,554		627	70	128,319	23,998	2,910	66,669	82,451	8,975	0	1,462	16	343,582 14
Malta	1,186	13	850	90	2,776	1,281	1,500	1,100	6,820	78	0	336	0	14,145 14
Ionian Islands	117	15	34	10	800	2,416	650	785	1,842	830	0	465	0	2,457 8
Turkey and Con- stantinople	2,859	31	125		10,980	17,021	5,322	7,190	10,830	179	0	107	0	41,964 10
Morocco and Greek Islands	62		6		156	347	874	245						1,188 0
East Indies and China	122,423	7	499	6	184,179	328,131	23,876	6,311	66,400	1,846	0	1,106	8	604,017 1
New Holland	2,962	9	273	25	2,418	69,766	87,973	15,961	5,548	1,377	0	2,969	6	46,002 18
Cape of Good Hope	2,837	216	256	989	6,079	40,189	15,718	9,948	6,581	361	0	951	0	54,307 5
Other parts of Africa	669		46	13	4,748	8,185	8,150	600	5,618	288	6	809	0	15,337 13
British colonies in North America	40,162	417	362	495	55,985	619,016	324,995	105,963	39,490	32,025	2	10,762	0	417,695 5
West Indies	10,139	181	161	6,337	15,989	65,188	170,999	1,189	2,909	1,316	0	5,487	10	114,009 1
Foreign West In- dies	8,893	86	89	868	11,970	12,984	198,096	4,798	6,482	718	6	6,480	10	79,510 4
United States of America	262,827	403	9,984	1,685	880,180	151,713	2,125,741	653,307	638,144	141,248	4	44,048	4	2,621,270 15
Brazils	36,256	88	1,080	9,701	96,017	10,917	150,699	5,986	140,579	1,969	0	5,414	5	337,768 15
Mexico and the States of South America	48,519		1,416	2,972	30,592	33,265	10,894	61,530	125,829	6,938	0	3,003	0	374,714 1
Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Alder- ney and Man	2,903	2	17	840	4,244	67,241	19,491	18,948	792	364	6	2,171	5	42,954 17
Totals	619,865	20,083	28,203	47,864	1,678,089	8,097,000	3,122,341	936,848	1,778,326	207,014	4	110,888	14	6,840,611 1

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II. Summary Account of the Quantity and declared Value of the Woollen Yarn; and of the Quantities of the different Descriptions of Woollen Manufactures, with the Total declared Value of the same, exported from the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1850 to 1853, both inclusive.

Year	Woollen Manufactures.												
	Woollen and Worsted Yarn.		Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Cloths, Duckings, &c.	Kerseys, Merinos, and Balans.	Stuffs, Woollens or Worsted.	Flannels.	Blankets and Blanketing.	Carpeting and Carpeting.	Woollens mixed with Cottons.	Hosiery and Stockings, Woollen or Woad.	Hosiery consisting of Bags, Tapes, &c.	Total declared Value of Woollen Manufactures.
	Quantity.	Decl. Value.											
1850	Lhs. 8,984	£. 910	115,219	68,644	115,219	228,801	2,000,106	1,488,408	486,184	407,718	25,460	95,197	5,846,138
1851	9,111	1,817	875,484	68,621	138,010	1,022,848	3,551,351	1,484,886	764,923	627,900	17,778	95,197	6,468,106
1852	12,518	3,992	486,497	67,787	188,911	1,077,426	4,528,618	1,616,711	848,369	1,187,248	156,997	47,748	6,468,106
1853	6,073	1,137	8,447	54,238	135,888	150,188	4,311,997	1,011,483	778,448	108,480	41,818	5,836,198	
1854	18,640	1,188	407,30	61,588	184,117	1,000,408	3,108,991	1,989,941	948,448	1,234,448	118,138	48,361	6,048,881
1855	76,041	14,461	84,800	48,308	178,800	1,188,800	3,888,800	1,488,800	888,800	1,788,800	108,800	48,800	5,108,800
1856	18,642	3,794	328,800	41,900	198,800	1,188,800	3,888,800	1,488,800	888,800	1,788,800	108,800	48,800	5,108,800
1857	255,705	97,200	971,800	61,800	189,800	1,288,800	3,888,800	1,488,800	1,188,800	848,800	168,117	48,488	6,448,800
1858	434,722	242,213	330,048	40,800	134,001	310,853	3,888,788	3,007,448	1,187,169	185,482	48,914	5,088,741	
1859	488,831	78,848	382,076	16,188	88,848	1,007,848	1,278,881	1,288,881	1,111,488	1,074,077	91,218	61,848	4,887,888
1860	1,108,023	182,400	288,800	24,277	88,876	1,842,811	1,818,000	1,718,811	874,800	1,098,110	111,148	61,848	4,728,018
1861	1,492,454	138,118	148,138	13,888	88,888	1,077,484	1,077,484	1,044,284	1,044,284	1,044,284	148,778	61,848	5,238,018
1862	3,504,484	388,807	388,801	28,448	78,888	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	188,810	61,848	5,244,478
1863	5,000,000	548,804	697,188	18,848	78,888	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	188,810	61,848	5,244,478
1864	5,000,000	548,804	697,188	18,848	78,888	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	188,810	61,848	5,244,478
1865	5,000,000	548,804	697,188	18,848	78,888	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	188,810	61,848	5,244,478
1866	5,000,000	548,804	697,188	18,848	78,888	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	1,000,114	188,810	61,848	5,244,478

(Account of the Quantity and Real Value of British Woollen Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom in the Year 1837, specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Quantity and Value of those exported to each.—(Parl. Paper, No. 346. Sess. 1836.)

Country to which exported.	Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Cloths, Duckings, &c.	Kerseys.	Balans of all Sorts.	Stuffs, Woollens or Worsted.	Flannels.	Blankets and Blanketing.	Carpeting and Carpeting.	Woollens mixed with Cottons.	Hosiery and Stockings, Woollen or Worsted.	Hosiery not otherwise described, Bags, Tapes, &c.	Declared Value of British W. Manufactures exported from U.K.	
												Yards.	Doz. Pairs
Spain	2,001	9	219	10	88,484	3,978	8,700	19,424	50,122	157	0	146	100,159
Sweden	81	0	0	1	1,888	882	784	4,184	5,400	191	0	155	14,188
Norway	457	0	183	84	8,800	5,600	1,120	49	0	150	0	991	10,646
Denmark	67	10	19	0	85	10	880	781	184	0	0	161	8,018
Prussia	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	82
Germany	6,073	11,508	3,884	378	267,873	261,874	11,149	48,961	884,887	1,647	0	8,212	728,807
Holland	1,386	5,103	181	18,908	88,364	388,888	88,888	28,104	18,008	8,888	0	8,888	888,888
Belgium	3,797	4,415	809	83	68,748	84,712	5,480	5,318	100,754	5,423	0	1,879	144,652
France	840	808	881	82	18,804	11,888	840	18,884	84,888	88	0	1,809	48,570
Portugal, Austria and Madeira	22,880	408	10,888	38,000	18,818	8,804	7,878	86,880	88	0	1,827	201,888	
Spain and the Canaries	1,172	81	80	1,386	18,178	4,414	7,161	8,816	1,884	88	0	180	48,191
Oblique	1,130	70	880	189	7,811	1,960	1,877	48,878	884	0	0	764	67,488
Italy	5,486	0	1,188	0	68,818	6,114	3,884	88,882	108,000	843	0	8,117	178,851
Malta	575	0	62	80	1,480	888	800	78	8,800	108	0	89	7,478
Ionian Islands	305	0	16	0	638	4,877	800	878	10	818	0	370	5,168
Turkey and Constantinople	886	84	61	7	4,708	8,000	7,488	1,480	16	0	0	148	24,480
Morocco and Great Britain	0	0	0	0	19	186	0	0	0	0	0	40	80
East India and China	96,002	0	188	348	77,818	78,078	44,108	4,884	88,148	880	0	8,904	480,891
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, and Southern Australia	0	0	0	0	19	186	0	0	0	0	0	40	80
Other parts of Africa	1,708	0	16	80	8,784	3,848	8,700	810	1,880	878	0	1,148	18,744
British Colonies in North America	52,008	388	888	187	38,387	884,487	241,888	182,888	44,480	18,848	0	18,178	392,078
West India	9,738	143	816	8,781	16,881	88,818	197,878	8,808	11,860	5,984	0	8,988	188,708
Foreign West India	4,780	9	78	40	8,818	8,000	198,888	1,018	6,808	0	0	1,770	68,808
United States of America	198,888	80	4,821	88	197,888	88,184	1,281,112	978,778	184,898	18,848	0	18,420	1,045,278
Brazil	24,838	80	984	6,118	18,847	1,980	188,188	11,881	68,911	882	0	4,888	188,488
Mexico and the States of South America	88,878	0	8,888	2,788	88,888	84,048	17,010	91,884	70,880	8,088	0	8,078	487,888
Italy—Germany, Jewry, Alderney and Man-	8,888	78	15	101	2,888	88,784	88,884	84,880	88	88	0	2,887	48,088
Total	387,768	23,801	28,880	48,477	1,041,888	1,488,487	4,481,888	788,888	1,061,872	74,847	0	82,818	4,483,977

The exemption from the export duty of 10s. per cent. enjoyed by woollen goods, or goods of wool and cotton or wool and linen, exported to places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, has been repealed by the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89. § 18.—(Sup.)

[The value of the woollen manufactures imported into the United States during the year ending the 30th of September, 1839, amounted to \$10,646,067. See Imports and Exports—Am. Ed.]

WRECK, in navigation, is usually understood to mean any ship or goods driven ashore, or found floating at sea in a deserted or unmanageable condition. But in the legal sense of the word in England, *wreck* must have come to land; when at sea, it is distinguished by the barbarous appellations of *flotsam, jetsam, and lagan*.—(See *FLOTSAM*.)

In nothing, perhaps, has the beneficial influence of the advance of society in civilisation been more apparent than in the regulations with respect to the persons and property of shipwrecked individuals. In most rude and uncivilised countries, their treatment has been cruel in the extreme. Amongst the early Greeks and Romans, strangers and enemies were regarded in the same point of view.—(*Hostis apud antiquos, peregrinus dicebatur*.—*Pomp. Festus*; see also *Cicero de Offic. lib. l. c. 12.*) Where such inhospitable sentiments prevailed, the conduct observed towards those that were shipwrecked could not be otherwise than barbarous; and in fact they were, in most instances, either put to death or sold as slaves. But as law and good order grew up, and commerce and navigation were extended, those who escaped from the perils of the sea were treated in a way less repugnant to the dictates of humanity: and at length the Roman law made it a capital offence to destroy persons shipwrecked, or to prevent their saving the ship; and the stealing even of a plank from a vessel shipwrecked or in distress, made the party liable to answer for the whole ship and cargo.—(*Pand. 47. 9. 3.*)

During the gloomy period which followed the subversion of the Roman empire, and the establishment of the northern nations in the southern parts of Europe, the ancient barbarous practices with respect to shipwreck were every where renewed. Those who survived were in most countries reduced to servitude; and their goods were every where confiscated for the use of the lord on whose manor they had been thrown.—(*Robertson's Charles V. vol. i. note 29.*) But nothing, perhaps, can so strongly evince the prevalence and nature of the enormities, as the efforts that were made, as soon as governments began to acquire authority, for their suppression. The regulations as to shipwreck in the Laws of Oleron are, in this respect, most remarkable. The 35th and 38th articles state, that "Pilots, in order to ingratiate themselves with their lords, did, like faithless and treacherous villains, sometimes willingly run the ship upon the rocks, &c.;" for which offence they are held to be accused and excommunicated, and punished as thieves and robbers. The fate of the lord is still more severe. "He is to be apprehended, his goods confiscated and sold, and himself fastened to a post or stake in the midst of his own mansion house, which being fired at the four corners, all shall be burned together; the walls thereof be demolished; the stones pulled down; and the site converted into a market place, for the sale only of hogs and swine, to all posterity." The 31st article recites, that when a vessel was lost by running on shore, and the mariners had landed, they often, instead of meeting with help, "were attacked by people more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman, than mad dogs; who, to gain their monies, apparel, and other goods, did sometimes murder and destroy these poor distressed seamen. In this case, the lord of the country is to execute justice, by punishing them in their persons and their estates; and is commanded to plunge them in the sea till they be half dead, and then to have them drawn forth out of the sea, and stoned to death."

Such were the dreadful severities by which it was attempted to put a stop to the crimes against which they were directed. The violence of the remedy shows better than any thing else how inveterate the disease had become.

The law of England, like that of other modern countries, adjudged wrecks to belong to the king. But the rigour and injustice of this law was modified so early as the reign of Henry I., when it was ruled, that if any person escaped alive out of the ship, it should be no wreck. And after various modifications, it was decided, in the reign of Henry III., that if goods were cast on shore, having any marks by which they could be identified, they were to revert to the owners, if claimed any time within a year and a day. By the statute 27 Edw. 3. c. 12., if a ship be lost and the goods come to land, they are to be delivered to the merchants, paying only a reasonable reward or SALVAGE (which see) to those who saved or preserved them. But these ancient statutes, owing to the confusion and disorder of the times, were very ill enforced; and the disgraceful practices previously alluded to, continued to the middle of last century. A statute of Anne (19 Ann. st. 2. c. 18), confirmed by the 4 Geo. 1. c. 12., in order to put a stop to the atrocities in question, orders all head officers and others of the towns near the sea, upon application made to them, to summon as many hands as are necessary, and send them to the relief of any ship in distress, on forfeiture of 100*l.*; and in case of any assistance given, salvage is to be assessed by 3 justices, and paid by the owners. Persons secreting any goods cast ashore, are to forfeit treble their value; and if they wilfully do any act whereby the ship is lost or destroyed, they are guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. But even this statute seems not to have been sufficient to accomplish the end in view; and in 1753, a new statute (26 Geo. 2. c. 19) was enacted, the preamble of which is as follows:—"Whereas, notwithstanding the good and salutary laws now in being against plundering and destroying vessels in distress, and against taking away shipwrecked, lost, or stranded goods, many wicked enormities have been committed, to the disgrace of the nation, and the grievous damage of merchants and mariners of our own and other countries, be it," &c.; and it is then enacted, that the preventing of the escape of any person endeavouring to save his life, or wounding him with intent to destroy him, or putting out false lights in order to bring any vessel into danger, shall be capital felony. By the same statute, the pilfering of any goods cast ashore is made petty larceny.

By statute 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. it is enacted, that any person or persons wilfully cutting away, injuring, or removing any buoy or buoy rope attached to any anchor or cable belonging to any ship, whether in distress or otherwise, shall be judged guilty of felony, and may, upon conviction, be transported for 7 years.

(For an account of the sums to be paid to those assisting in the saving of wreck, see art. SALVAGE)

ship or goods driven ashore. But in the legal sense of sea, it is distinguished by FLOTTAGE.

of civi- lisation and property of ship- rangers and enemies were *pergrinus dicebatur*.—uch inhospitable sentiments could not be otherwise put to death or sold as navigation were extended, was less repugnant to the pital offence to destroy per- cealing even of a plank from ver for the whole ship and

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in this Dictionary; see also the chapter on Salvage in Mr. Abbott's (*Lord Tenterden's*) work on the *Law of Shipping.*)

Number of Shipwrecks.—The loss of property by shipwreck is very great. It appears from an examination of *Lloyd's List* from 1798 to 1832, that the losses in the British mercantile navy only amounted, at an average of that period, to about 857 vessels a year, of the aggregate burden of about 66,000 tons, or to about 1-40th part of its entire amount in ships and tonnage. The following account of the casualties of British shipping in 1832 is taken from *Lloyd's List*:—*As Foreign Voyages.*—157 wrecked; 284 driven on shore, of which 294 are known to have been got off, and probably more; 21 foundered or sunk, 1 run down; 25 abandoned at sea, 8 of them afterwards carried into port; 12 condemned as unseaworthy; 6 upset, 1 of them righted; 37 missing, 1 of them a packet, no doubt foundered. *Coasters and Colliers.*—109 wrecked; 297 driven on shore, of which 121 known to have been got off, and probably many more; 67 foundered or sunk, 4 of them raised, 6 run down; 13 abandoned, 5 of them afterwards carried in; 3 upset, 2 of them righted; 16 missing, no doubt foundered. During the year, 4 steam vessels were wrecked; 4 driven on shore, but got off; and 2 sunk.

Of the prodigious number of ships that are thus annually engulfed, many are laden with valuable cargoes; and besides the immense loss of property, there is also a very great loss of life. It is believed, that a little more strength in the building, and care in the selection of the masters, would obviate many of these calamities. And nothing, we are assured, would contribute so much to improve the fabric of ships, as the adoption of the plan we have elsewhere recommended (p. 467.), of showing them to be built in bond, free of all duty.

During the last war with France, 32 ships of the line went to the bottom, besides 7 fifty-gun ships, 86 frigates, and a vast number of smaller vessels. And the losses sustained by the navies of France, Spain, Holland, Denmark, &c. must have very greatly exceeded those of ours. Hence, as Mr. Lyell has observed, it is probable that a greater number of monuments of the skill and industry of man will, in the course of ages, be collected together in the bed of the ocean, than will be seen at one time on the surface of the continents.—(*Principles of Geology*, 2d ed. vol. II. p. 265.)

Y.

YARD, a long measure used in England, of 3 feet, or 36 inches.—(See **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES**.)

YARN (*Ger. Garn; Du. Garen; Fr. Fil; It. Filato; Sp. Hilo; Port. Fio; Rus. Prasha*), wool, cotton, flax, &c. spun into thread.

Z.

ZAFFER, or **ZAFRE**. After the sulphur, arsenic, and other volatile parts of cobalt have been expelled by calcination, the residuum is sold, mixed or unmixed with fine sand, under the above name. When the residuum is melted with siliceous earth and potash, it forms a kind of blue glass, known by the name of smaltz.—(see **SMALTZ**),—of great importance in the arts. When smaltz is ground very fine, it receives in commerce the name of *powder blue* Zaffer, like smaltz, is employed in the manufacture of earthenware and China, for painting the surface of the pieces a blue colour. It suffers no change from the most violent fire. It is also employed to tinge the crystal glasses, made in imitation of opaque and transparent precious stones, of a blue colour. It is almost wholly brought from Germany.

Account of the Zaffer imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, with the Nett Duty thereon, in 1831 and 1832.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Duty.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1831	227,512	115	227,893	950
1832	206,935	448	263,952	417

The duty was reduced, in 1832, from 9s. 4d. to 1s. a cwt.

ZEAL, INDIAN CORN, OR MAIZE. See **MAIZE**.

ZEDOARY (*Ger. Zittuer; Fr. Zédoaire; It. Zedonia; Sp. Cedonia; Arab. Judwar; Hind. Nirbizi*), the root of a plant which grows in Malabar, Ceylon, Cochin-China, &c., of which there are 3 distinct species. It is brought home in pieces of various sizes, externally wrinkled, and of an ash colour, but internally of a brownish red. Those roots which are heavy and free from worms are to be chosen; rejecting those which are decayed and broken. The odour of Zedoary is fragrant, and somewhat like that of camphor; the taste biting, aromatic, and bitterish, with some degree of acrimony. It was formerly employed in medicine; but is scarcely ever used by modern practitioners.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ZINC, or **SPELTER** (*Ger. Zink; Fr. Zinc; It. Zinco; Sp. Zinco; Cinch; Rus. Schpinuter; Lat. Zincum*), a metal of a brilliant white colour, with a shade of blue, composed of a number of thin plates adhering together. When this metal is rubbed for some time between the fingers, they acquire a peculiar taste, and emit a very perceptible smell. It is rather soft; tingling the fingers, when rubbed upon them, with a black colour. The specific

gravity of melted zinc varies from 6·861 to 7·1, the lightest being esteemed the purest. When hammered, it becomes as high as 7·1908. This metal forms, as it were, the limit between the brittle and the malleable metals. Its malleability is by no means to be compared with that of copper, lead, or tin; yet it is not brittle, like antimony or arsenic. When struck with a hammer, it does not break, but yields, and becomes somewhat flatter; and by a cautious and equal pressure, it may be reduced to pretty thin plates, which are supple and elastic, but cannot be folded without breaking. When heated to about 400°, it becomes so brittle that it may be reduced to powder in a mortar. It possesses a certain degree of ductility, and may, with care, be drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is such, that a wire whose diameter is equal to 1-10th of an inch, is capable of supporting a weight of about 26 lbs. Zinc has never been found in a state of purity. The word zinc occurs for the first time in the writings of Paracelsus, who died in 1541; but the method of extracting it from its ores was not known till the early part of last century.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*) The compounds of zinc and copper are of great importance.—(See BRASS.)

Manufacture of Zinc, &c.—There used to be 3 smelting-houses for the preparation of zinc near Bristol, and 3 near Swansea, but they have been all abandoned, with the exception of 1 of the latter. The material used by the English manufacturer is blende, or black jack (sulphuret of zinc); it is commonly found with lead, and is procured of the best quality in Flintshire and the Isle of Man. Besides its employment in the manufacture of brass, bell metal, and other important compounds, zinc has of late years been formed into plates, and applied to many purposes for which lead was formerly used, such as the roofing of buildings, the manufacture of water-spouts, dairy pans, &c. Foreign zinc, being less brittle, is better fitted for rolling than that of England.

The duties on spelter, which were formerly prohibitory, have been reduced to 2*l.* a ton on that formed into plates, or cakes, and to 10*s.* on what is not in cakes; and, in consequence, considerable quantities are now imported, partly for home use, and partly for re-exportation to India and China. Foreign zinc is principally made at Gleinitz, in Upper Silesia; whence it is conveyed by an internal navigation to Hamburg. The freight from the latter to Hull and London is nominal merely; the wool-ships being glad to take it as ballast. Hainault, near Namur, has also some part of the spelter trade. A good deal of spelter is shipped from Hamburg for France and America.

Zinc is produced in the province of Yunnan, in China; and previously to 1830, large quantities of it were exported from that empire to India, the Malay Archipelago, &c. But about that time the free traders began to convey European spelter (principally German) to India; and being, though less pure, decidedly cheaper than the Chinese article, it has entirely supplanted the latter in the Calcutta market; lately, indeed, it has begun to be imported even into Canton.—(See TURKADO.) During the 3 years ended with 1832, the exports of foreign spelter from this country for India and China were, in 1830, 62,356 cwt.; 1831, 51,609; 1832, 37,499. And, exclusive of these, considerable quantities were exported from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c. We subjoin an

Account of the Zinc or Spelter Imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, and the Duties thereon, in 1831 and 1832.

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Duty.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	£.
1831	76,412	62,664	20,596	10,196
1832	62,764	49,740	25,914	5,784

The price of spelter declined within the last 3 or 4 years, from about 1*l.* to 9*s.* a ton; but it has recently rallied, and is now (April, 1834) about 11*l.* 10*s.* a ton in bond.

SUPPLEMENT.

The latest Supplement of the author was received when this edition had advanced as far as the article *Petersburgh*. Such portions of it, however, as have not been incorporated with the preceding pages, will be found in the present Supplement, with the letter S. affixed to each.—Additions to the body of the work in the last English edition are also inserted here, being distinguished by affixing to them the letter A.—*Am. Ed.*

BALTIMORE.

The Imports into Baltimore, during the year 1840, were,—

In American vessels,	\$ 4,282,755
In foreign do.	552,862
	\$ 4,835,617

The Exports were,—

Value of domestic productions,	
In American vessels,	\$ 4,096,139
In foreign do.	1,396,881
Total value of domestic exports,	\$ 5,493,020
Of foreign products in American vessels	210,810
do. foreign vessels,	51,040
Total value of exports,	\$ 5,756,870

Vessels arriving from foreign ports, 410—tons 82,000.
Do. departing to do. 461—tons 93,354.
Do. entering coastwise, 826
Vessels built in Baltimore—3 ships, 1 barque, 11 brigs, 43 schooners, 1 sloop, and 1 steamboat, in all sixty vessels—tons 6,553.

Inspections during the year 1840.

<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Wheat flour, barrels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">780,470</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Do. do. half barrels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">30,515</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Eye do. barrels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">5,910</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Corn meal, hogheads</td> <td style="text-align: right;">1,951</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Do. barrels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">12,593</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Do. half barrels</td> <td style="text-align: right;">83</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Oat meal, bbls.</td> <td style="text-align: right;">50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Total,</td> <td style="text-align: right; border-top: 1px solid black;">780,809</td> </tr> </table>	Wheat flour, barrels	780,470	Do. do. half barrels	30,515	Eye do. barrels	5,910	Corn meal, hogheads	1,951	Do. barrels	12,593	Do. half barrels	83	Oat meal, bbls.	50	Total,	780,809	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>Butter and lard—</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Butter</td> <td style="text-align: right;">124 174 156 15,990 16,453</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Lard</td> <td style="text-align: right;">68 146 1,083 20,066 21,363</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Total butter and lard,</td> <td style="text-align: right; border-top: 1px solid black;">29,127 head, or 15,086,179</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Beef cattle and hogs—</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Number of beef cattle,</td> <td style="text-align: right;">11,992 weight 11,300,233</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Do. hogs,</td> <td style="text-align: right;">17,345 do. 3,795,956</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Increase over last year,</td> <td style="text-align: right; border-top: 1px solid black;">21,329 head, or 11,363,809 weight.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Quercitron bark</td> <td style="text-align: right;">- - - hhds. 1,228</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Lumber</td> <td style="text-align: right;">- - - feet 32,000,000</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Sole leather and rough skirting, sides</td> <td style="text-align: right;">201,587</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Charcoal,—1,136 loads</td> <td style="text-align: right;">- - - bushels 104,339</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Lime</td> <td style="text-align: right;">- - - do. 176,280</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Firewood</td> <td style="text-align: right;">- - - cords 155,193</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Balied fish, various kinds, bbls. and $\frac{1}{2}$ bbls.</td> <td style="text-align: right;">89,636</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Domestic liquors—hhds. and bbls., say</td> <td style="text-align: right;">81,788</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Staves and heading—white oak, hhds. and bbls.</td> <td style="text-align: right;">479,816</td> </tr> <tr> <td>-red oak, do. 1,102,105—total</td> <td style="text-align: right;">1,508,021 pieces.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>New houses built during the year,</td> <td style="text-align: right;">437.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Hay and straw weighed during the year,</td> <td style="text-align: right;">6400 tons.</td> </tr> </table>	Butter and lard—		Butter	124 174 156 15,990 16,453	Lard	68 146 1,083 20,066 21,363	Total butter and lard,	29,127 head, or 15,086,179	Beef cattle and hogs—		Number of beef cattle,	11,992 weight 11,300,233	Do. hogs,	17,345 do. 3,795,956	Increase over last year,	21,329 head, or 11,363,809 weight.	Quercitron bark	- - - hhds. 1,228	Lumber	- - - feet 32,000,000	Sole leather and rough skirting, sides	201,587	Charcoal,—1,136 loads	- - - bushels 104,339	Lime	- - - do. 176,280	Firewood	- - - cords 155,193	Balied fish, various kinds, bbls. and $\frac{1}{2}$ bbls.	89,636	Domestic liquors—hhds. and bbls., say	81,788	Staves and heading—white oak, hhds. and bbls.	479,816	-red oak, do. 1,102,105—total	1,508,021 pieces.	New houses built during the year,	437.	Hay and straw weighed during the year,	6400 tons.
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BANKS. BANK OF ENGLAND.—It is apparent from the table on the following page, that there has been a very heavy drain for bullion upon the coffers of the Bank since November and December, 1838; and much diversity of opinion has prevailed as to the causes of this drain, and the nature of the efforts made by the Bank to defeat it. But the circumstances that occasioned the drain seem, notwithstanding, to be sufficiently obvious. The harvest of 1838 was the most deficient that has occurred in this country for several years; and, in proof of this, it is sufficient to mention, that while the quantities of foreign wheat and wheat flour entered for consumption in the United Kingdom in 1836 amounted to only 30,108 quarters, and in 1837 to 244,275 quarters, they rose in

Account of the Issues, Securities, Bullion, and Surplus or Rest, of the Bank of England, as published in the Gazette, according to the Act 3 & 4 Will. IV. cap. 96.

Average in the Quarters ending	Circulation.	Deposits.	Securities.	Bullion.	Rest.
	£	£	£	£	£
1 January, 1834	18,216,000	13,101,000	23,596,000	9,948,000	2,207,000
1 April, —	19,097,000	14,011,000	25,970,000	9,431,000	2,293,000
1 July, —	18,895,000	15,096,000	27,593,000	8,695,000	2,261,000
23 September, —	19,126,000	14,754,000	28,691,000	7,695,000	2,506,000
13 December, —	18,301,000	12,256,000	26,364,000	6,720,000	2,322,000
15 January, 1835	18,915,000	13,585,000	25,390,000	6,741,000	2,534,000
7 April, —	18,591,000	11,369,000	16,328,000	6,329,000	2,677,000
30 June, —	18,315,000	10,854,000	24,578,000	6,219,000	2,686,000
22 September, —	18,340,000	13,230,000	27,888,000	6,261,000	2,678,000
15 December, —	17,821,000	17,730,000	31,016,000	6,626,000	2,624,000
12 January, 1836	17,265,000	19,169,000	31,954,000	7,076,000	2,599,000
6 April, —	18,063,000	14,751,000	27,927,000	7,801,000	2,914,000
1 July, —	17,899,000	13,810,000	27,153,000	7,369,000	2,806,000
22 September, —	18,147,000	14,118,000	29,406,000	5,710,000	2,860,000
15 December, —	17,361,000	13,390,000	28,971,000	4,545,000	2,825,000
10 January, 1837	17,422,000	14,284,800	29,366,000	4,287,000	2,876,000
7 February, —	17,868,000	14,230,000	31,985,000	4,039,000	3,019,000
7 March, —	48,178,000	13,960,000	30,579,000	4,018,000	3,189,000
4 April, —	18,432,000	11,192,000	28,843,000	4,071,000	3,283,000
2 May, —	18,480,000	10,473,000	28,017,000	4,190,000	3,255,000
30 May, —	18,419,000	10,492,000	27,572,000	4,423,000	3,154,000
27 June, —	18,269,000	10,494,000	26,939,000	4,750,000	3,056,000
25 July, —	18,261,000	10,673,000	26,737,000	5,226,000	3,020,000
22 August, —	18,469,000	11,065,000	26,717,000	5,754,000	3,001,000
19 September, —	18,614,000	11,093,000	26,903,000	6,303,000	3,001,000
17 October, —	18,716,000	10,591,000	25,316,000	6,856,000	2,955,000
14 November, —	18,344,000	10,242,000	23,985,000	7,432,000	2,831,000
14 December, —	17,998,000	10,195,000	22,737,000	8,172,000	2,706,000
9 January, 1838	17,960,000	10,992,000	22,606,000	8,896,000	2,609,000
6 March, —	18,660,000	11,536,000	22,798,000	10,015,000	2,672,000
1 May, —	19,084,000	11,006,000	22,768,000	10,009,000	2,680,000
26 June, —	19,047,000	10,426,000	22,684,000	9,722,000	2,733,000
21 August, —	19,481,000	10,298,000	22,747,000	9,746,000	2,714,000
16 October, —	19,359,000	9,387,000	22,015,000	9,437,000	2,765,000
11 December, —	18,460,000	9,053,000	20,707,000	9,369,000	2,567,000
8 January, 1839	18,291,000	10,315,000	21,880,000	9,236,000	2,500,000
5 March, —	18,298,000	9,950,000	22,767,000	8,106,000	2,625,000
28 May, —	18,214,000	7,814,000	23,443,000	6,119,000	2,634,000
25 June, —	18,101,000	7,567,000	23,934,000	4,344,000	2,610,000
23 July, —	18,049,000	7,855,000	24,905,000	3,765,000	2,666,000
20 August, —	17,969,000	8,029,000	25,588,000	3,263,000	2,855,000
17 September, —	17,960,000	7,781,000	25,936,000	3,816,000	3,011,000
24 October, —	17,612,000	6,734,000	24,039,000	2,525,000	3,119,000

1838 to the enormous amount of 1,848,477 quarters, exclusive of a large amount of other grain. It should, however, be mentioned that the imports in 1838 only amounted to 1,355,119 quarters, about 500,000 quarters of the quantity taken into consumption in that year, having been previously imported in bond. Now, as the corn in bond had, no doubt, been all, or mostly all, paid for when imported, it is clear that the sum to be paid to foreigners for corn entered in 1838, was not so great by nearly a third part as, at first sight, it would appear to be. Still, however, the importation in 1838 was very large; it was also in a considerable degree unprecedented, being nearly three times as great as in 1837, more than five times greater than in 1836, and about twenty times as great as in 1835, so that from its suddenness it had a comparatively great effect in raising prices abroad. It was all but impossible that this extraordinary increase in the importation of foreign corn should not seriously affect the Exchange, and occasion a heavy drain for bullion. And by a singular coincidence, it so happened, that at the particular period when increased payments began to be required for foreign corn, there happened to be an unusual deficiency in the ordinary means of making them. In consequence of the real or supposed scarcity of cotton in the United States in 1838, and of the support given by the United States Bank, and other monied institutions in the United States, to the cotton planters and holders, a very considerable rise took place in the price of cotton: the necessary effect of this rise was to lessen the purchases made by the manufacturers, and to force them to narrow their business; so that at the very moment when a large extra foreign payment had to be made, there was an increase in the price, and consequent falling off in the production and export of cotton fabrics—that is, of by far the greatest article of export from this country. Vast quantities of American securities had also been purchased in our markets; and this necessarily either occasioned the transmission of money to America, or lessened the returns from that country, and in so far lessened our means of meeting the foreign demand for corn. The discredit of the Belgian Bank in the autumn of 1838 may also be mentioned as having occasioned a considerable extra demand for bullion.

It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that the exchange became unfavourable, and that there was a heavy drain for bullion on the Bank. But it is less easy to form a fair estimate of the measures taken by the Bank to meet this run. On the whole, however, we are inclined

Bank of England, as published
cap. 95.

Bullion.	Res.
£ 9,949,000	£ 2,207,000
9,431,000	2,293,000
8,935,000	2,261,000
7,935,000	2,509,000
6,780,000	2,522,000
6,741,000	2,534,000
6,329,000	2,677,000
6,216,000	2,625,000
6,261,000	2,679,100
6,626,000	2,624,000
7,076,000	2,599,000
7,601,000	2,914,000
7,395,000	2,806,000
5,719,000	2,860,000
4,545,000	2,825,000
4,287,000	2,876,000
4,032,000	3,010,000
4,016,000	3,189,000
4,071,000	3,263,000
4,190,000	3,255,000
4,423,000	3,154,000
4,750,000	3,056,000
5,223,000	3,040,000
5,754,000	3,001,000
6,303,000	3,001,000
6,856,000	2,955,000
7,432,000	2,831,000
8,172,000	2,706,000
8,895,000	2,609,000
10,015,000	2,672,000
10,002,000	2,680,000
9,782,000	2,735,000
9,748,000	2,714,000
9,437,000	2,765,000
9,362,000	2,567,000
9,326,000	2,500,000
8,106,000	2,625,000
5,119,000	2,631,000
4,344,000	2,610,000
3,785,000	2,666,000
3,265,000	2,555,000
2,816,000	3,011,000
2,525,000	3,119,000

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to think that on this, as on most similar occasions, the Bank evinced too much tenderness for what she conceived to be the interests of commerce, and did not vigorously enough commence reducing her issues when the drain for bullion had fairly set in. We, however, cordially approve of the Bank's policy in negotiating credits abroad, and endeavouring to restore the exchange to par by selling bills on the Continent, rather than by giving bullion for notes. In fact, sound policy would seem to dictate that the Bank should always hold a considerable amount of easily convertible foreign securities, and draw bills against them when the exchange is unfavourable. The plan of accumulating a large stock of bullion to be kept locked up in the Bank's coffers for no purpose whatever, except to meet the demand occasioned by a fall in the exchange, seems to be a very clumsy and costly device for doing that which would be more easily and cheaply done by the Bank holding foreign securities, and having credits on some of the principal foreign banks. She might, were she to adopt this plan, dispense with the half of what is now reckoned the proper supply of bullion; holding, in its stead, productive securities, which might always be sold at an advantage when the exchange is against us, or which might be pledged to the foreign banks for temporary loans. What merchants want during an adverse exchange, is good foreign bills, it being only in default of such that they export bullion; and the Bank, by supplying them with such bills, and getting, of course, her notes in exchange, is able to diminish her issues quite as effectually as if her notes were sent in for bullion. Another advantage of this plan is, that it goes far to obviate that internal discredit and alarm that are apt to be produced when the stock of bullion in the Bank is reduced unusually low. In fact, had the Bank not acted, in part at least, on this plan during the current year, the probability is that she must have suspended payments. In June and July last, the stock of bullion in her coffers was reduced to about 3,500,000*l.*; and as the drain still continued, had she endeavoured to meet it in the ordinary way, by paying away bullion for notes, her stock of the former would very speedily have been reduced so low as to occasion a home demand for it, which the Bank could not have met. The Bank should never, if it be possible to prevent it, allow her stock of bullion to sink below 4½ or 5 millions; and she may always keep it above this amount, in so far at least as the foreign demand is concerned, by selling bills drawn against foreign credits or securities. The Bank should also, consentaneously with the selling of bills, adopt the most efficient measures for preventing the notes she receives for them from getting again into circulation, either by raising the rate of interest, or by refusing (though the latter be a much more questionable policy) to discount certain classes of bills. It should always be borne in mind, that however a drain for gold may originate, the fact of its existence is of itself a conclusive proof that gold is more valuable abroad than here, and consequently that the currency is redundant. We are not, therefore, of the number of those who censure the Bank for having raised the rate of interest to 6 per cent. On the contrary, this was a measure that seems to have been imperatively required by the circumstances under which she was placed. At the same time, however, it must be admitted that the Bank allowed her stock of bullion to be reduced far below what is consistent either with her safety or with the safety of the great interests involved in her stability. She did not avail herself of her credit abroad so soon or so consistently as she might have done; and she does not appear to have made that early, systematical, and continuous reduction of her issues, required to adjust the exchange, and to bring the currency to its proper level. It is probable, indeed, as matters have turned out, that less hardship has been inflicted on individuals by the course the Bank has taken, than if she had resolutely followed up the course pointed out by principle, and withdrawn from circulation the notes received for bullion delivered for exportation and for foreign bills. But it is always bad policy, in such cases, to trust to fortuitous occurrences; and, in the long run, the safest plan, or that dictated by principle, is sure to be the best.

BANK OF IRELAND.—Account showing the Circulation of the Bank of Ireland from 1823 to 1830, both inclusive.

Years.	Large Notes.	Small Notes.	Post Bills.	Total Average Circulation.	Years.	Large Notes.	Small Notes.	Post Bills.	Total Average Circulation.
1823	£ 1,877,700	£ 1,868,000	£ 1,868,100	£ 5,073,800	1825	£ 1,541,800	£ 1,585,100	£ 1,147,700	£ 4,074,600
1824	1,538,200	1,431,600	2,180,800	5,150,600	1826	1,458,800	1,368,300	1,045,000	3,872,100
1825	1,369,300	1,477,600	2,662,500	5,509,400	1827	1,634,400	1,318,600	1,025,800	4,068,800
1826	1,504,700	2,844,200	1,738,000	4,806,900	1828	1,800,600	1,472,300	843,400	4,016,300
1827	1,460,200	1,481,200	1,441,200	4,382,600	1829	1,808,400	1,362,300	842,700	3,913,400
1828	1,540,200	1,668,800	1,375,900	4,584,900	1830	1,634,400	1,440,800	763,600	3,838,800
1829	1,615,200	1,468,300	1,363,700	4,447,200		1,708,500	1,087,400	638,200	3,424,100

Instead of the paragraph, vol. i. page 109, of this edition, beginning, "The committee seem to think that some regulation should be enacted,"—read the following:—

The committee seem to think that some regulation should be enacted, providing that a certain portion of its capital should be paid up before a bank begins business. But the better way would be to prohibit all advertising of nominal capital. This, in fact, is a mere device by which to entrap and delude the public. A bank is announced with a capital of 1,000,000*l.*, 2,000,000*l.*, or 3,000,000*l.*; and a great number of people, perhaps the majority

immediately conclude that there can be no risk in dealing with an establishment possessed of so great an amount of property. But what is the fact? The capital advertised is nominal merely; not more perhaps than a tenth or a fifth part of it has been received into the coffers of the bank, and we have nothing better than the statement of the bank proprietors, or their agents, that they will pay up the remainder, if necessary; of which necessity they of course are to be the only judges! Practically this is neither more nor less than a fraud upon the public; it is a contrivance for making 10,000*l.* pass in the public estimation for 100,000*l.*; and for procuring the same degree of credit to its holders. This, however, is not all. Where is the security that if a greater amount of capital were really required it would be forthcoming? The notion that the bulk of the shareholders in many, we are pretty sure we might safely say most, of the joint stock banks now in existence could pay up the full amount of their shares, is too ludicrous to deserve notice. We might as well call upon a man worth 5*l.* to extinguish a debt of 500*l.*

There can be no doubt, therefore, unless it be meant to affirm that deception and fallacious statements are indispensable to the success of joint stock banking schemes, that all advertising of nominal capitals should be put an end to; and that no association should be allowed to represent its capital as exceeding the sum actually paid up by the proprietors. But though this would obviate one source of fraud and deception, there would still be abundant means of practising on the credulity of the public at the disposal of parties inclined to use them. Admit that a bank has a capital of 500,000*l.* actually received into its coffers, what is to hinder the directors from lending out the whole of this sum, or even more, to themselves or to partners in the bank? or supposing them not to do this, who can tell whether the entire capital, or some considerable part of it, be not wholly engulfed in ruinous speculations? It is indeed alleged, and truly too, that this could not happen with any "respectable" bank, that "gentlemen of character" would not lend themselves to such transactions! Unluckily, however, there are no decisive marks or tests by which the public can, *a priori*, say what is or what is not a "respectable bank," or who is, or is not a "gentleman of character;" and it is not a little hazardous in such matters to indulge in speculative remarks. Hence it is that all banks are held to be respectable, that is, solvent, till the event prove the contrary; and that all gentlemen connected with banks are held to be "men of character," paragons in fact, of honour, honesty, and even intelligence, till their fraud or ignorance has involved hundreds or thousands in bankruptcy and ruin.

We do not state these circumstances in order to raise any prejudice against joint stock banks or other associations, for they apply equally to one, or to a small number of individuals; but we state them to show the folly of placing any reliance on statements as to the capital of any bank, or the character of its managers. Such statements may be either true or false; but, as the public cannot tell which, they are plainly good for nothing. The only real security is to be found, if it exist at all, in the names of the partners responsible for the debts and obligations of the bank. The number of such partners is a very inferior consideration. There cannot, in truth, be a greater error than to suppose that because a bank has a great number of partners, its security may be safely depended upon. A single individual worth 100,000*l.* is an incomparably better security than fifty individuals worth 2,000*l.* each; and a hundred individuals worth 1,000*l.* would hardly be any security at all; at least for a sum of 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* A private bank with six, may be a safer place of deposit than a joint stock bank with six hundred partners. Every thing depends upon the available *wealth* of those responsible for the debts of the concern; and hence the propriety and justice, whether the firm consist of one or of many partners, of publicly declaring and specifying their names.

We are decidedly hostile to a proposition we have heard mooted, and which seems to be countenanced by the committee on joint stock banks, for obliging all banks to establish a guarantee fund; that is, for obliging them to accumulate a *portion of their profits* as a reserve stock. But where is the security that such reserve would be always deducted from profits? The truth is, that bankrupt and fraudulent concerns, and none else, would gain by such a regulation; inasmuch as it would enable them, by appearing to be prosperous, the better to deceive the public, and to blind them as to the real state of their affairs. It is a good deal worse than absurd to induce the public to depend on guarantees that cannot be enforced, and which, consequently, must be good for nothing. The knowledge of who the partners are in a bank, and their unlimited responsibility, are the only securities that, speaking generally, are worth a pinch of snuff. If these cannot protect the public from fraud or loss, nothing else will; and the question will come to be, not whether the system should be reformed, but whether it should be abated as an incurable nuisance. On this ground also, we should be disposed to dissent from any attempt to prevent, by legislative enactment, the making of loans upon the credit of bank stock. We do not question the advantage of such a regulation, provided it were honestly carried into effect. But it is useless to say that, whenever the parties were disposed to defeat such a course, it would be quite inoperative.—S.

We have elsewhere (*Dict.* vol. i. p. 86.) said, that if the Bank of England could, with safety to herself, pay interest on deposits, as is done by the Scotch banks, it would be of the

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greatest service to the public. The joint stock banks formed, or being formed in the city, are undertaking this function, and are offering a fair rate of interest on deposits. If they succeed in this, they will confer no slight advantage on the community, and will become, as it were, so many savings banks for the middle classes, and for the rich as well as the poor. But the responsibilities this system will bring along with it are neither few nor small. A bank with a numerous body of partners of undoubted wealth and integrity that should give 2 per cent. interest on all deposits of 10*l.* and upwards, how short soever the period for which the deposit might remain in the bank, would, there is little doubt, speedily have ample funds at its disposal. In quiet and prosperous times, the system would work exceedingly well; and the bank and the public would be vastly well pleased with each other. But when the cycle of prosperity has gone by, and the cycle of adversity has begun; when the waters are out and the winds begin to blow; it is doubtful whether either the bank or its depositors may feel quite at ease. The former will probably raise the rate of interest; but it is doubtful whether that will have the wished-for effect. Should the exchange set against us, and the Bank of England be forced to narrow her issues, and should bankruptcy and a feeling of insecurity begin to prevail, as they have done hitherto on all similar occasions, a run for deposits may, and most probably will, be made upon the bank; and in such a case her situation, however well she may have been managed, will be most critical. She will be compelled to dispose of, or pledge securities in a market where they may be all but unsaleable; and it will be impossible for her suddenly to pull up in discounting, without exposing herself to the imminent danger of extra loss, by bringing on the stoppage of those who have been accustomed to trust to her for loans.

It will be said, perhaps, that this is all imaginary, and that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Scotland! But it would really be about as much to the purpose to say that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Japan. London is the pivot on which the foreign exchanges turn, and when they become depressed, many of the London depositors will do what the Scotch depositors never so much as dreamed of; that is, they will demand their deposits, convert them into gold, and either send this gold abroad, or get a profit from those who will. From this source of annoyances and loss the Scotch banks are perfectly free; and this, by exhausting the resources of the London banks, and subjecting the weaker ones to difficulties, occasions discredit, and, in the end, runs or panics. Nothing, therefore, can be more perfectly futile than to contend that, because this system has proved profitable for the Scotch banks, it will also be profitable for the London banks. We do not presume to affirm that such will not, and we hope that it may be the case. But it would be rather illogical to affirm, because wheat succeeds remarkably well in the vale of Gloucester, that it will succeed equally well on the Welsh mountains.

The joint stock banks may, if they do not already, endeavour to obviate some of the difficulties now stated, by declining to pay interest on deposits unless they lie for a certain time, or by stipulating for a certain notice before they are paid. The first condition would, however, be of little effect in the evil day; but, either the one condition or the other is altogether subversive of what is meant by granting interest on deposits, and goes far to make the announcements to that effect little better than a hoax upon the public. All, or nearly all, the existing banks, are banks of deposits in this sense of the word; that is, they give interest on deposits of a certain amount, provided they be not called for till after the lapse of an agreed-on period, and that the depositors give them no farther trouble. But it is doubtful whether money deposited at 2 per cent. under such conditions, and still more under an engagement to give notice of demand, be as well laid out as if it were deposited with the Bank of England, or any other bank of undoubted solidity, at no interest, but payable on demand. Most men of business would, we believe, prefer the latter. Nobody, indeed, not wishing to get into difficulties, would be disposed to deal with any bank that required notice of demand; and it is questionable whether any such stipulation should be sanctioned by law.—S.

After the paragraph ending in the middle of page 110 of this edition, read the following:

But it is unnecessary to go back, even so far as 1836, for conclusive proofs that the issues of private banks are not governed by any principle other than the supposed interests of the parties. We have already seen that the Bank of England did not contract her issues so vigorously or systematically as she should have done when the supply of bullion in her coffers began to be reduced towards the end of 1838. Still, however, she did reduce her issues. During the quarter ending the 18th of September, 1838, the issues of the Bank of England amounted to 19,855,000*l.*; and they were progressively reduced till, in the quarter ending the 30th of June, 1839, they amounted to 18,101,000*l.*, being a reduction of about 1½ million. The reduction was also accompanied by a rapid diminution of the bullion in the Bank's coffers, by a rise in the rate of interest, and by great apprehensions in all moderately well-informed quarters as to what might be the ultimate result. Now what was the conduct of the joint stock and private banks during this period? Did they make any reduction of their issues, or did they so much as abstain from increasing them? No such thing! on the contrary, their issues, which amounted to 11,364,602*l.* at an average of the quarter endin-

the 29th of September, 1838, rose to 12,375,812L during the quarter ending the 29th of June, 1839, being an increase of about one million during the very period in which the Bank of England had reduced her issues 1½ millions! And but for the increasing difficulty of obtaining pecuniary accommodation in London, and the rise in the rate of interest, they would, no doubt, have gone on increasing their issues though the bank had been drained of her last shilling.

We do not, however, blame the joint stock and private banks for this: the government and legislature are the real culprits. What can be expected from a system which permits every cobbler and cheesemonger, and every association, how bankrupt soever in fortune and character, to usurp the royal prerogative, and issue paper money at pleasure? But though all private bankers, and all managers of joint stock banking companies, were patterns of honesty and intelligence, the result would not be materially different. The evil lies far more in the number than in the character of the issuers. When bullion is leaving the country, and the Bank of England is narrowing her issues and raising the rate of interest, many, perhaps we might say the majority, of the country bankers see that danger is abroad, and that they should also contract their issues; but being a very numerous body, comprising the managers of several hundred establishments scattered over all parts of the kingdom, jealous of each other, and with rival and opposing interests, no sort of concert ever prevails among them. Each is also impressed with the well-founded conviction, that all that he could do in the way of contraction would be all but imperceptible; and no one ever thinks of attempting it so long as he feels satisfied of the stability of those with whom he deals. On the contrary, every banker knows, were he to withdraw a portion of his notes, that some of his competitors would, most likely, embrace the opportunity of filling up the vacuum so created; and that consequently he should lose a portion of his business, without in any degree lessening the amount of paper afloat. Hence in nineteen out of twenty instances the country banks go on increasing their aggregate issues long after the exchange has been notoriously against the country, and the Bank of England has been striving to pull up. The fact is, that ruinous fluctuations in its amount and value are of the very essence of a currency supplied by different issuers. If the country continue to tolerate the latter, it must unavoidably continue to suffer the perpetual recurrence of the former.

I.—Return of all Places where United or Joint Stock Banks have been established under the Act 7 Geo. IV. c. 45, in ENGLAND and WALES; with the Dates when such Banks were established, and the Number of Partners therein, down to the 5th of January, 1839.

Name of the Bank.	Place.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1836.	1837.	1838.
Ashton, Stalybridge, Hyde, and Glossop Bank.	Ashton-under-Lyne	18 June 1830	328	317	292
Bank of Bolton	Bolton	30 May 1830	163	163	165
Bank of Birmingham	Birmingham	3 Aug. 1832	251	245	240
Bank of Liverpool	Liverpool	23 April 1831	526	503	520
Bank of Manchester	Manchester, Stockport, Bolton, Newtown and Llandiloes.	10 Mar. 1835	648	677	660
Bank of Stockport	Stockport	3 May 1830	304	231	315
Bank of Walsall and South Staffordshire.	Walsall and Penkridge	10 Aug. 1835	153	154	149
Bank of South Wales	Carmarthen	26 Feb. 1835	7	-	-
Bank of Westmoreland	Kendal	8 June 1833	153	153	153
Bank of Whitehaven	Whitehaven and Wigton	23 Jan. 1837	-	123	121
Barnsley Banking Company	Barnsley	25 Jan. 1838	116	119	111
Bilston District Banking Co.	Bilston	31 Aug. 1836	150	150	131
Birmingham Banking Co.	Birmingham	20 Sept. 1839	304	295	465
Birmingham Borough Bank	Birmingham	28 Mar. 1837	-	116	90
Birmingham and Midland Bank	Birmingham	18 Aug. 1836	277	265	160
Birmingham Town and District Banking Company.	Birmingham	4 July 1836	599	398	397
Bradford Banking Company	Bradford	7 July 1837	170	167	165
Bradford Commercial Joint Stock Banking Company.	Bradford	27 Feb. 1833	159	155	159
Bristol Old Bank	Bristol	16 June 1836	8	7	7
Bury Banking Company	Bury	14 June 1836	104	110	108
Carlisle City and District Banking Company.	Carlisle and Cockermouth	20 Feb. 1837	-	280	315
Carlisle and Cumberland Banking Company.	Carlisle, Wigton and Appleby	8 Oct. 1836	224	284	275
Central Bank of Liverpool	Liverpool	3 Dec. 1836	54	-	40
Cheltenham and Gloucestershire Bank.	Cheltenham and Tewkesbury	19 May 1836	143	151	157
Chesterfield and North Derbyshire Banking Company.	Chesterfield	31 Dec. 1831	96	97	96
Commercial Bank of England	Ashbourn, Birmingham, Blackburn, Burnley, Liverpool, Preston, Rochdale, Burslem, Hailey, Leek, Uttoxeter, Ludlow, Newport, Shrewsbury, Whitechurch, and Chester.	1 July 1834	674	664	627

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Table I.—continued.

Name of the Bank.	Place.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1826.	1837.	1838.
County of Gloucester Bank	Gloucester, Cheltenham, Burford, Cirencester, Farringdon, Tetbury, Dursley, Stroud, and Northleach.	1 Aug. 1830	305	351	376
Coventry Union Banking Company.	Coventry, Atherstone, Coleshill, Leamington and Tamworth.	19 May 1836	161	151	153
Coventry and Warwickshire Banking Company.	Coventry and Nuneaton	13 Dec. 1835	313	264	376
Cumberland Union Banking Company.	Workington, Cockermouth, Maryport, Wigton, Penrith, and Keswick.	12 Mar. 1839	140	146	140
Darlington District Joint Stock Banking Company.	Darlington, Stockton, Northallerton, Barnard Castle, Stokesley, Gulesborough, Hartlepool, Easingwold, Middlesbrough, Brough, Stagshaw Bank, Durham, Ronsdale, and Middleton in Teesdale.	23 Dec. 1831	353	350	341
Derby and Derbyshire Banking Company.	Derby and Belper	28 Dec. 1833	301	192	187
Devon and Cornwall Banking Company.	Plymouth, Devonport, Exeter, Kingsbridge, Tavistock, Totnes, Ashburton, St. Austell, Liskeard, Crediton, Bodmin, Dartmouth, Newton Abbots, Collyer, and Launceston.	31 Dec. 1831	337	300	196
Dudley and West Bromwich Banking Company.	Dudley and West Bromwich	30 Dec. 1833	192	185	170
East of England Bank	Norwich, Aylsham, East Dereham, Fakenham, Foulsham, Kenninghall, North Walsham, Thetford, Great Yarmouth, Beccles, Bungay, Halesworth, Harleston, Lowestoft, Wrentham, Ipswich, Eye, Saxmundham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Swaffham, Watton, Bury St. Edmund's, Izorham, Mildenhall, Lynn, and Downham.	27 Feb. 1836	534	541	501
Glamorganshire Banking Co.	Swansea and Neath	8 Sept. 1836	63	107	102
Gloucestershire Banking Co.	Gloucester, Cheltenham, Stroud, Tewkesbury, Newnham, and Evesham.	28 June 1831	259	248	258
Hallifax Joint Stock Bank's Co.	Hallifax	11 Nov. 1829	302	207	207
Hallifax Commercial Bank's Co.	Hallifax	21 June 1836	169	167	164
Hallifax and Huddersfield Union Bank.	Hallifax and Huddersfield	29 June 1836	406	408	394
Hampshire Banking Company	Southampton, Fareham, and Romsey.	30 April 1834	150	152	172
Helston Banking Company	Helston	4 Aug. 1836	14	19	17
Herefordshire Banking Co.	Hereford, Ross, Leominster, Coleford, Hay, Worcester, Evesham, and Pershore.	5 Aug. 1836	200	126	131
Huddersfield Banking Co.	Huddersfield	7 June 1827	332	326	390
Hull Banking Company	Hull, Barton, Beverley, Goolds, Grimby, Lincoln, and Louth.	30 Nov. 1833	245	239	240
Imperial Bank of England	Manchester, Macclesfield, Congleton, Nantwich, Northwich, Knutsford, and Sandbach.	16 Dec. 1836	637	656	654
Knaresborough and Clare Banking Company.	Knaresborough, Easingwold, Wetherby, Ripon, Helmsley, Thirsk, Boroughbridge, Masham, Pateley Bridge, Otley, and Harrowgate.	14 Sept. 1831	162	162	161
Lancaster Banking Company	Lancaster, Ulverston, and Preston.	9 Oct. 1826	129	127	135
Leamington Bank	Leamington	8 May 1835	172	165	167
Leamington Friars and Warwickshire Banking Company.	Leamington, Warwick, Southam, Kenilworth, and Sandbury.	27 Aug. 1835	133	111	104
Leeds Banking Company.	Leeds	22 Nov. 1832	421	430	396
Leeds Commercial Banking Co.	Leeds	21 June 1836	223	216	221
Leeds and West Riding Banking Company.	Leeds and Bradford	28 Nov. 1835	225	245	224
Leicester Banking Company	Leicester, Ashby de la Zouch, Hinckley, Market Harborough, and Melton Mowbray.	28 Aug. 1829	140	139	144
Lichfield Banking Company	Lichfield	23 Nov. 1827	9	9	9
Lichfield, Rugeley, and Tamworth Banking Company.	Lichfield, Rugeley, and Tamworth	21 Nov. 1835	144	158	150
Lincoln and Lindsey Banking Company.	Lincoln, Gainsborough, Louth, Horncastle, Brigg, Market Rasen, Calster, Skefford, Alford, Epworth, Spillaby and Partney.	10 Aug. 1833	236	225	260

ending the 29th of every period in which the increasing difficulty of the rate of interest, they had been drained of

for this: the government a system which permits to recover in fortune and pleasure? But though panics, were patterns of The evil lies far more in leaving the country, of interest, many, per- ger is abroad, and that as body, comprising the of the kingdom, jealous exert ever prevails among at all that he could do in ever thinks of attempting deals. On the contrary, that some of his competi- vacuum so created; and t in any degree lessening nances the country banks been notoriously against . The fact is, that ruin- f a currency supplied by must unavoidably continue

published under the Act 7 Geo. re established, and the Num-

Year.	Number of Partners.		
	1826.	1837.	1838.
1830	268	317	292
1830	163	183	165
1830	251	245	240
1831	526	503	528
1830	648	677	660
1836	364	321	315
1835	152	154	149
1835	7		
1833	153	153	153
1837		123	121
1833	116	112	111
1836	150	150	131
1836	304	298	465
1837		116	90
1836	277	285	180
1836	596	598	397
1827	170	167	165
1833	158	155	159
1836	8	7	7
1836	104	110	109
1837		280	315
1836	224	284	275
1836	84		40
1836	143	151	157
1831	60	97	96
1834	674	664	657

Table L.—continued.

Name of the Bank.	Place.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1894.	1897.	1898.
Liverpool Albin Bank.	Liverpool.	23 Mar. 1836	819	424	364
Liverpool Banking Company.	Liverpool.	13 May 1836	310	301	192
Liverpool Borough Bank.	Liverpool.	25 June 1836	293	427	401
Liverpool Phoenix Bank.	Liverpool.	28 Jan. 1837	-	124	128
Liverpool Commercial Banking Company.	Liverpool.	30 Dec. 1838	269	311	306
Liverpool Union Bank.	Liverpool.	4 May 1835	223	241	328
Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company.	Manchester, Liverpool, Oldham, Ashton-under-Lyne, Foston, Warrington, Bury, Blackburn, Wigan, Stalybridge, Rochdale, Stockport, Nantwich, Hyde, Hasley, Stalford, Burnstam, Leek, Lane, Rad, Cheshire, Rugeley, Market Drayton, and Glossop.	26 Nov. 1836	1,037	1,302	1,267
Manchester and Salford Bank.	Manchester.	15 June 1836	292	339	323
Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire Banking Company.	Newport, Pontypool, Chepstow, Usk, Tredegar, Ironworks, Abergavenny, Monmouth, Lydney, Cardiff, Bridgend, and Swansea.	20 July 1836	308	341	328
Moore & Robinson, Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	Nottingham.	12 July 1836	152	146	157
National Provincial Bank of England.	Aberystwith, Amlwch, Barnstaple, Torrington, Bath, Shepton-Mallet, Castle Cary, Marshfield, Bideford, Birmingham, Boston, Spalding, Brecon, Hay, Bristol, Bury St. Edmund's, Cardiff, Bridgend, Cowbridge, Cheltenham, Darlington, Barnard Castle, Devonport, Dolegelly, Balla, Wexham, Dursley, Exeter, Okehampton, Gloucester, Hereford, Hoxton, Ilfracombe, Ipswich, Woodbridge, Kingsbridge, Leicester, Lichfield, Manchester, Peterborough, Whitless, Croxland, Ramey, Plymouth, Fwibell, Fortmadoc, Ramegate, Rugby, Rugeley, Stockton, Southmolton, Southampton, Tamworth, Tiverton, Wam, Whitechurch, Wisbeach, Chatteris, Long Sutton, Holbeach, March, Worcester, Ledbury, Bromyard, Wotton-under-Edge, Sodbury, Yarmouth, Halesworth, and Lowestoft.	27 Dec. 1833	610	800	713
Newcastle Commercial Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne.	16 July 1836	336	134	162
Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland Union Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Sunderland, Alnwick, Morpeth, Hexham, Alston, Hartlepool, Durham, and Bishop Auckland.	11 July 1836	468	446	462
Newcastle-upon-Tyne Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne.	27 June 1836	65	71	55
North and South Wales Bank.	Dolgelly, Festinog, Bala, Machynlleth, Fwibell, Welshpool, Bishop's Castle, Llanidloes, Oswestry, Llanfyllin, Ruthin, Carnarvon, Chester, Danbigh, Mold, Aberystwith, Wrexham, Newtown, Bangor, Llangollen, Holyhead, Llanwrthwl, Holywell, Eilemmer, Tremadoc, St. Asaph, Conway, Amlwch, Cardigan, Carmarthen, Brecon, Llanelli, Llanidlo, Swansea, Merthyr Tydfil, Cardiff, Neath, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Kingston, Abergavenny, Newport, and Shrewsbury.	30 April 1836	608	520	476
Northamptonshire Union Bank.	Northampton, Wellingborough, and Daventry.	13 May 1836	512	419	420
Northamptonshire Banking Co.	Northampton, Daventry, Wellingborough, and Stamford.	22 May 1836	233	317	316
Northern and Central Bank of England.	Manchester.	18 Mar. 1864	1,337	1,171	1,068

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Table L.—continued.

Year	Number of Partners.		
	1896.	1897.	1898.
1896	519	424	364
1896	319	261	192
1896	263	447	401
1897	-	124	126
1898	209	311	306
1898	283	241	338
1899	1,037	1,308	1,287
1896	392	239	225
1896	338	241	328
1896	153	146	157
1897	619	600	712
1896	338	134	162
1896	468	446	462
1896	65	71	55
1896	608	520	476
1896	512	419	420
1896	223	217	316
1898	1,237	1,171	1,068

Name of the Bank.	Places.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1896.	1897.	1898.
Northumberland and Durham District Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Alwick, Morpeth, and Sunderland.	23 May 1836	654	364	363
North Wilts Banking Company	Melkham, Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge, Calce, Chippenham, Corham, Westbury, Warminster, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Swindon, Highworth, and Wotton Bassett.	6 Nov. 1835	246	240	228
Nottingham and Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	Nottingham, Newark, Mansfield, Worksop, East Retford, Tuxford, and Loughborough.	19 April 1834	355	241	334
North of England Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Sunderland, Berwick-upon-Tweed, Morpeth, Hexham, Durham, Wooler, Alston, Elythe, Alnwick, Belford, Hawthorpe, Bishop Auckland, Wolsingham, Stanhope, Stockton, Darlington, Hartlepool, Sedgfield, and Bernard Castles.	30 Mar. 1832	622	625	610
Oldham Banking Company.	Oldham.	30 Sept. 1836	64	66	56
Parva' Leicestershire Banking Company.	Ricceley, Malton, Mowbray, Loughborough, and Leicester.	15 Mar. 1849	49	46	53
Royal Bank of Liverpool.	Liverpool.	30 April 1826	214	258	237
Saddleworth Banking Company.	Saddleworth, Ashton-under-Lyne, and Oldham.	29 June 1833	112	110	107
Sheffield Banking Company.	Sheffield and Rotherham.	24 June 1831	205	203	210
Sheffield and Hullamshire Banking Company.	Sheffield.	30 May 1836	808	617	638
Sheffield and Rotherham Joint Stock Banking Company.	Sheffield, Rotherham, and Sake-well.	25 June 1836	269	275	275
Shropshire Banking Company.	Shifnal, Wellington, Newport, and Coalbrook Dale.	27 May 1836	222	276	270
South Lancashire Bank.	Manchester.	25 May 1836	753	411	362
Southern District Banking Company.	Southampton, Guernsey, Jersey, Portsmouth, Portsea, Gosport, Newport, Ryde, and Cowes.	22 Nov. 1837	-	124	109
Stamford, Spalding, and Boston Joint Stock Banking Co.	Stamford, Bourn, Spalding, Market Deeping, Boston, Epshay, Crowland, Wainfleet, Bough, Swineshead, Holbeach, Grantham, Oundle, Peterborough, Oakham, and Uppingham.	26 Dec. 1831	91	86	87
Stockton and Durham County Bank.	Stockton-on-Tees.	6 Dec. 1836	-	-	122
Stourbridge and Kidderminster Banking Company.	Stourbridge, Kidderminster, Stratford-on-Avon, Henley-in-Arden, Bromsgrove, Redditch, Shipston-on-Stour, Chipping Norton, Morton-in-Marsh, and Alcester.	9 April 1834	286	220	195
Stuckey's Banking Company.	Bristol, Bridgewater, Taunton, Langport, Wells, Bath, Frome, Shepton Mallet, Glastonbury, Wincanton, Chard, Crewkerne, Yeovil, Axbridge, Banwell, Weston-super-Mare, Midsomer Norton, Bruton, Castle Cary, Ilchester, Somerton, South Petherton, Marlock, Bminster, Wellington, Williton, and Stowey.	9 Oct. 1826	39	28	47
Sunderland Joint Stock Banking Company.	Sunderland.	4 Aug. 1836	150	145	145
Swaldale and Wensleydale Banking Company.	Richmond, Leyburn, Bedale, Hawes, Reeth, Middleham, Akrigg, Masham, Northallerton, and Ripon.	30 Dec. 1836	224	223	218
Union Bank of Manchester.	Manchester.	6 May 1836	605	449	411
Wakefield Banking Company.	Wakefield.	25 Oct. 1832	200	192	186
Warwick and Leamington Banking Company.	Warwick, Leamington, Alcester, Stratford-on-Avon, Southam, Henley-in-Arden, and Shipston-on-Stour.	10 Sept. 1834	323	195	111
West of England and South Wales District Bank.	Bristol, Bath, Barnstaple, Bridgewater, Cardiff, Exeter, Newport, Taunton, Wells, Axbridge, Glastonbury, Merthyr, and Somerton.	23 Dec. 1834	541	558	565
Western District Banking Company.	Plymouth, Falmouth, Devonport, Totnes, Truro, Penzance, Kingsbridge, and St. Columb.	1 Sept. 1830	278	312	322

Table I.—continued.

Name of the Bank.	Places.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1896.	1897.	1898.
West Riding Union Banking Company.	Huddersfield, Dewsbury, and Wakefield.	20 Dec. 1832	498	461	460
Whitehaven Joint Stock Banking Company.	Whitehaven and Fearnth	25 May 1826	287	215	228
Wilt and Dorset Banking Company.	Salisbury, Warrminster, Devizes, Trowbridge, Chippenham, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wotton Bassett, Mere, Frome, Yeovil, Dorchester, Blandford, Wimborne, Sherborne, Gillingham, Fordingbridge, Christchurch, Lyminster, and Axminster.	11 June 1836	485	454	442
Wolverhampton and Staffordshire Banking Company.	Wolverhampton	28 Dec. 1831	238	234	230
York City and County Banking Company	York, Malton, Selby, Howden, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Ripon, and Goole.	2 Mar. 1830	267	266	263
York Union Banking Company	York, Driffield, Bridlington, Thirsk, Malton, Pocklington, Helmsley, Kirby Moorside, Market Weighton, Tadcaster, and Pickering.	23 April 1833	267	267	271
Yorkshire Agricultural and Commercial Banking Co.	York, Whitby, Driffield, Malton, Hull, Leeds, and Pocklington.	27 July 1836	756	604	618
Yorkshire District Bank	York, Hull, Sheffield, Halifax, Leeds, Doncaster, Hawtry, Thorne, Selby, Thirsk, Northallerton, Easingwold, Malton, Bradford, Ponsafract, Skipton, Knaresborough, Otley, Wetherby, Ripon, Paisley Bridge, Masham, Huddersfield, Beverley, North Cave, Dewsbury, Barnsley, Richmond, Wakefield, Settle, and Gisburn.	30 July 1834	1,006	1,113	1,053

2.—A RETURN of the Joint Stock Banks existing in SCOTLAND, on the 5th of January, 1899; specifying the Date of the Establishment of each Bank, the Number and Situation of its Branches (where it has any), and the Number of Partners in each Bank, during each of the Years 1896, 1897, and 1898.

Name of the Bank, and Situation of the Head Office.	Year when established.	Number of Branches, and Towns where Branches are established.		Number of Partners.			
		No.	Branches at 5th of January, 1899.	1896.	1897.	1898.	
1. The Bank of Scotland Head office, Edinburgh.	1695	29	Banchory, Aberdeen, and Fraserburgh, Aberdeenshire. Cumnock, Kilmarnock, and Ayr, Ayrshire. Whitburn, Wigtownshire. Dumfries, Dumfries-shire. Dundee and Montrose, Forfarshire. Dunfermline, Kirkcaldy, and St. Andrew's, Fifeshire. Dunse and Lander, Berwickshire. Leith, Mid Lothian. Falkirk and Stirling, Stirling-shire. Glasgow, Aldrie, and Strathaven, Lanarkshire. Haddington, Haddingtonshire. Inverness, Inverness-shire. Kelso, Roxburghshire. Kirkcudbright, Kirkcudbrightshire. Perth, Perthshire. Stovehaven, Kincardineshire. Greenock and Paisley, Renfrewshire.				
2. The Royal Bank of Scotland. Head office, Edinburgh.	1737	7	Greenock and Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Dundee, Forfarshire. Dalkeith and Leith, Mid Lothian. Rothesay, Bute-shire. (Rothesay and Port Glasgow being sub-agencies to Greenock.)				
3. The British Linen Company. Head office, Edinburgh.	1746	44	Wishaw, Carlisle, Glasgow, and Hamilton, Lanarkshire. Golspie, Sutherlandshire. Irvine, Ayrshire. Paisley, Renfrewshire. Annan, Dumfries, Langholm, and Sanquhar, Dumfries-shire. Leith, Mid Lothian. Aberdeen, Aberdeenshire. Arbroath, Montrose, Dundee, Brechin, and Kerriemuir, Forfarshire. Castle Donington, Kirkcudbrightshire. Coldstream and Dunse, Berwickshire. Cupar,				

Being chartered banks, these make no return of partners.

Table II.—continued.

Name of the Bank and Situation of the Head Office.	Year when established.	Number of Branches, and Towns where Branches are established.		Number of Partners.		
		No.	Branches at 6th of January, 1896.	1856.	1857.	1858.
13. The Greenock Bank Head office, Greenock.	- - -	3	Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Fort Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Rothesay, Buteshire.	(Private Bank.)		
13. The Leith Bank Head office, Leith.	- - -	11	Musselburgh, and Portobello, Mid Lothian, and also Edinburgh, and Dalkeith. Callender, Doune, and Crieff, Perthshire. Galashiels, Selkirkshire. Stirling, Falkirk, and Stenhousemuir, Stirlingshire.	9	9	
14. The Paisley Bank Head office, Paisley.	- - -	-	Discontinued 20th of Nov. 1832.	4	4	
15. The Perth Banking Co. Head office, Perth.	- - -	3	Dunkeld and Crieff, Perthshire. Cupar-Angus, Forfarshire.	185	162	182
16. The Renfrewshire Banking Company. Head office, Greenock.	- - -	5	Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Inverary and Campbelltown, Argyleshire. Rothesay, Buteshire.	(Private Bank.)		
17. The Paisley Union Bank Head office, Paisley.	1809	-	Joined to Glasgow Union Banking Company.	3	3	
18. The Aberdeen Town and County Bank. Head office, Aberdeen.	1825	11	Wick, Thurao, and Pultney-town, Caithness-shire. Huntly, Ellon, Inverury, and Peterhead, Aberdeenshire. Dingwall, Ross-shire. Stonehaven, Kincardineshire. Keith, Banffshire. Golspie, Sutherlandshire.	470	474	491
19. The Arbroath Bank Head office, Arbroath.	1835	1	Forfar, Forfarshire.	81	83	80
20. The Dundee Commercial Bank. Head office, Dundee.	1825	-	Dissolved, 10th of October, 1833.	146	137	141
21. The Glasgow Union Banking Company. Head office, Glasgow.	1830	20	Johnstone, Greenock, Paisley, Edinburgh, Mid Lothian, Port Glasgow, and Neilston, Renfrewshire. Inverary and Lochgilphead, Argyleshire. Stranraer, Wigtonshire. Lerwick, Island of Shetland. Ayr, Stewarton, and Belth, Ayrshire. Alloa, Clackmannanshire. Kincardine, Kincardineshire. Auchtermuchty, Fifeshire. Bathgate, Linlithgowshire. Strathaven, Lanarkshire. Moffat, and Thornhill, Dumfries-shire.	453	464	506
22. The Ayrshire Banking Company. Head office, Ayr.	1831	7	Ardrossan, Girvan, Maybole, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Saltcoats, and Cumnock, Ayrshire.	98	104	97
23. The Western Bank of Scotland. Head office, Glasgow.	1823	21	Coatbridge, Airdrie, Hamilton, and Lanark, Lanarkshire. Kirkcubright, Dumbartonshire. North Berwick, and Haddington, Haddingtonshire. Campsie, and Kilsyth, Stirlingshire. Dalry, and Largo, Ayrshire. Greenock, Paisley, and Lochwinnoch, Renfrewshire. Edinburgh, Musselburgh, and Portobello, Mid Lothian. Dumfries, and Locherbie, Dumfries-shire. Alloa, Clackmannanshire. Bialgowrie, Perthshire.	497	454	469
24. The Central Bank of Scotland. Head office, Perth.	1834	7	Aberfeldy, Auchterarder, Pitlochry, Dunkeld, Killin, and Crieff, Perthshire. Newburgh, Fifeshire.	469	402	465
25. The North of Scotland Banking Company. Head office, Aberdeen.	1836	-	Fraserburgh, Alford, Tarland, Huntley, Turriff, Ellon, Old Deer, Strichen, Old Meldrum, Inverury, and Inch, Aberdeenshire. Keith, Dufftown, Abercherder, Macduff, and Banff, Banffshire. Elgin, Morayshire. Tain, and Invergordon, Cromartyshire.	830	833	1,504
26. The Clydesdale Banking Company. Head office, Glasgow.	1837	1	Edinburgh, Mid Lothian.	-	731	618
27. The Southern Bank of Scotland. Head office, Dumfries.	1837	5	Newton-Stewart, Whithorn, Stranraer, and Locherbie, Dumfries-shire. New Galloway, Kirkcubrightshire.	-	-	226
28. Eastern Bank of Scotland. Head office, Dundee.	1838	1	Edinburgh, Mid Lothian.	-	-	774
29. Edinburgh and Leith Bank Head office, Edinburgh.	1838	-	-	-	-	785

Note.—No. 1, being established by Act of Parliament, and Nos. 2, 3, 4 and 6, incorporated by Royal Charter, do not require to be in the List of Partners, in pursuance of the Act 7 Geo. 4. c. 67. The other establishments of Nos. 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16, not so incorporated, but licensed to issue Notes in the year 1806, when the License Duties were first imposed.

II.—An Account of the aggregate Number of Notes circulated in England and Wales by Private Banks, and by Joint-Stock Banks and their Branches, distinguishing Private from Joint-Stock Banks.—From Returns directed by 3 and 4 Will. c. 83.

Quarters ended,		Private Banks.	Joint-Stock Banks.	Total.
		£	£	£
31 Dec.	1836	7,753,500	4,254,197	12,017,697
1 April,	1837	7,874,784	3,755,378	11,630,162
1 July,	—	7,187,073	3,694,704	10,881,777
30 Sept.	—	6,701,795	3,341,053	10,042,848
30 Dec.	—	7,043,470	3,498,053	10,541,523
31 March,	1838	7,035,473	3,321,039	10,356,512
30 June,	—	7,393,247	4,268,454	11,661,701
29 Sept.	—	7,093,811	4,281,151	11,374,962
31 Dec.	—	7,699,943	4,683,548	12,383,491
30 March,	1839	7,652,104	4,617,368	12,269,472
29 June,	—	7,810,708	4,665,110	12,475,818
28 Sept.	—	6,817,667	4,167,313	10,984,980

BANKS (AMERICAN).—The system of banking in America has recently attracted a great deal of attention in this country; and it certainly deserves to be carefully studied and meditated, were it only for the incontestable evidence which it affords that, how flourishing soever in other respects, a country cursed with a vicious banking system may be every now and then involved in the greatest difficulties, and reduced almost to a state of bankruptcy. Considering the peculiarly favourable circumstances under which the United States are placed, the boundless extent of their fertile and unoccupied lands, the lightness of their public burdens, and the intelligence, enterprise, and economy of the people, it might be presumed that distress and bankruptcy would be all but unknown in the Union, and that she would be exempted from those revulsions which so seriously affect less favourably situated communities. But the very reverse of all this is the fact: discredit and bankruptcy are incomparably more prevalent in America than in any European country; and all sorts of industrious undertakings and monied fortunes are infinitely more secure in Russia, and even in Turkey, than in the United States! This anomalous and apparently inexplicable state of things is entirely a consequence of the American banking system, which seems to combine within itself everything that can make it an engine of unmixed evil. Had a committee of clever men been selected to devise means by which the public might be tempted to engage in all manner of absurd projects, and be most easily duped and swindled, we do not know that they could have hit upon anything half so likely to effect their object as the existing American banking system. It has no one redeeming quality about it, but is from beginning to end a compound of quackery and imposture. Our own banking system is bad enough certainly; but it is as superior to the American as can well be imagined. A radical reform of the latter, or, if that cannot be effected, its entire suppression, would be the greatest boon that can be conferred on the Union; and would be no slight advantage to every nation with which the Americans have any intercourse.

The American banks are all joint-stock associations. But instead of the partners being liable, as in England, for the whole amount of the debts of the banks, they are in general liable only for the amount of their shares, or for some fixed multiple thereof. It is needless to dwell on the temptation to commit fraud held out by this system, which has not a single countervailing advantage to recommend it. The worthlessness of the plan on which the banks are founded was evinced by the fact that, between 1811 and the 1st of May, 1830, no fewer than a hundred and sixty-five banks became altogether bankrupt, many of them paying only an insignificant dividend; and this exclusive of a much greater number that stopped for a while, and afterwards resumed payments. The wide-spread mischief resulting from such a state of things led to the devising of various complicated schemes for insuring the stability and prudent management of banks; but, as they all involve regulations which it is impossible to enforce, they are practically worse than useless. In Massachusetts, for example, it is provided that no bank for the issue of notes can go into operation in any way until at least half its capital stock be paid in gold and silver into the bank, and be actually existing in its coffers, and seen in them by inspectors appointed for that purpose; and the cashier of every bank is bound to make specific returns once a year of its debts and assets, on being required to do so by the secretary of state. But our readers need hardly be told that these elaborately contrived regulations are really good for nothing, unless it be to afford an easy mode of cheating and defrauding the public. Instances have occurred of banks having borrowed an amount of dollars equal to half their capital for a single day, and of such dollars having been examined by the inspectors appointed for that purpose, and reported by them, and sworn by a majority of the directors, to be the first instalment paid by the stockholders of the bank, and intended to remain in it.* We do not of course imagine that such disgraceful instances can be of common occurrence; but what is to be thought of a system which permits a company for the issue of paper-money, founded on such an abominable fraud, to enter on business with a sort of public attestation of its respectability? The publicity, too, to which the American banks are subject is injurious rather than otherwise. Those who are so disposed may easily manufacture such returns as they think most suitable to their views; and the more respectable banks endeavour, for a month or two previously to

* Gouge's Paper Money and Banking in the United States.

the period when they have to make their returns, to increase the amount of bullion in their coffers by temporary loans, and all manner of devices. The whole system is, in fact, bottomed on the most vicious principles. But it is unnecessary, after what has recently occurred, to insist further upon the gross and glaring defects of American banking. Perhaps no instance is to be found in the history of commerce of such a wanton over-issue of paper as took place in the United States in 1835 and 1836. The result was such as every man of sense must have anticipated. The revulsion to which it necessarily led, after producing a frightful extent of bankruptcy and suffering in all parts of the Union, compelled, in May, 1837, every bank within the States, without, we believe, a single exception, to suspend payments! In 1838, such of them as were not entirely swept off resumed specie payments; and in 1839, by far the larger number of them, with the bank of the United States at their head, again suspended payments!

The United States Bank is not merely, however, unable from temporary embarrassments to pay its notes in specie; it is entangled in more serious difficulties, and is believed by many to be substantially insolvent. If it be really in this predicament, it is what we did not anticipate. It was originally incorporated by Congress in 1816 for 20 years, and had a paid-up capital of \$5,000,000 dollars, or of more than seven millions sterling. The question whether the charter should be renewed was debated with extraordinary vehemence in all parts of the Union. The late president, General Jackson, was violently opposed to the re-incorporation of the bank; and rejected a bill for that purpose that had been approved by both the other branches of the legislature. Ultimately, however, a majority of Congress came round to General Jackson's views, and the charter was definitively refused. The bank afterwards succeeded in obtaining a charter from the state of Pennsylvania. This, however, merely enables it to carry on business in that state, but it has since obtained leave from some of the other states to establish branches within their limits.

The embarrassments in which this institution has been involved are believed to have been mainly caused by the improvidence with which it has made advances on state stocks, the stocks of public companies, and such like securities. The extreme facility with which money, or rather what was called money, might be borrowed from the different banking establishments in America, in 1835 and 1836, created quite a mania for all sorts of joint stock and other speculative projects, such as banks, canals, railways, &c.; and this rage has been still further promoted by the different state governments embarking deeply in the same sort of projects, and borrowing largely to carry them on. (See *FUNDS, AMERICAN*, in this Supp.) The bank of the United States is believed to have made very large advances on this sort of securities; and after the revulsion in America in 1836 and 1837, this bank and every other institution in the Union that had any stock of any kind to dispose of, sent it over to England, where the temptation of a high rate of interest made vast quantities be sold in 1837 and 1838. But notwithstanding the proverbial gullibility of John Bull, and his determination to confide in every thing of which he knows little or nothing, the market here was beginning to be overloaded with American securities, and the collision that took place in Maine, in March, 1839, put a complete stop to their further sale. The agent of the U. States Bank is understood, when this occurrence took place, to have had a very large amount of such securities on his hands; and he has since had the greatest difficulty in raising money upon them, except at a great sacrifice.

The bank of the United States is also believed to have been materially injured by the advances she made to the holders of cotton. It has been alleged, too, that these advances were made, not so much in the view of supporting credit in America as of procuring engagements for a particular house in Liverpool. But it is hardly possible to suppose that such should have been the case, or that an institution with 7,000,000*l.* of capital should have been perverted from its legitimate purpose, and brought into jeopardy for so paltry and disgraceful an object. Since the stoppage of the U. States Bank the following statement has appeared:

Statement of the Affairs of the Bank of the United States in Pennsylvania, Oct. 1. 1839.

Cr.	Dollars.	Dr.	Dollars.
Bills discounted on personal security	11,314,468	Capital stock	5,000,000
Do, bank stock	182,601	Issues of the late bank and branches	874,068
Do, other security	17,928,042	----- bank of the U. States and branches	12,472,000
Bills of exchange	4,398,852	Issues of post notes	9,032,438
Bills receivable for post-notes	9,045,918	Discount, exchange, and interest	495,388
Loans to commonwealth	491,000	Dividends unclaimed	61,209
Stock accounts	17,782,237	Profit and loss	3,921,169
Real and mortgage	9,532,217	Agency, London, &c.	8,915,554
Due by the United States	8,367	Contingent fund	850,433
Do, bank of the United States and agencies	12,042,798	Bond of the United States	1,898,589
Do, by state banks	6,994,207	Interest on bond in the United States	134,094
Do, state bank agencies	7,976,743	Foreign exchange	748,991
Real estate	678,670	Due to bank of the U. States and branches	15,262,401
Banking houses	418,000	----- state banks	1,833,849
Indebtedness	648	----- state bank agencies	323,749
Expenses	111,184	----- deposits	3,239,610
Miss King, late navy agent, Norfolk	40,144	----- Treasurer of the United States	11,337
Notes of the bank of the U. States and branches	6,156,222		
Do, state banks	2,196,618		
Specie	1,045,273		
Draws and financial expenses	178,891		
Contingent interest	85,998		
Total	94,448,782	Total	94,448,782

J. C., Cashier

Bank of the United States, Oct. 9. 1839.

and Wales by Private
g Private from Joint-Stock

Bank Name	Total
	<i>L</i>
18,197	12,011,697
8,379	11,091,028
6,784	10,874,437
7,183	10,142,049
6,663	10,870,156
11,089	10,830,511
12,456	11,745,508
10,151	11,364,563
10,548	11,224,408
7,268	11,259,467
16,110	12,275,918
17,213	11,261,970

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are incomparably more pre-
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to engage in all manner of
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But this account, like all others of the same kind, is absolutely worthless. It communicates no information, or none that can be depended upon, as to the real state of the bank. Who knows any thing of the value of the bills for 11,316,469 dollars, discounted on "private security?" or of those for the 17,926,022 dollars, discounted on "other security?" They may be, and, no doubt, will be said to be as good as cash! But who attaches any value to an unexamined balance sheet, put forth by an individual or association that has stopped payment? The rendering of such accounts is, in fact, nothing better than a mere farce.

If the bank of the United States be really insolvent and unable to meet its engagements, a question will most likely arise as to the liability of the holders of bank stock resident in this country to make good its engagements. Will the charter protect them, or will it not? This is a question which, we believe, has not hitherto been mooted, but no doubt it will soon force itself on the public attention. We do not know how the existing law may be interpreted; but if they are to be protected, the sooner it is changed the better. Had the United States Bank not opened an agency here, the case would have been different: but having opened an office, and transacted a large amount of business in London, it has become to all intents and purposes an English establishment; and the partners belonging to it in England must, one should think, be amenable to English law, and not to the law of Pennsylvania. If this be not the case, it will necessarily follow that any institution, though consisting wholly of Englishmen, that obtained a charter from any foreign state, even though it were not generally known that it was chartered, as the foreign law might not require this to be divulged, might open places of business in London and Liverpool, and, after getting some hundreds of thousands of pounds into debt, might suspend payments, and laugh at the credulous dupes they had reduced to beggary and ruin. It would be, no doubt, strenuously affirmed of such an institution, that it had a paid-up capital amounting, perhaps, to several millions sterling; that it was a "highly respectable" association, and conducted by gentlemen of the "highest character:" probably, too, a balance sheet would be occasionally put forth "demonstrating" its flourishing situation; and a portion of the press would not fail to direct the particular attention of its readers to the "admirable principle" on which it was founded, and the "ability" of its managers! John Bull must change very much, indeed, if these representations, combined with the advantageous terms that would very probably be offered to those dealing with it in the first instance, did not procure for it a considerable amount of credit. But in the end, it would, most likely, turn out that no one knew whether it ever had any paid-up capital. And, supposing it had, what is to hinder the partners or managers from dividing it wholly amongst themselves? The legislature of England has wisely refused to allow of partnerships (except in extraordinary cases) being instituted here with limited responsibility; being well convinced that, despite every possible precaution, they would be sure, in many instances to be perverted to the basest purposes. And is it to be endured that foreigners should acquire privileges in this country denied to natives? or that foreign governments should have power to organise and establish institutions amongst us on a principle which parliament justly regards as most objectionable? If the law of England authorise *this*, it is most certainly high time that it were amended, and that a check were given to what must otherwise be by far the safest and most profitable species of swindling. But we do not believe that such can be the law. British subjects who embark their capital in foreign trading associations may, in so far as respects their interest in them, be amenable only to the foreign law, provided the associations to which they belong restrict their operations to foreign countries. But should these associations send agents here, and open offices and carry on business within the United Kingdom, the case is altogether different: the legislature of Pennsylvania may be omnipotent at home, but it is impotent in England; it may, if it choose, institute trading companies, with limited responsibility, or with no responsibility at all; but if these be joined by Englishmen, make England the scene of their operations, and issue their balance sheets in the city of London, what are they in practice but English companies! And such of our countrymen as have embarked in them would seem to have but slender grounds of complaint, should they be taught that they are responsible to *our* law; that the law of a foreign country cannot protect them; and that they will be made liable, in the event of the concern becoming bankrupt, to the utmost shilling of their fortunes for its liabilities to British subjects.

Owing to the privilege claimed by the different states, and exercised without interruption from the Revolution downwards, it is, we fear, impossible to effect the suppression of local paper in America, or to establish a paper currency which should at all times vary in amount and value, as if it were metallic. But the states have it in their power to do that which is next best: they may compel all banks which issue notes to give security for their issues. This, though it would not prevent destructive oscillations in the amount and value of the currency, would, at all events, prevent those ruinous and ever-recurring stoppages and bankruptcies of the issuers of paper-money, that render the American banking system one of the severest scourges to which any people was ever subjected. Common sense and experience alike demonstrate the inefficacy of all the regulations enacted by the American legislatures to prevent the abuse of banking. It is in vain for them to lay it down that the issues shall never

Taking the florin at 1s. 8d., the total value of the exports is 3,331,803*l*. Among the principal articles of import are cotton goods; copper, iron, and steel; glass and earthenware; wines and spirits; provisions, &c. We have not learned the exact value of the imports in 1836, but, taking it at 2,500,000*l*, it will make the whole trade of the island amount to about 6,000,000*l*.

It is stated in the Dictionary (vol. 1. p. 378.) that the export of coffee from Java might be estimated at about 18,000 tons; but it appears from the above table, that it has increased so rapidly that it amounted, in 1837, taking the picul at 136 lbs. to 22,152,792 lbs., or to above 41,500 tons! The export of sugar during the same year exceeded 40,000 tons.

BOMBAY. In 1836-7, 28 ships, of the aggregate burden of 20,800 tons, mostly owned by native merchants resident in Bombay, were employed in the China trade; and there are besides a considerable number of large ships engaged in the trade to England and other places. They are for the most part navigated by Indian seamen or Lascars, those of Bombay being accounted by far the best in India; the master and superior officers only, and not always, being Englishmen.

In 1836-7, there arrived at Bombay 253 ships (222 under British colours) of the aggregate burden of 104,913 tons.—A.

The small and sterile island of Bombay affords no produce for exportation; indeed, hardly yields a week's consumption of corn for its inhabitants. Nor does the whole presidency of Bombay, although estimated to contain about 70,000 square miles, and from 10,000,000 to 11,000,000 inhabitants, yield, with the exception of cotton and rice, any of the great colonial staples, such as coffee, sugar, and indigo; a circumstance that seems mainly ascribable to the inpolitic restraints upon the employment of British settlers and capital that were long imposed by law, and acted upon with peculiar rigour in this and the sister presidency of Madras, in contradistinction to the greater latitude afforded in Bengal. Bombay is also much less favourably situated, in respect of internal communications, than Calcutta. The Gauges and its tributary streams intersect the richest provinces of India, and give Calcutta a vast command of inland navigation; whereas all the inland trade of Bombay has to be carried on by means of roads, that are seldom available for carriages, and which can be used only by pack-bullocks and camels. The transit duties, by which the inland trade has been grievously oppressed, were abolished in Bengal in 1836; and they either have been, or are, immediately to be abolished in Bombay. And were this judicious measure followed up the formation of lines of road to the principal markets in the interior, a great increase of the trade of the town and improvement of the presidency would be the result.

The principal trade of Bombay is carried on with China, Great Britain, the countries on the Persian and Arabian gulfs, Calcutta, Cutch, and Sinde, the Malabar coast, foreign Europe, &c. The imports from China consist principally of raw silk, sugar, and sugar-candy, silk piece goods, treasure, &c. The principal articles of export to China, are raw cotton (44,464,364 lbs., in 1836-37.), opium (20,882½ chests, in 1836-37.), principally from Malwa, pearls, sharks' fins and fish maws, sandal-wood, &c. The exports to China being much greater than the imports, the returns for several years past have been made to a large extent in bills on London, drawn by American and other houses in China, and in bills on the Indian governments, drawn by the Agents of the East India Company in China.

The trade with the United Kingdom has been regularly increasing since the abolition of the restrictive system. The chief articles of import from Great Britain are, cotton and woolen stuffs, cotton yarn, hardware, copper, iron, and lead, glass, apparel, fur, stationary, wine, &c. The principal articles of export to Britain are, raw cotton (68,163,901 lbs. in 1836-37.), raw silk, from China and Persia, ivory, pepper, and spices, piece goods, coffee, and wool. The export of the last mentioned article has increased with extraordinary rapidity, the quantity shipped for England in 1833-34 being only 69,944 lbs.; whereas the shipments for England in 1836-37 amounted to 2,444,019 lbs. At present the principal supply of the article is drawn from Cutch and Sinde, and from Marwar, via Guzerat; but active measures have been taken by government for improving the flocks in the pastoral country of the Deccan, so that a further and very considerable increase of this new and important trade may be anticipated.

The trade between Bombay and the ports on the Persian gulf has materially varied of late years. A large portion of the articles of British produce and manufacture that were formerly exported to Persia, by way of Bombay and Bushire, being now sent through Trebizond and ports in the Levant; and a considerable portion of the raw silk that used to be exported from Persia, via Bombay, being now also sent through the ports referred to. On the other hand, however, there is a considerable increase in the exports and imports of other articles; so that, on the whole, the amount of the trade has not materially varied.

The trade between Bombay and Calcutta is not so great now as it was formerly; the abolition of the restrictive system in 1815 having given Bombay the means of bringing various articles direct from foreign ports which she was previously obliged to import at second-hand from Calcutta, and of exporting directly.

Account of the total Value of the Imports into, and of the Exports from Bombay, in the official years 1816-17, 1836-37, and 1836-37.

Countries.	1816-17.			1836-37.			1836-37.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
Great Britain	35,36,618	3,97,971	39,34,589	48,54,124	1,749	48,55,873	38,41,910	-	38,41,910
France	-	-	-	2,71,773	16,400	2,78,173	6,28,853	-	6,28,853
Madras	1,96,236	-	1,96,236	36,718	-	36,718	94,725	-	94,725
Cape of Good Hope	5,450	-	5,450	8,824	-	8,824	3,232	-	3,232
India	73,430	16,43,632	17,17,062	9,923	3,720	13,643	19,618	-	19,618
Coast of Africa	2,44,703	23,308	2,68,011	4,04,883	33,770	4,38,653	3,46,538	911	3,50,449
Isle of France	41,971	88,197	1,30,168	2,24,276	-	2,24,276	1,36,863	-	1,36,863
America	2,71,495	1,04,413	3,75,908	10,735	-	10,735	46,289	-	46,289
China	97,58,473	3,03,170	1,00,91,643	45,70,304	66,28,773	1,11,99,077	40,05,869	1,00,74,283	1,40,79,992
Manilla	3,67,433	-	3,67,433	31,410	-	31,410	-	-	31,410
Penang, Singapore, and the Straits	6,81,988	1,100	6,82,088	4,42,301	74,705	5,17,006	7,17,721	2,35,442	5,52,122
Calcutta	84,79,602	-	84,79,602	32,58,899	-	32,58,899	26,38,101	-	26,38,101
Coast of Coromandel	6,899	24,000	30,899	1,73,800	-	1,73,800	1,11,848	-	1,11,848
Ceylon	73,092	-	73,092	65,216	-	65,216	35,540	-	35,540
Arabian Gulf	6,08,838	18,71,934	24,80,772	4,01,374	4,48,096	8,49,470	7,81,404	63,000	11,02,900
Perian Gulf	10,50,297	17,37,321	27,87,618	19,52,496	14,99,642	34,52,138	15,48,697	20,10,892	35,59,589
Malabar and Canara	37,50,871	78,171	38,29,042	45,51,218	-	45,51,218	73,90,673	-	73,90,673
Cutch and Sindh	4,00,449	49,195	4,49,644	8,84,787	7,191	8,77,596	18,71,060	650	18,71,710
Goa, Demnan, & Diu	26,73,652	4,05,643	30,79,295	2,99,369	-	2,99,369	3,94,000	1,000	3,95,000
Hamburgh	-	-	-	9,03,006	-	9,03,006	-	-	-
St. Helena	-	-	-	328	-	328	-	-	-
Total Rupees	1,93,40,339	64,87,625	2,58,27,964	2,16,46,647	88,29,169	2,25,25,816	3,37,67,903	1,84,76,356	5,22,44,262
Subordinate Ports.									
Patwall and Concan	3,95,473	48,016	4,43,489	38,40,072	9,46,418	47,86,490	1,20,54,953	6,92,702	1,27,47,655
Surat	1,11,273	1,29,761	2,41,034	28,35,356	12,57,111	40,92,467	1,84,971	31,106	1,85,077
Guzerat	46,99,397	1,06,585	48,05,982	78,52,076	0,023	78,41,049	2,67,96,236	11,000	2,57,93,236
	62,38,443	3,47,816	65,86,259	1,31,24,098	11,68,532	1,42,92,630	3,29,45,780	7,6,677	3,37,12,357
Total Rupees			66,05,738			1,54,92,261			4,07,42,457

Countries.	1816-17.			1836-37.			1836-37.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
Great Britain	20,16,463	-	20,16,463	36,33,740	1,05,077	37,38,817	1,35,23,917	-	1,35,23,917
France	-	-	-	63,603	-	63,603	2,37,443	-	2,37,443
Cape of Good Hope	-	-	-	-	-	-	615	-	615
India	16,579	-	16,579	22,720	-	22,720	-	-	-
Coast of Africa	1,25,819	-	1,25,819	3,09,883	3,860	3,13,743	5,93,391	56,700	6,10,091
Isle of France	2,45,378	-	2,45,378	66,989	-	66,989	39,771	30,900	70,671
America	3,73,518	-	3,73,518	5,75,516	-	5,75,516	8,28,766	86,350	8,35,116
China	60,51,398	8,040	60,60,438	1,07,76,011	6,490	1,07,82,501	3,28,97,247	8,800	3,29,75,047
Manilla	6,100	-	6,100	-	-	-	-	-	-
Penang, Singapore, and the Straits	2,31,975	-	2,31,975	4,41,800	17,620	4,59,420	6,85,737	19,720	7,05,457
Calcutta	6,201,189	67,934	6,269,123	8,41,079	1,01,500	8,42,579	11,18,784	10,200	11,38,984
Coast of Coromandel	13,41,663	-	13,41,663	18,44,532	31,196	18,75,728	2,95,749	6,65,000	3,61,749
Ceylon	69,873	-	69,873	1,03,967	-	1,03,967	52,518	-	52,518
Arabian Gulf	13,74,623	-	13,74,623	7,40,303	800	7,41,103	12,47,340	17,780	12,65,120
Perian Gulf	18,02,919	3,960	18,06,879	15,08,779	10,960	15,19,739	15,57,341	42,900	15,62,241
Malabar and Canara	87,112	3,47,995	4,35,107	10,98,737	3,40,000	14,38,737	10,07,047	11,11,581	21,18,628
Cutch and Sindh	12,24,695	11,500	12,36,195	18,34,890	30,529	18,65,419	22,37,317	2,000	22,39,317
Goa, Demnan, & Diu	35,45,751	9,07,489	44,53,240	3,41,225	36,912	3,78,137	1,91,259	67,300	2,58,559
Hamburgh	-	-	-	1,49,917	-	1,49,917	-	-	-
St. Helena	-	-	-	3,634	-	3,634	-	-	-
Total Rupees	1,74,15,828	12,37,918	1,86,53,746	2,47,83,491	8,08,018	2,55,91,509	5,78,48,869	20,56,079	5,99,04,948
Subordinate Ports.									
Patwall and Concan	3,95,167	91,192	4,86,359	54,84,473	31,19,077	86,03,550	55,58,682	48,69,236	1,04,27,918
Surat	32,78,392	7,39,398	40,17,790	32,62,011	3,98,414	36,60,425	1,09,26,445	7,50,615	44,11,040
Guzerat	40,85,916	3,42,765	44,28,681	73,77,696	39,24,696	1,13,02,392	51,30,010	17,31,811	68,62,161
	87,61,189	10,90,480	98,51,669	1,61,04,181	67,38,077	1,67,42,258	1,51,94,633	74,51,662	1,82,93,915
Total Rupees			78,77,747			2,18,37,358			2,26,26,196

* At this period called Goa and the Concan.

† At this period called Basain and sundry ports.

PORT CHARGES.			
Bury and Anchorage Dues.—All Ships and Vessels or Boats not receiving Pilots		Square rigged vessels of all descriptions:	
From 10 to 20 tons	Rps. 3 0 0 per Ann.	Above 50 to 300 tons.	Fair Season. Monsoon.
Above 20 to under 30 tons	— 4 0 0 do.	— 50 to 400	— 65 0 0 — 75 0 0
Above 30 to 50 tons	— 10 0 0 do.	— 400 to 500	— 70 0 0 — 80 0 0
Above 50 to 100 ditto	— 20 0 0 do.	— 500 to 700	— 65 0 0 — 80 0 0
— 100 to 150 ditto	— 30 0 0 do.	— 700 to 800	— 75 0 0 — 100 0 0
— 150 to 200 ditto	— 30 3 0 do.	— 800 to 900	— 80 0 0 — 105 0 0
— 200 to 350 ditto	— 35 0 0 do.	— 900 to 1000	— 85 0 0 — 110 0 0
		— 1000 to 1100	— 90 0 0 — 115 0 0
		— 1100 to 1200	— 95 0 0 — 120 0 0
		— 1200 and upwards	— 100 0 0 — 125 0 0

Charge for Pilotage.—A Ship of the Line or of 50 Guns — Fair Season. Monsoon. Rps. 100 — 140
A brig or sloop of war — ditto 75 — 100

Foreign ships of war are to pay, in addition to the above rate, rupees 40.

Light-house Dues.—All ships and vessels down to 80 tons, at rupees 15 per 100 tons per annum.
All vessels under 30 tons burden, at 2 rupees per annum.

N. B. There are no port charges of any sort at Bombay other than the above.

Among the principal articles of Java might be estimated as increased so rapidly that it above 41,500 tons! The export

20,800 tons, mostly owned by the Chinese, and there are also some to England and other countries, those of Bombay officers only, and not

of the aggregate of the exportation; indeed, hardly does the whole presidency of the Malabar coast, and from 10,000,000 to 15,000,000, any of the great colonial capitals that were long in the sister presidency of Malabar. Bombay is also much more than Calcutta. The Gangetic delta, and give Calcutta a vast

Bombay has to be carried on which can be used only by land trade has been grievously affected, or are, immensurable followed up the former great increase of the trade of

Great Britain, the countries on the Malabar coast, foreign raw silk, sugar, and sugar-cane, in 1836-37, principally to China. The exports to China are past have been made to a few houses in China, and in the East India Company in

increasing since the abolition of British are, cotton and wool, apparel, fur, stationary, wine, 18,163,901 lbs. in 1836-37, piece goods, coffee, and wool, extraordinary rapidity, the quantity; whereas the shipments for the principal supply of the Guzerat; but active measures pastoral country of the Deccan and important trade may be

has materially varied of late manufacture that were formerly sent through Trebilcock and that used to be exported from the East. On the other hand, of other articles; so that

was formerly; the abolition of the various articles direct from Calcutta, and of export-

General Rates of Commission in Bombay.—On the sale or purchase of goods of all descriptions (except as under) Per cent. 5
 Purchase of all kinds with the proceeds of goods sold, and on which a commission of 5 per cent. has been previously charged 5 1/2
 The sale or purchase of ships, houses, and lands . . . 5 1/2
 The sale or purchase of opium . . . 5 1/2
 The sale or purchase of diamonds, pearls, and jewellery of all descriptions . . . 5 1/2
 The sale or purchase of treasure or bullion, exclusive of 1 per cent. on receipt of the proceeds . . . 1
 Procuring freight . . . 5
 Shipping goods of every description . . . 5 1/2
 Shipping treasure, bullion, and jewellery . . . 1
 Ships' disbursements when no commission has been charged on freight or cargo . . . 5 1/2
 Effecting insurances . . . 5 1/2
 Settling insurance losses, whether partial or total (also on procuring return of premium, exclusive of commission on receipt of cash) . . . 1
 Del credere or guaranteeing the responsibility of persons to whom goods are sold, on the amount of sales . . . 5 1/2
 The sale or purchase of cattle . . . 5 1/2
 Collecting house rent . . . 5 1/2
 Effecting remittances by bills of exchange (not being the proceeds of goods sold) . . . 1
 Taking up interest bills from the Company (exclusive of 1 per cent. on remitting) . . . 1 1/2
 Sale or purchase of public or private bills of exchange . . . 1
 Exchanging Companies' securities of all descriptions, or investing money therein, and on transferring government paper from one constituent to another . . . 1 1/2

Barrendering or depositing in the treasury, Company's security of all descriptions . . . Per cent. 1 1/2
 Procuring money on respondents or on loan . . . 1
 Recovery of bonds or bills for absconder, over due at the period of their being placed in the possession of the agent . . . 5
 Debt, when a process at law or by arbitration is necessary, 5 1/2 per cent.; and if receive 1 by such means . . . 5
 Managing the affairs of an estate for an executor or administrator . . . 5
 Guaranteeing bills, bonds, or debts in general, by endorsement or otherwise . . . 1 1/2
 Attending the delivery of contract goods to the Company or individuals . . . 1
 Goods consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, on invoice cost 5 1/2
 Bills of exchange returned noted or protested, &c. . . 1
 Receipt of payment (at the option of the agent) of all monies not arising from proceeds of goods on which commission has been previously charged . . . 1
 All cases where the debtor side of the account exceeds the credit side, including the balance of interest, commission chargeable on the debtor side, at the rate of . . . 1
 Granting letters of credit . . . 5 1/2
 Becoming security to government, or public bodies, in any case 5 1/2
 Goods consigned, which are disposed of by outcry or sent to a shop, on net proceeds . . . 5 1/2
 Depositing government paper as security for constitutions . . . 1
Advertisements.—Sales of European goods, when made at an auction on invoice cost, the amount to be converted into Bombay currency at the exchange of two shillings and sixpence per rupee. 5

[BOSTON. The number of arrivals at Boston, during the year 1838, was 1313; during the year 1839, was 1553. Increase 240.

The following Table exhibits the amount of salt, coal, grain, and potatoes, brought to this port during the past eleven years:—

	Standard Bush. Salt.	Bushels Coal.	Grain and Potatoes.
1830,	544,598	336,708	1,962
1831,	484,898	185,786	4,103
1832,	514,585	686,858	2,068
1833,	945,441	373,751	7,038
1834,	937,974	714,368	15,603
1835,	705,347	525,998	50,527
1836,	573,684	1,036,805	131,544
1837,	1,052,008	1,730,145	34,560
1838,	1,108,015	1,072,692	27,149
1839,	601,968	1,392,517	7,155
1840	1,206,255	1,507,710	13,549
	<u>9,065,657</u>	<u>9,407,315</u>	<u>295,576</u>
Average	825,968 10-11	855,310 5-11	26,897 9-11

In the above is included the salt and coal re-shipped for debenture. There was exported from Boston during the year 1840, 94,560 standard bushels of salt, and 95,250 bushels of coal.—Am. Ed.]

CALCUTTA. (See Table on the next page.) COINS.

[Statement of Deposits and Coinage at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, in the Year 1839.

Mints.	Deposits.			Coinage.							
	Gold.		Silver.	Gold.		Silver.		Copper.		Total.	
	United States Gold.	Foreign Gold.		Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.		
Philadelphia	188,500	304,000	1,861,500	153,418	1,040,747 50	5,948,378	1,949,138	3,128,691	31,286 61	9,280,345	5,921,70 11
Charlot.	126,936	-	-	41,640	182,767 50	-	-	-	-	41,640	162,757 50
Dahloega	113,025	-	-	32,613	123,800 00	-	-	-	-	32,613	128,880 00
New Orleans	6,989	78,990	173,901	-	-	2,401,800	227,160	-	-	5,401,800	227,160 00
	<u>385,240</u>	<u>382,990</u>	<u>2,035,401</u>	<u>267,661</u>	<u>1,222,515 50</u>	<u>8,349,978</u>	<u>2,176,298</u>	<u>3,128,691</u>	<u>31,286 61</u>	<u>11,756,196</u>	<u>5,929,977 61</u>

Statement of Deposits and Coinage at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, in the Year 1840.

Mints.	Deposits.			Coinage.							
	Gold.		Silver.	Gold.		Silver.		Copper.		Total.	
	United States Gold.	Foreign Gold.		Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.		
Philadelphia	176,796	1,085,236	1,663,070	303,979	1,207,497	4,886,806	1,028,608	5,462,700	24,637	7,043,094	2,260,891
Charlot.	126,786	-	81,356	187,065	187,065	-	-	-	-	81,356	187,065
Dahloega	131,858	-	-	35,423	133,310	-	-	-	-	35,423	133,310
New Orleans	2,886	163,094	668,678	66,800	317,500	3,280,300	696,100	-	-	3,448,900	515,620
	<u>438,185</u>	<u>1,147,330</u>	<u>1,693,746</u>	<u>318,438</u>	<u>1,672,302</u>	<u>7,777,106</u>	<u>1,724,708</u>	<u>5,462,700</u>	<u>24,627</u>	<u>10,558,240</u>	<u>3,086,532</u>

An Account showing the Total Amount of the Import and Export Trade of Calcutta in 1836-37 and 1837-38; showing also the Amount of the Trade with each country, and the proportion per cent. which the Trade with each Country bears to the total Amount of the Trade. (*Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal for 1836-37 and 1837-38.*)

Countries.	Import Trade.				Export Trade.			
	1836-37.		1837-38.		1836-37.		1837-38.	
	Value.	Per centage.						
<i>Europe.</i>								
United Kingdom	£ 2,240,471	60.1	£ 2,059,483	50.6	£ 2,637,097	42.3	£ 2,719,022	41.6
France	150,739	4.2	155,556	3.6	234,255	4.2	231,505	3.4
Denmark	-	-	3,908	-	800	-	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	0.1	-	-	10,073	0.2
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Europe	2,397,210	61.3	2,219,062	54.6	3,122,455	46.6	2,951,701	45.4
<i>Asia.</i>								
Coromandel Coast	80,730	2.4	126,909	3.1	177,131	2.7	115,439	1.6
Ceylon	2,537	0.1	8,357	0.2	14,305	0.4	6,489	0.1
Coast of Malabar	216,265	6.6	171,538	4.2	276,066	4.1	277,122	4.2
Maldive and Laccadive	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Islea	15,501	0.4	13,259	3	5,969	0.1	4,733	0.07
Arabian and Persian	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gulfe	86,403	2.3	123,474	3.0	159,861	2.4	137,387	2.4
China	839,093	20.0	673,401	16.6	1,889,478	29.2	2,054,378	31.6
Singapore	173,051	5.0	392,659	7.2	278,032	4.1	317,581	4.0
Penang and Malacca	69,541	1.8	99,379	2.4	48,418	0.8	63,230	1.0
Java and Sumatra	11,835	0.3	8,156	0.2	24,515	0.4	14,715	0.2
Manilla	19	-	-	-	68	-	-	-
New Holland	2,292	0.06	£ 144	0.0	10,021	0.3	38,715	0.6
Pegu	189,527	3.7	142,667	3.5	141,678	2.1	141,697	2.2
Total Asia	1,175,842	31.6	1,665,676	40.9	3,036,974	45.4	3,196,487	49.07
<i>Africa.</i>								
Mauritius	26,457	0.7	46,795	1.1	128,399	2.0	154,905	2.4
Hourbon	10,805	0.3	12,405	0.3	40,833	0.6	55,670	0.8
Cape of Good Hope	4,808	0.1	6,402	0.2	11,314	0.2	23,078	0.3
Total Africa	40,769	1.1	66,602	1.6	190,377	2.8	233,652	3.5
<i>America.</i>								
North America	103,531	2.7	73,944	1.9	349,890	5.2	120,737	2.0
South America	9,303	0.3	45,465	1.1	7,814	0.1	2,019	0.03
Total America	112,739	3.0	119,410	3.0	357,735	5.3	122,756	2.03
Grand Total	3,726,560	100	4,066,950	100	6,707,741	100	6,504,596	100

COTTON.

Statement of the Consumption, Exportation, &c. of the different Sorts of Cotton Wool, in and from Great Britain, in 1839.

Average weekly consumption.	1838.	1839.	1838.
Upand	5,494	Packages annually consumed	1,114,400
Orleans and Alabama	9,915		
Sea-land	285		
Total United States	15,844	Average weight of packages consumed in lbs.	913
Brazil	2,373	Weekly consumption in packages	21,620
Egypt	548	average 348 lbs.	
East India	2,162	Average weight of packages imported, in lbs.	
Demarara, West India, &c.	723	Packages exported	117,900
Total	31,430		

EMIGRANTS.

Return of the Number of Emigrants from the United Kingdom in 1839, specifying the Colonies and Countries for which they cleared out, and the Numbers that cleared out for each.—*Parl. Paper*, No. 113. Sess. 1840.)

	North American Colonies.	United States.	Cape of Good Hope.	American Colonies.	Total.
England	2,261	30,142	221	11,845	44,459
Scotland	1,418	5,521	6	2,239	4,213
Ireland	8,939	2,843	-	1,708	13,535
United Kingdom	12,618	38,506	227	15,792	122,277

FISH.

[The reader will find in vol. i. p. 42., a statement of the value of the fish exported annually from the United States, from 1790 to 1838, inclusive.

The value of the fish imported during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1839, was, of dried or smoked fish, \$21,303; of salmon (pickled), \$73,768; of mackerel (pickled), \$60,374, and of all other pickled fish, \$71,489.

Of the fish imported, the quantity which was re-exported amounted in value to only \$9,034. The product of our own fisheries which was exported to foreign countries, chiefly to the West India Islands, during the same year, amounted in value, of dried or smoked fish, to \$705,816, and of pickled fish, to \$141,320.

The registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States employed in the whale fishery		Tons.
announced to	-	131,845
The enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the cod fishery	-	65,107
In the mackerel fishery	-	35,983
In the whale fishery	-	439
That of vessels licensed under 20 tons employed in the cod fishery	-	7,091

The fisheries of the United States are carried on from the ports of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York; especially from those of Massachusetts. Its citizens own nearly three fourths of the whole tonnage employed in this branch of American industry.

The greater comparative importance of the Massachusetts fisheries has led to more exact inquiries concerning them than have been directed hitherto to the subject of the fisheries elsewhere. And we subjoin the following interesting extracts from a report of Dr. D. H. Storer, submitted to the legislature of that state.

Although, as fresh fish, mackerel are sold in the markets along our whole coast for several months in the year, and are considered by all excellent food, (from 6 to 8,000 barrels being sold annually in Boston market alone,) their great value to this people, arises from the means of employment afforded to an immense number, by the process of salting and packing.

Those packed in 1836 were furnished by the following towns:

	Barrels.		Barrels.
Boston	40,350	Saltuata	3,782
Gloucester and Manchester	45,387	Yarmouth	2,446
Newburyport and Newbury	21,463	Amherst and Beverly	2,294
Wellsfleet	17,500	Plymouth	1,377
Provincetown	14,139	Lynn	1,400
Hingham	13,892	Duxbury	1,000
Cohasset	11,700	Charlestown	822
Barnstable	4,116		

At the prices these fish were worth in November, 1836, the value of the year's fishing amounts to \$1,264,012.

The whole number of barrels of mackerel inspected in Massachusetts for the last five years is as follows:—1832, 221,000 barrels; 1833, 225,000; 1834, 253,000; 1835, 197,000; 1836, 180,616.

Although it would seem from the above table, that a smaller quantity of mackerel had been packed in 1836, than the several years immediately preceding it, yet it cannot be inferred from this circumstance, that fewer vessels were engaged, or that the business was considered less important than before. In some years, immense shoals of these fishes are readily met with, and the vessels return in a few weeks, with full cargoes; while the same localities may be visited at other seasons, and the efforts of the fisherman prove fruitless, and his fare meagre indeed.

So peculiar are the habits of this genus, that oftentimes weeks may pass, the fishing smacks be surrounded by millions sporting upon the surface of the ocean, and scarce one allow itself to be taken, while again the success of a few days will relieve the disappointments of nearly a season.

Thus, a fisherman informs me, that the last season, (1837,) having been to the bay of Chaleur, and taken but few fish, the vessel to which he belonged was returning home, when, off Cape Cod, the fish were so numerous and voracious, that the crew, consisting of ten or twelve, captured in two hours nearly 30 barrels of them. At this time about 200 smacks were together, and they were all equally successful, some of them taking 40 barrels of fish.

After being carefully inspected, these fish find a ready market in Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and New Orleans, and from this last port, they are sent over the entire western country. The inferior quality are shipped to the West India Islands.

I have not been able to learn with accuracy the number of vessels engaged exclusively in this fishery; in many towns, the same vessels are used at different seasons of the year for cod as well as the mackerel fishery. I have ascertained, however, that there were 202 vessels employed in this fishery in 1836, in the county of Barnstable, and that of this number 98 belonged to Provincetown, which were valued at \$147,000.

The family *Salmonides* includes several genera of fishes, which for delicacy and richness are not surpassed. Previous to the separation of Maine from this state, large quantities of the *Salmo salar*—salmon—were packed; thus, in the year 1816, 2,381 barrels were inspected. Since that time none have been inspected. The building of dams and manufacturing establishments, by preventing the fishes from going up the rivers to deposit their spawn, has almost entirely annihilated them in this Commonwealth. About 17 years since, two wagons, each bringing from 30 to 40 fine salmon from the Merrimack river, supplied the Boston market every week during the season of the fish—now, the few specimens taken are looked upon as rarities, and our market is enriched by the fishery of the Kennebec.

The *Osmia viridicaena*—Smelt—which is a universal favourite, is taken in great numbers in the spring and autumn, and through a great portion of the winter. In *Watertown* alone, 750,000 dozen are taken annually in scoop-nets from the first of March to the first of June—and sent to Boston market.

The family *Clupea*, are among our most valuable fishes. The *Clupea vernalis*—alewife—is taken in immense quantities still, in several parts of the state, although in several places where they have heretofore been most abundant, the various encroachments of man have sensibly diminished them. A larger quantity of alewives is packed, than of any other species of this family. In 1832, 1730 barrels were inspected; 1833, 2,206; 1834, 4,320; 1835, 5,600; 1836, 5,000.

At *Watertown*, the average quantity of alewives for the last 10 years is 700 barrels. They are first pickled, then salted and barreled, and sent to the West India Islands. They sell from \$1.50 to \$2.00 per barrel. At *Taunton*, which for years was so celebrated for its fishery, the alewives are gradually lessening. There are two or more dams across the Taunton "Great River," so called, which impedes their progress very much; and on the "Little River," where many dams and factories have been erected; and where, twenty years ago, thousands were taken, not one is to be seen. Twenty-five years since they were taken in such abundance, that they sold for 20 cents per hundred, and a great business was carried on by barreling and shipping them to the West India market.

The *Clupea harengus* (1)—common herring (1)—is in some seasons taken in great numbers. The quantities of herring packed and inspected according to tables kept at the General Inspection office for the last five years, are as follow: 1832, 58 bbls. 1833, 36; 1834, 518; 1835, 908; 1836, 77. That a small quantity only of the herring taken, are packed, is obvious, from the fact, that in 1836, 500 bbls. were taken at *Falmouth*; 400 bbls. at *Duxbury*, and 3000 at *Martha's Vineyard*.

Upon some portions of our coast herring have been limited in quantity for the few last years, during

value to only \$0.034.
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 to \$700,318, and of pickled

Whale fishery	Tons.
-	131,845
-	65,167
-	35,983
-	439
-	7,091

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 fisheries elsewhere. And we
 er, submitted to the legisla-

sole coast for several months
 arials being sold annually in
 means of employment afforded

	Barrels.
-	3,782
-	2,448
-	3,294
-	1,477
-	1,400
-	1,000
-	823

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 for the last five years has
 1830, 1836, 180,016.

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the last two years very few, comparatively speaking, have been taken. Their scarcity has been attributed by the fishermen to torching them at night, by which the shoals are broken, and the fish frightened away.

The *Morhua vulgaris*—Shad—is taken in several of our rivers in large quantities, at some seasons of the year, and giving a number of them are packed. In 1832, 100 bbis. were inspected; 1833, 321; 1834, 3; 1835, 310; and 1836, 527. The quantities taken in Charles river at Watertown, for the five last years, have averaged about 6000 per annum; from 3000 to 4000 are yearly caught at Taunton. Those taken at the former place, are usually sent to Boston market, and sold at 25 cents each. Those caught at the latter locality are for the most part disposed of at the seines (fresh) and cured by the purchasers. When first taken, they sell for 100 cents per hundred; and as the season advances, diminish gradually in price to 50 cents.

No family of fishes, however, found in the state, presents a greater number of species of real utility, than that of the Gadides; and no species in the whole catalogue of our Ichthyology, is of greater importance than the *Morhua vulgaris*—common Cod; supplying our markets with an excellent food throughout the year, and giving employment to thousands. In some portions of the state this fishery is entirely superseded by the taking of whales. Thus, while every town in the county of Barnstable, is more or less engaged in this business, and collectively exhibit an aggregate of 212 vessels, but a single fishing-smack was licensed in Duke county in 1836—and not one in the county of Nantucket—the attention of the inhabitants of the last two counties, being entirely engrossed in whaling.

Imperfect as are the following data, they may not be thought valueless. I have been able to ascertain that, in 1830, there were engaged in the cod fishery, from Gloucester, Marblehead, Provincetown, South Wellfleet, Cohasset, Duxbury, Plymouth, Manchester, Salem, and Beverly, being ten towns, 501 vessels, having crews of 3,816 men—and that by these vessels there were taken 263,454 quintals of fish. To these may be added the towns of Newburyport, Lynn, Falmouth, Holmes Hole, and Sandwich, (in which I have not been able to learn the number of vessels exclusively employed in this fishery,) which furnished in 1836, 10,265 quintals. Thus exhibiting 273,719 quintals of cod fish, taken by the enterprise of the citizens of 15 towns. When it is observed, that about 3,500 of the cod fish from the Grand Bank, (which are generally much larger than those from the Straits of Bellisle,) constitute a single quintal, some conception may be formed of the immense number taken. At the usual price of these prepared fish, the above mentioned number of quintals would sell for \$639,154.

Besides these fishing vessels, a great number of boats are constantly employed in supplying the markets with fresh fish. Thus, at Duxbury, in 1836, there were 10 market boats, having 40 men on board, which took from 35 to 40,000 fish. At Provincetown, there were 10 boats thus engaged. Boston market is supplied with cod fish by about 15 or 20 small schooners, and a large number of boats. By the kindness of Capt. Nathaniel Blanchard of Lynn, master of one of these smacks, I am enabled to furnish the following table, by which some idea may be formed of the amount of fresh cod fish, brought to our market. He has presented me the result of his labours with a vessel of 25 tons, and a crew of 6 men, for nearly 5 months, commencing October 24, 1836, and terminating March 20, 1837. His account exhibits the number of fish taken, and the price obtained for the same for each day during that period. From this minute statement, I am able to ascertain that the largest quantity taken any one day, was 7,121 pounds—December 13th—which sold for 5 shillings per hundred = \$9.39.

The smallest quantity taken any one day, was 337 pounds—January 16th—which sold for 12 shillings = \$6.67.

The smallest receipts were March 20th, when 359 pounds taken, sold for 10 shillings 6 pence = \$5.02. The whole number of pounds taken during the period mentioned, were 194,125.

The entire receipts for the same, were \$3,028.14.

Besides the value of the fishes themselves in a fresh and dried state, large quantities of oil are extracted from their livers, which is sold for about \$15 per barrel.

Immense shoals of the *Morhua anglicana*—Haddock—are found on our coast in spring, and continue through the season until autumn. Large numbers are sold in the market—and during the entire summer it is generally eaten by the poorer classes, who are often able to obtain a fine fish weighing several pounds for one or two cents. When taken in larger quantities than can be disposed of in market, they are frequently strewed over the earth for manure.
 Several valuable species are furnished us by the family, *Planii*—the most important, however, is the *Hippoglossus vulgaris*—Halibut. The flesh of this fish is rather coarse and dry, but is by many highly esteemed. An unusual number of this species were brought to Boston market in the early part of 1837, and were all sold at considerable profit. Eighty large schooners, from 60 to 80 tons burden, belonging to Cape Ann, were thus employed. Smoked, this fish is quite a delicacy; and when dried, as is the usual habit of the Greenlanders, it is, I can affirm, far from uninviting.—*Am. Ed.]*

FUNDS (AMERICAN). We beg leave to lay before the following statements with respect to the loans contracted by the different American states; they are taken from the *American Almanac* for 1840, and are the fullest and most comprehensive that we have seen.

The following tables show the total amount of stock issued and authorised to be issued by each of the eighteen states, which have resorted to this mode of raising money. Where the returns from the financial officer did not afford all the information which was desired, the state laws have been examined, to ascertain the extent of the authorised loans. The operations of many of the states have been so extensive and varied, that it is not an easy matter to get at the precise amount of stock issued and authorised to be issued. It is probable, however, that the aggregate amount of stock authorised by all the states is even greater than the amount stated in the tables.

Statement of the Amount of Stocks and Bonds issued, and authorised by Statute to be issued, by the several States named below, giving the Year in which each State commenced issuing Stock, the Object for which it was issued, and the Rate of Interest.

State.	Year.	For what Object issued.	Per cent.	Amount for each Object.	Total.
Maine	1830	Innses hospitals, primary schools, bounty on wheat, and general expenditures	5, 5 3/4, 6	\$54,976-00	\$54,976-00
Massachusetts	1837	Loans to railroads	6	4,290,000-00	4,290,000-00
New York	1823	Fur canals	6	643,000-00	
		Doitto	6	11,966,673-41	
		Loans to Hudson and Delaware canal	6	80,000-00	
		Loans to railroads	4 1/2 5	3,757,700-00	
		To river navigation	6	10,000-00	
Pennsylvania	1821	General fund debt	6	696,532-43	
		Alms stock	6	261,500-00	
		For canals	6	18,575,527-00	18,262,496-64
		For railroads	6	4,984,484-00	
		For turnpikes and bridges	6	2,550,988-00	
		For miscellaneous	6	3,165,787-00	\$7,308,780-00

Statement of the Amount of Stocks and Bonds issued—continued.

State.	Year.	For what Object issued.	For cent.	Amount for each Object.	Total.
				Dollars.	Dollars.
Maryland	1884	Medical University	5	50,000	
		Penitentiary	5	87,847 00	
		Tobacco inspection	5	78,000 00	
		For railroads	5 2 2	5,450,000 00	
		For canals	5 2 2	5,700,000 00	
		Washington monument	5	10,000 00	
		Expenses of riots	5	77,000 00	11,488,900 75
Virginia	1860	For canals and river navigation	5 1 2	2,885,860 00	
		For railroads	5 2 2	5,128,900 00	
S. Carolina	1830	For Penitentiary	5	244,200 00	
		For Revolutionary debt	5	84,000 00	
		For war debt of 1814	5	218,000 00	6,982,000 00
		Public improvements	5 2 2	1,850,000 00	
		To Mrs. Hanson	5	10,000 00	
		Cincinnati and Charleston railroad	5	2,000,000 00	
		To re-build Charleston	5	5,000,000 00	
		Secessionary debt	5	128,770 18	5,758,770 18
Alabama	1863	For banking	5	7,800,000 00	
Louisiana	1864	For railroad	5	10,000,000 00	10,800,000 00
		For banking	5	20,800,000 00	
		New Orleans Draining Company	5	600,000 00	
		Hire of Jefferson	5	10,000 00	
		Charity hospital	5	125,000 00	
		State-house	5	100,000 00	22,735,000 00
Tennessee	1860	For banking	5 2 2	8,000,000 00	
		For turnpikes	5 2 2	118,168 96	
		Railroads and turnpikes	5	8,780,000 00	
		Improving rivers	5	150,000 00	7,148,168 96
Kentucky	1834	For banking	5	2,000,000 00	
		For improving rivers, by Lochs, &c.	5	5,218,000 00	
		For turnpikes and M'Adam roads	5	5,000,000 00	7,368,000 00
Ohio	1825	For canals	5	6,101,000 00	6,101,000 00
		For banking	5	1,990,000 00	
Indiana	1834	For canals	5	7,000,000 00	
		For railroads	5	8,000,000 00	
		For M'Adam turnpikes	5	1,150,000 00	
		For river navigation	5	50,000 00	11,800,000 00
Illinois	1861	For banking	5	8,000,000 00	
		For railroads	5	7,400,000 00	
		For canals	5	600,000 00	
		For payment of state debt	5	100,000 00	
		For river navigation, &c.	5	800,000 00	11,800,000 00
Missouri	1837	For banking	5	3,000,000 00	3,500,000 00
Mississippi	1861	Ditto	5	7,000,000 00	7,000,000 00
Arkansas	1834	Ditto	5	3,000,000 00	3,000,000 00
Michigan	1866	Controversy with Ohio	5	100,000 00	
		Internal improvements	5	5,000,000 00	
		Lead in railroads	5	1,000,000 00	
		State Penitentiary	5	30,000 00	
		University	5	100,000 00	5,840,000 00
					170,806,179 56
		If to the above be added the amount deposited by the United States in the treasury of the several states for safe keeping,			28,101,644 97
		If make the aggregate debt of all the states, existing and authorized			198,907,824 53

Summary of the Amount of Stock issued, and authorized to be issued, for Banking, Canals, Railroads, Turnpikes, and Miscellaneous Objects.

States.	For Banking.	Canals.	Railroads.	Turnpikes.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
New York	13,318,674	8,787,700	5,787,700	1,158,032	18,282,408	
Pennsylvania	18,978,587	4,864,484	2,686,969	3,166,767	27,306,757	
Massachusetts	4,390,000	4,390,000			4,390,000	
Maine				654,976	654,976	
Maryland		5,700,000	5,600,800	352,980	11,438,280	
Virginia		3,835,250	2,183,300	248,188	6,266,738	
South Carolina		1,950,000	2,000,000	354,800	4,304,800	
Ohio		8,101,000			2,308,770	
Kentucky	2,070,000	5,218,000*	360,000	2,400,000	6,101,000	
Illinois	3,000,000	800,000*	7,400,000		7,900,000	
Indiana	1,990,000	6,750,000	8,600,000	1,150,000	11,800,000	
Tennessee	3,000,000	900,000*	3,730,000	118,168	7,148,168	
Alabama	7,800,000		3,000,000		10,800,000	
Missouri	5,500,000				2,500,000	
Mississippi	7,000,000				7,000,000	
Louisiana	21,900,000				23,735,000	
Arkansas	3,000,000	50,000	600,000		3,000,000	
Michigan		2,800,000	2,800,000		320,000	
					5,840,000	
Total	82,840,000	88,301,516	42,871,084	8,518,968	8,474,684	170,806,177

* Whole or part for improvement of river navigation.

MAINE.—The stock issued by this state is to be redeemed under the direction of the legislature, by the sale of public lands, from the debts due to the state, by taxes, or new loans, as may be deemed expedient from time to time. The amount of notes due from individuals to the state (August, 1838) is 325,781 dollars. The whole amount of located lands belonging to the state, 1,400,000 acres, valued at 1,500,000 dollars; the unlocated lands belonging to Maine are estimated at 3,011,000 acres; making the total numbers of acres 4,411,000. This total includes half of the land north of the St. John's river in the king of Holland's award. The stock of this state is negotiable and transferable by the holder, and the interest in all cases is payable by the state. The interest on 235,000 dollars is payable at Boston annually, and the interest on the residue at the state treasury, annually and semi-annually; the stock bears interest at 5, 5½, and 6 per cent. The value of the taxable property of the state in 1830 was 28,907,687 34 dollars.

NEW HAMPSHIRE has issued no stock. The expenses of government are defrayed by a direct tax. **VERMONT.**—This state has issued no stock.

—continued.

Amount for each Object.	Total.
Dollars.	Dollars.
20,000-00	
97,247-30	
75,000-00	
8,250,000-00	
5,700,000-00	
10,000-00	
77,038-48	11,462,300-73
3,850,250-00	
2,120,000-00	
244,200-00	
54,038-00	
119,200-00	6,002,000-00
1,850,000-00	
10,000-00	
188,770-18	5,753,770-18
7,500,000-00	
5,000,000-00	10,500,000-00
20,000-00	
188,000-00	
100,000-00	23,735,000-00
5,000,000-00	
118,188-08	
5,750,000-00	
800,000-00	7,148,188-08
2,000,000-00	
5,015,000-00	
5,000,000-00	
850,000-00	7,300,000-00
6,101,000-00	5,101,000-00
1,200,000-00	
6,700,000-00	
5,000,000-00	
11,000,000-00	
50,000-00	11,000,000-00
2,000,000-00	
7,400,000-00	
800,000-00	
100,000-00	
800,000-00	11,000,000-00
2,500,000-00	
7,000,000-00	7,000,000-00
5,000,000-00	3,000,000-00
100,000-00	
5,000,000-00	
150,000-00	
50,000,000-00	
100,000-00	5,340,000-00
	170,806,179-36
al states for info	26,101,644-97
	198,907,824-33

for Banking, Canals, Railroads,

Surpluses.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
508,989	9,186,797	9,695,786
	854,978	854,978
	284,380	11,035,963
354,800	345,139	6,987,042
	2,203,770	5,737,770
		6,010,000
400,000		7,368,000
	800,000	11,800,000
150,000		11,880,000
115,108		7,164,168
		10,800,000
		3,900,000
		7,000,000
	336,000	23,735,000
	220,000	3,007,000
618,958	8,474,684	170,806,177

direction of the legislature, by new means, as may be deemed to the state (August, 1838) is 1,400,000 acres, valued at \$2,011,000 acres; making north of the St. John's river and transferable by the holder, 5,000 dollars is payable at Boston and semi-annually; the property of the state in 1830 was are defrayed by a direct tax.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Interest on 5,000,000 dollars of stock payable in London, by the Railroad Corporation, in whose favor the stock is granted, the interest on the rest is payable at the state treasury; the several corporations reimbursing the treasury for the interest so paid out. The scrip in all cases is made payable to the bearer, and no form is necessary in transferring the same. The real and personal property within the state (1830) is 908,360,407 dollars.

RHODE ISLAND.—This state has issued no stock. Valuation in January, 1834, 25,310,000 dollars.

CONNECTICUT.—This state has issued no stock, or bills of credit, since the revolutionary war. "The amount of the grand list is 97,122,697 dollars," in 1837.

NEW YORK.—This state commenced issuing stock in 1817 for the construction of the Erie and Champlain canals. The sum of 600,000 dollars was issued prior to 1830. The law of 1817 created a Board of Commissioners of the Canal Fund, consisting of the state officers, and placed under the management of the Board of Specific Revenues, which were pledged for the payment of the money borrowed. There has been derived from the auxiliary funds thus set apart, since the first organization of the canal fund, the sum of 5,824,761 dollars; which exceeds by 370,000 dollars the whole amount paid for interest on all the money borrowed for the Erie and Champlain canals for 31 years, from 1817 to 1838. From 1821 to 1838, these two canals have yielded in tolls 15,004,375-97 dollars. The result is, that the whole of the original debt is provided for, and, except about 32 millions, has been paid off, and the stock cancelled. The law authorizing money to be borrowed previous to 1835, contained the following provision, viz: "that it shall not be lawful for the commissioners of the canal fund to make loans under this act, beyond such amounts as, for the payment of the interest thereof, the canal fund, at the time, shall be deemed simple and sufficient."

In 1835, the financial policy in regard to monies borrowed, was changed; and loans from that time to the present have been authorized without setting apart specific funds for the payment of interest in each case, however, the payment of the interest is made a charge on the treasury and provision has been made to borrow from the Erie and Champlain canal fund, to meet this demand on the treasury. In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, this state paid the interest on its whole debt in coin, and redeemed about 1,000,000 of the stock due in 1837, by paying 100 dollars in New York city paper for each 100 dollars of stock redeemed. For six years, from 1835 to 1838, the revenue from the tolls of the canals, after defraying all expenses of repairs, and paying interest on the whole amount of the outstanding debts, has yielded an average surplus of 610,000 dollars per annum. This surplus will sustain a debt of 12,000,000 dollars.

The stocks issued by the state of New York are transferable in the city of New York, either by the owner in person, or by a power of attorney. The original certificates in all cases to be produced when the transfer is made.

The aggregate valuation of real and personal estate in 1837 was 627,544,784 dollars.

NEW JERSEY has not issued stock of any kind, or lent her credit in any company.

PENNSYLVANIA.—This state pays the interest on its stock at the Bank of Pennsylvania, where the stock is transferable. The following revenues are set apart for the payment of interest on the stock loans, viz. canal and railroad tolls, dividend on turnpikes and bridge stock, auction duties, collateral inheritances, county rates and levies, tax on personal property, and excises. Whenever the revenues arising from the above sources is not sufficient for the payment of the interest on the stock loans, the deficiency is taken out of the treasury proper. The acts of assembly directing the loans to be made, direct also that the governor shall borrow on the credit of the commonwealth, and such fund or funds as have been or shall be created, for securing the punctual payment of the interest, and the reimbursement of the principal.

The aggregate valuation of real and personal estate in 1835 was 204,500,197 dollars.

MARYLAND.—This state, in all cases, pays the interest on the stock, half yearly and quarterly; but the companies which the state has aided by its loans reimburse the treasury for the amount of interest paid from time to time. A sinking fund has been established, from premiums and other sources, which now (1835) amounts to 1,070,306-03 dollars, which is applied to the purchase of the state stock.

During the suspension of specie payments, this state did not pay the interest on its stock either in specie or its equivalent. Some of the holders of the stock, refused to receive depreciated bank paper for the dividends; the treasurer, in December, 1837, reported this fact to the legislature; and in March, 1838, an act was passed, which provides that the state treasurer shall cause the interest on the state stock, that shall hereafter accrue, and that which has accrued since the 1st of April, 1837, to be paid, "either in coin, or its equivalent in current bank notes, to be determined by the commissioners of loans by the price of coin in Baltimore on the quarter day."

The private, real, and personal property, other than merchandise, and rights and credits of all sorts, is estimated at over 100,000,000 dollars. No uniform mode of valuing property throughout the state is observed. In most of the counties, the valuations are made under acts of 1785 and 1797, which require all lands to be put down at 3 dollars per acre; male slaves, at the highest, 100 dollars; and females at 80 dollars each.

VIRGINIA.—The interest on the stock issued by this state is payable semi-annually at the treasury, in gold or silver. The profits of the improvements for which the stock is issued are pledged for the payment of interest and principal; and, if necessary, the general revenues of the commonwealth are pledged for the payment of the interest.

The aggregate valuation of the real property of the state in 1818 was 206,803,978 dollars; and is now probably 300,000,000. There is no mode of ascertaining the personal property.

NORTH CAROLINA.—This state has set apart a large amount of funds for internal improvements, and for the establishment of public schools, which are placed under the direction of two boards, styled the Literary and Internal Improvement Boards. These funds, until required to meet specific appropriations by the legislature, are lent out to individuals and corporations at 6 per cent. The state of North Carolina owes no debt.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The faith of the state and the capital of the bank of the state of South Carolina and the annual dividends thereof, are pledged for the payment of 800,000 dollars issued from 1822 to 1826; and the annual dividends have been formed into a sinking fund for that purpose; and at this time (October, 1838) they amount to upwards of 800,000 dollars, so that the 6 per cent. redeemable in 1840, will no doubt then be paid. The interest on 3,000,000 dollars to be lent in the Louisville, Cincinnati and Charleston railroad, is payable semi-annually in London. The 2,000,000 dollars for rebuilding a part of Charleston is to be lent to individuals, and the stock to be reimbursed from the mortgages of individuals. The interest on the state stock is payable semi-annually in London.

VALUATION OF PROPERTY, 200,000,000 DOLLARS.

MISSISSIPPI.—This state has issued bonds on the faith of the state, to the amount of 7,000,000 dollars, and has subscribed that amount in the stocks of two banks.

LOUISIANA.—The interest on the state bonds is paid by the respective banks to which they were originally issued. The interest on other state stocks is paid out of any moneys in the treasury.

The Bank of Louisiana, 2,000,000 dollars of stock; the profits retained for redemption of the installment of 1839, sufficient to cover the amount, 600,000 dollars.

Consolidated Association.—These bonds are guaranteed by mortgages on real productive property, amounting to 3,000,000 dollars. No stockholder can borrow more than 50 per cent. on his stock; and

this amount is returned by yearly instalments to meet the payment of the bonds by the bank. The state for its guarantee is considered as stockholder for 1,000,000 dollars, and, on the payment of the bonds, will divide accordingly with the stockholders. Dividends are only declared as the bonds are paid, and in the same proportion. The profits, until then, are retained as a sinking fund to meet the redemption of the bonds.

The Union Bank has bonds to the amount of 7,000,000 dollars, and is conducted on similar principles as the above. The original guarantee on mortgages of productive property is 8,000,000 dollars. The state for its guarantee is to receive one sixth of the net proceeds.

The Citizens' Bank has received bonds to the amount of 8,000,000 dollars, and can demand 4,000,000 more; it is conducted on the same principles as above described. The guarantee is on 14,000,000 dollars of mortgages on real productive property. The state holds one sixth of the net profits, which are only to be divided as the bonds are paid by the banks, and in the same proportion.

TENNESSEE.—The interest on the state bonds subscribed to the Union Bank were paid by the dividends on the stock, until the revolution of 1837, after which the state paid the interest from the ordinary resources of the treasury. The interest on the bonds issued to railroad and turnpike companies is paid by the state, and the companies are required to reimburse the treasury for the sums from time to time paid.

KENTUCKY.—This state, in all cases, pays the interest on her own stocks. Auxiliary funds are set apart for the payment of the interest; but if these funds should prove insufficient, the state is bound to resort to direct taxes. In 1836, the legislature established a sinking fund for the payment of the debt; to which fund are appropriated bonuses and dividends on bank stock, premiums on scrip, state dividends in turnpike stock and all internal improvements, profits of the commonwealth's bank, proceeds of state stock in the old Bank of Kentucky, and the excess in the treasury over 10,000 dollars of each year. The governor, by an act passed in 1838, is authorised to borrow any sum not exceeding the capacity of the sinking fund, to pay the interest, and ultimately the principal, of the state bonds, at an interest not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum.

Taxation is confined to specific subjects. The aggregate value of such as are chargeable with revenue is 217,453,041 dollars, upon which a tax of 10 cents on the 100 dollars is paid.

OHIO.—The interest on the stock of this state is payable in New York, where the stock is transferable. Auxiliary funds are set apart for the payment of the interest, and, in case of a deficiency therein, it is made the duty of the auditor of state to levy an adequate amount by direct taxation. The loans were invariably made on pledges of specific revenues for the payment of both principal and interest.

The state of Ohio, at the commencement of its loans, organised a system of finance on a firm foundation, providing by direct taxation for the payment of the interest and the ultimate redemption of the principal. In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, Ohio paid the interest on its debt in New York city paper, at the rate of 100 dollars for each 100 dollars of interest.

Aggregate valuation of real and personal property, 110,000,000 dollars.

INDIANA.—The canal lands granted to the state by the general government on the Wabash river, are pledged for the payment of the loans made on account of the Wabash canal. The interest on the bonds issued to the state bank is paid by the bank.

In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, this state purchased coin to pay the interest on its debt; and for the July quarter paid 111 dollars in New York paper for each 100 dollars in coin.

Aggregate valuation in 1837 estimated at 95,000,000 dollars.

ILLINOIS.—The state in all cases pays the interest on the stock. In addition to the usual pledge of the faith of the state, lands, revenues, &c., there are specifically pledged for the redemption of the canal bonds, the lands granted by the general government to aid in constructing the canal; the estimate of which is equal to the whole cost of the canal. There is also pledged for the interest and final redemption of the bank bonds, the dividends and the stock owned by the state in the banks, which amounts to nearly half a million of dollars more than the amount of these bonds.

MICHIGAN.—The proceeds of the public works, as well as the faith of the state, is pledged for 5,000,000 dollars—the lands set apart for the University is pledged for the loan for that object. The loans to railroads are secured by pledge of the roads, &c. The interest on 100,000 dollars issued to defray the expenses of the controversy with Ohio, is to be paid by a direct tax.

Missouri has issued bonds to the amount of 3,500,000 dollars to the state bank of Missouri.

ARKANSAS has issued 3,000,000 dollars of bonds to two banks in that state.

Statement showing the Amount of Stocks issued, and authorised by Law to be issued, by the several States named below, in each Period of Five Years, from 1820 to 1835, and from 1835 to 1838.

State.	1820 to 1825.	1825 to 1830.	1830 to 1835.	1835 to 1838.	Total.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
New York	6,873,781*	1,824,000	2,204,979	12,229,288	22,931,018
Pennsylvania	1,280,000	6,300,000	16,130,000	2,166,787	27,796,750
Massachusetts	—	—	—	4,390,000	4,390,000
Maine	—	—	554,976	—	554,976
Maryland	67,847	676,869	4,210,311	6,648,033	11,492,960
Virginia	1,030,000	490,000	666,500	4,132,000	6,318,500
South Carolina	1,360,000†	815,000	—	4,000,000	5,465,000
Ohio	—	4,000,000	1,701,000	—	6,101,000
Kentucky	—	—	—	7,368,000	7,368,000
Illinois	—	—	800,000	11,000,000	11,800,000
Indiana	—	—	1,890,000	10,000,000	11,890,000
Tennessee	—	—	500,000	6,648,000	7,148,000
Alabama	100,000	—	8,300,000	8,500,000	17,900,000
Missouri	—	—	—	2,500,000	2,500,000
Mississippi	—	—	3,000,000	—	3,000,000
Louisiana	1,900,000	—	7,385,000	14,000,000	23,735,000
Arkansas	—	—	—	3,000,000	3,000,000
Nichigan	—	—	—	5,340,000	5,340,000
Total	12,790,728	13,679,000	40,012,769	106,423,805	174,906,594

* Of this amount the sum of about 4-1/2 millions of dollars has been redeemed.

† Virginia has a war debt of 343,136-17 dollars, contracted previous to 1820.

‡ South Carolina has a revolutionary debt of 185,770-19 dollars.

Some doubts having been entertained as to the right of individual states to contract loans, Messrs. Baring, Brothers and Co. addressed a letter on the subject to the distinguished American senator and lawyer, Mr. Webster, lately on a visit to this country. We subjoin his reply:—

“London, Oct. 16, 1839.

“Gentlemen,—I have received your letter, and lose no time in giving you my opinion on the question which you have submitted for my consideration. The assertions and suggestions to which you refer, as having appeared in some of the public prints, had not escaped my notice.

the bonds by the bank. The and, on the payment of the only declared as the bonds are a sinking fund to meet the conducted on similar principles is 8,000,000 dollars. The

erty, and can demand 4,000,000 guarantee is on 14,000,000 dollars of the net profits, which are

Bank were paid by the divi- 1 the interest from the ordi- and turnpike companies assary for the sums from time

ks. Auxiliary funds are set sufficient, the state is bound to for the payment of the debt; eniums on scrip, state divi- monwealth's bank, proceeds over 10,000 dollars of each sum not exceeding the can- of the state bonds, at an

as are chargeable with reve- is paid. where the stock is transfer- case of a deficiency therein, direct taxation. The loans both principal and interest.

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ate, is pledged for 5,000,000 for that object. The loans to dollars issued to defray the

th bank of Missouri. ate.

y to be issued, by the several b, and from 1835 to 1838.

1835.	1863 to 1868.	Total.
779	Dollars.	1/2 Dols.
100	16,228,284	32,801,048
100	9,168,797	37,969,845
100	4,896,000	42,865,845
100	6,648,038	49,513,883
100	4,132,700	53,646,583
100	4,000,000	57,646,583
100	7,868,000	65,514,583
100	11,000,000	76,514,583
100	10,000,000	86,514,583
100	6,648,000	93,162,583
100	8,600,000	101,762,583
100	5,500,000	107,262,583
100	5,000,000	112,262,583
100	14,500,000	126,762,583
100	3,000,000	129,762,583
100	5,340,000	135,102,583
69	108,428,805	174,908,994

ntered. 1830.

al states to contract loans, ject to the distinguished in this country. We subjoin

"London, Oct. 10, 1839. You my opinion on the ques- ed suggestions to which you y notice.

"Your first inquiry is, 'whether the legislature of one of the states has legal and constitutional power to contract loans at home and abroad?'"

"To this I answer, that the legislature of a state has such power; and how any doubt could have arisen on this point, it is difficult for me to conceive. Every state is an independent, sovereign, political community, except in so far as certain powers, which it might otherwise have exercised, have been conferred on a general government, established under a written constitution, and exerting its authority over the people of all the states. This general government is a limited government. Its powers are specific and enumerated. All powers not conferred upon it still remain with the states and with the people. The state legislatures, on the other hand, possess all usual and ordinary powers of government, subject to any limitations which may be imposed by their own constitutions, and with the exception, as I have said, of the operation, on those powers, of the constitution of the United States. The powers conferred on the general government cannot, of course, be exercised by any individual state; nor can any state pass any law which is prohibited by the constitution of the United States. Thus no state can by itself make war, or conclude peace, nor enter into alliances or treaties with foreign nations. In these, and other important particulars, the powers which would have otherwise belonged to the state can now be exercised only by the general government, or government of the United States. Nor can a state pass a law which is prohibited by its own constitution. But there is no provision in the constitution of the United States, nor, so far as I know or have understood, in any state constitution, prohibiting the legislature of a state from contracting debts, or making loans, either at home or abroad. Every state has the power of levying and collecting taxes, direct and indirect, of all kinds, except that no state can impose duties on goods and merchandise imported,—that power belonging exclusively to congress by the constitution. That power of taxation is exercised by every state, habitually and constantly, according to its own discretion, and the exigencies of its government.

"This is the general theory of that mixed system of government which prevails in America. And as the constitution of the United States contains no prohibition or restraint on state legislatures in regard to making loans, and as no state constitution, so far as known to me, contains any such prohibition, it is clear that, in this respect, these legislatures are left in the full possession of this power, as an ordinary and usual power of government.

"I have seen a suggestion, that state loans must be regarded as unconstitutional and illegal, inasmuch as the constitution of the United States has declared that no state shall emit bills of credit. It is certain that the constitution of the United States does contain this salutary prohibition; but what is a bill of credit? It has no resemblance whatever to a bond, or other security given for the payment of money borrowed. The term 'bill of credit' is familiar in our political history, and its meaning well ascertained and settled, not only by that history, but by judicial interpretations and decisions from the highest courts. For the purpose of this opinion, it may be sufficient to say, that bills of credit, the subject of the prohibition in the constitution of the United States, were essentially paper money. They were paper issues, intended for circulation, and for receipt into the treasury as cash, and were sometimes made a tender in payment of debts. To put an end at once, and for ever, to evils of this sort, and to dangers from this source, the constitution of the United States has declared, that 'no state shall emit bills of credit, nor make any thing but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts, nor pass any law which shall impair the obligation of contracts.' All this, however, proves, not that states cannot contract debts, but that, when contracted, they must pay them in coin, according to their stipulations. The several states possess the power of borrowing money for their own internal occasions of expenditures, as fully as congress possesses the power to borrow in behalf of the United States, for the purpose of raising armies, equipping navies, or performing any other of its constitutional duties. It may be added, that congress itself fully recognises this power in the states, as it has authorised the investment of large funds which it held in trust for very important purposes in certificates of state stocks.

"The security for state loans is the pledged faith of the state, as a political community. It rests on the same basis as other contracts with established governments—the same basis, for example, as loans made to the United States under the authority of congress; that is to say, the good faith of the government making the loan, and its ability to fulfil its engagements. These state loans, it is known, have been contracted principally for the purpose of making railroads and canals; and in some cases, although I know not how generally, the income or revenue expected to be derived from these works is directly and specifically pledged for the payment of the interest and the redemption of the debt, in addition to the obligation of public faith. In several states, other branches of revenue have been apudically pledged; and in others, very valuable tracts of land. It cannot be doubted that the general result of these works of internal improvement has been, and will be, to enhance the wealth and ability of the states.

"It has been said that the states cannot be sued on these bonds. But neither could the United States be sued, nor, as I suppose, the crown of England, in a like case. Nor would the power of suing, probably, give the creditor any substantial additional security. The solemn obligation of a government, arising on its own acknowledged bond, would not be enhanced by a judgment rendered on such bond. If it either could not, or would not, make provision for paying the bond, it is not probable that it could, or would, make provision for satisfying the judgment.

"The states cannot rid themselves of their obligations otherwise than by the honest payment of the debt. They can pass no law impairing the obligation of their own contracts,—they can make nothing a tender in discharge of such contracts but gold and silver. They possess all adequate power of providing for the case, by taxes and internal means of revenue. They cannot get round their duty, nor evade its force. Any failure to fulfil its undertakings would be an open violation of public faith, to be followed by the penalty of dishonour and disgrace,—a penalty, it may be presumed, which no state of the American Union would be likely to incur.

"I hope I may be justified by existing circumstances to close this letter with the expression of an opinion of a more general nature. It is, that I believe the citizens of the United States, like all honest men, regard debts, whether public or private, and whether existing at home or abroad, to be of moral as well as legal obligation; and I trust I may appeal to their history, from the moment when those states took their rank among the nations of the earth to the present time, for proof that this belief is well founded; and if it were possible that any of the states should at any time so entirely lose her self-respect and forget her duty as to violate the faith solemnly pledged for her pecuniary engagements, I believe there is no country upon earth—not even that of the injured creditors—in which such a proceeding would meet with less countenance or indulgence than it would receive from the great mass of the American people.

"I have the honour to be, gentlemen, your obedient servant,
"Messrs. Baring Brothers & Co."
"DANIEL WEBSTER."

There can, of course, be no further doubt as to the law on this important subject; and we trust that the states will respectively evince that high moral sense, and determination to pay their just debts, for which their distinguished countryman gives them credit. We confess,

however, that we are not without our misgivings on this point. The extreme facility with which loans on American account have recently been raised in Europe, and especially in this country, on all manner of securities, will turn out, in the end, a serious loss to America, inasmuch as it has tempted her citizens to engage, without sufficient consideration, in the most gigantic undertakings, and to generate and diffuse a spirit far more akin to gambling than to the pursuits of sober industry. In consequence, a vast amount of capital has been unprofitably expended, and to little better purpose, in fact, than if it had been absolutely thrown away. Now, the question which our countrymen, who are so fond of investing in American securities, would do well to ponder, is, will the states continue, after the excitement of the period of expenditure is gone by, regularly to pay the interest of these debts? Suppose that a system of universal suffrage were established in this country, and that we had several millions a year to pay to France or Russia, for loans borrowed from them, and expended less, perhaps, for the public advantage than for the private benefit of the parties who negotiated the loans: under such circumstances, we rather incline to think, should any thing occur to excite our prejudices against our foreign creditors, that there would be no small risk of a serious interruption taking place in the payments due to them. And if such a thing might, in the supposed case, be not unreasonably predicted of England, it is not uncharitable to suppose that it may also occur in America.—S.

GALACZ. To the conclusion of the paragraph, vol. i., page 701, of this edition, annex the following:—

Navigatio of the Danube.—Steam navigation was first established on the Danube in 1830, since which the undertaking has gone on prospering, so much so, that the communication between Vienna and Constantinople is now maintained by a line of seven steam vessels. The Austrian steam company, which was the first in the field, have extended their scheme by starting vessels between Vienna and Linz, and a Bavarian company commenced in 1838 running a vessel between Ratisbon and Linz. It is probable that in a year or two steamers may ply from Ulm downwards. At present steam boats ply on the Danube as long as the river remains free from ice (usually from February or March to November), from Ratisbon to Linz, once a week; Linz to Vienna, 10 hours, once a week; Vienna to Presburg and Pesth, twice; Pesth to Drenkova, once a week; Gladova to Galacz, once a week; Galacz to Constantinople, once a fortnight.

The voyage from Vienna to Constantinople, including stoppages, is seldom performed in less than fourteen days, and sometimes occupies seventeen; in returning against the stream it takes at least a month, including ten days' quarantine at Orsova. The fare, first place, is 134fl., about 13l.; second place, 94fl.

The navigation of the Danube by steamers is unfortunately interrupted for a length of about fifty miles, between Drenkova and Gladova, by rocks and rapids, the lowest and most considerable of which is a sort of cataract, called the "Irongate," about three miles below the Hungarian frontier. It is worthy of remark that the most illustrious of the Roman emperors, Trajan, alive to all the advantages to be derived from the easy navigation of the Danube, had with equal industry and sagacity formed a road, or towing path, along the river's edge for facilitating the operation of toiling, of which the remains are still extant, with an inscription commemorative of the completion of the works. It has been proposed to overcome the difficulties in the way of the navigation by renovating the old Roman road, and deepening the channel contiguous to it. But it rarely happens that attempts to improve the navigation in the bed of a river, under any thing like similar circumstances, are even tolerably successful. The better way undoubtedly would be, were it practicable, to construct a lateral canal, or rather a canal from the mouth of the Bereska to Palanka, which would not only avoid the rapids, but also shorten the navigation by getting rid of the bend of the river by Orsova. But the difficulties in the way of such an undertaking, from the nature of the ground, are said to be insuperable; and it is, therefore, probable that the distance of 60 miles along the rapids will continue. If not always, at least for some considerable time, a *portage*. The evil, however, of this break in the navigation has been diminished, as far as possible, by the construction of an admirable carriage road (recently finished), at great expense, by the Hungarian diet, from Moldova to Orsova. In the extent of excavations in the rock, and terraces of masonry, upon which it is carried, it is not inferior as a specimen of engineering to the finest roads over the Alps. Several steamers have been transported down these rapids at the season of floods, small barges pass them at all times, and little boats, laden with wax and wool, are towed up by men and oxen. The passengers and goods conveyed by the steamers are transferred from Moldova in row-boats, to Gladova, below the Irongate, where they embark on another steamer.

A railroad is nearly completed from Brunn, the capital of Moravia, to Vienna; another railroad diverges from the Danube, at Linz, north to Budweis in Bohemia, where it reaches the banks of the Muldau, and through it communicates with the Elbe.—A.

GUAYAQUIL.

Account of the Export of Cocoa from Guayaquil, during each of the Six Years ending with 1838, specifying the Countries to which it was exported, and the Quantities sent to each.

Countries.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	Total.
	<i>Lbs.</i>						
Spain	2,108,169	6,709,861	3,973,379	4,970,896	4,439,818	2,149,902	24,355,020
England				626,447	108,568	732,016	1,467,031
France	338,745	376,021	555,975	806,304		750,723	2,077,768
United States	530,536	747,927	428,150	685,041	1,816,363	892,273	5,100,289
Mexico	1,270,659	1,991,184	2,999,595	1,614,093	275,949	1,231,121	8,782,591
Central America	261,098	286,958	650,297	480,189	84,070	431,822	2,273,434
New Granada	56,954	2,106	50,422	49,963	54,712	33,659	171,706
Peru	675,801	805,270	638,167	2,137,473	711,681	787,373	5,496,769
Chili	259,847	238,047	288,711	450,265	268,750	160,899	1,740,509
Manila	139,938	153,778		67,463		806,370	1,167,449
Hamburg						400,000	400,000
Genoa						823,377	823,377
San Tomas			408,000				408,000
Sto Jovairo			306,454	493,871	348,000		1,148,325
Total	6,995,778	10,009,992	13,900,851	10,918,565	8,820,135	7,196,075	68,131,954

HAMBURGH—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

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The district in which Guayaquil is situated has, for a considerable period, formed a part of the republic of Ecuador or Æquator. Like the other S. American states it has been subjected to perpetually recurring revolutions; but Guayaquil has notwithstanding continued to enjoy a considerable commerce. Its principal article of export is cocoa, of which large quantities are shipped; and next to it are timber, tobacco, calbo wool used in stuffing mattresses, &c. The principal articles of import are British manufactured cottons and hardware, silks, wine, flour, &c.—S.

HAMBURGH.

Table of the Principal Imports, Stocks, Exports, and Consumption at the Port of Hamburg, from 1836 to 1839, both inclusive.

	1836				1837				1838				1839			
	Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp.	Price in December.	Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp.	Price in December.	Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp.	Price in December.	Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp.	Price in December.
Coffee	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	14,000,000	47,500,000	49,500,000	4 7/8 to 6 1-4	18,000,000	51,500,000	49,825,000	4 1/2 - 4 3-4	21,000,000	53,000,000	51,000,000	4 1/2 to 5 1-4	20,000,000	52,000,000	50,000,000	4 1-2 to 5 1-4
1837	15,000,000	47,500,000	49,500,000	4 1/2 - 4 3-4	18,000,000	51,500,000	49,825,000	4 1/2 - 4 3-4	20,000,000	52,000,000	50,000,000	4 1/2 to 5 1-4	19,000,000	51,000,000	49,000,000	4 1-2 to 5 1-4
1838	17,000,000	47,500,000	49,500,000	5 - 6 1-4	18,000,000	51,500,000	49,825,000	5 - 6 1-4	19,000,000	51,000,000	49,000,000	5 - 6 1-4	18,000,000	50,000,000	48,000,000	5 - 6 1-4
1839	18,000,000	47,500,000	49,500,000	5 - 6 1-4	18,000,000	51,500,000	49,825,000	5 - 6 1-4	19,000,000	51,000,000	49,000,000	5 - 6 1-4	18,000,000	50,000,000	48,000,000	5 - 6 1-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	9,500,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sugar	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	21,000,000	83,000,000	81,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	20,000,000	80,000,000	78,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	19,000,000	78,000,000	76,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	18,000,000	76,000,000	74,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1837	20,000,000	80,000,000	78,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	19,000,000	78,000,000	76,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	18,000,000	76,000,000	74,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	17,000,000	74,000,000	72,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1838	19,000,000	78,000,000	76,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	18,000,000	76,000,000	74,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	17,000,000	74,000,000	72,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	16,000,000	72,000,000	70,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1839	18,000,000	76,000,000	74,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	17,000,000	74,000,000	72,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	16,000,000	72,000,000	70,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	15,000,000	70,000,000	68,000,000	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	11,000,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hides	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4
1837	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4
1838	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4
1839	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4	23,000	13,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	6,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tobacco	<i>Hogheads.</i>	<i>Hogheads.</i>	<i>Hogheads.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1837	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1838	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
1839	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8	1,200	4,498	4,048	1 1/2 to 1 7/8
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	400	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cotton	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4
1837	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4
1838	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4
1839	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4	9,145	66,106	56,761	7 3-4 to 10 1-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	8,800	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Indigo	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Che. Ser.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>
- 1836	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8
1837	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8
1838	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8
1839	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8	470	350	7,128	6 1-4 to 8
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	65	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rice	<i>Bils.</i>	<i>Bils.</i>	<i>Bils.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2
1837	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2
1838	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2
1839	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2	13,300	6,000	8,107	13 to 14 1/2
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	8,500	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pepper	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4
1837	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4
1838	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4
1839	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3 1/2 to 4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	900,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fineclo	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>Bags.</i>	<i>Schillinge.</i>												
- 1836	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8
1837	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8
1838	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8
1839	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8	14,000	14,000	13,083	3 3/4 to 3 3/8
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840	-	-	7,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Shipping.—The ships arriving at Hamburg in the undermentioned years (ending 30th of September) have been as under:—

	From the	1837.	1838.	1839.
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IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

1 Table exhibiting the different Countries to which Articles of the Produce or Manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the Six Years ending with 1838, arranged in the Order of the Magnitude of the Exports to them; and specifying the average annual Amount of the Exports to each during the said Six Years, and the Portion of such Exports destined for each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1833-38.	Average annual Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.	Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1833-38.	Average annual Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.
United States of America	3,233,293	181,880,779	Hartl	L	6-62,597
Germany	4,613,721	101,985,311	Mauritius	303,313	3-42,564
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	3,375,804	73-858,808	Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	308,977	4-470,795
British West Indies	2,163,832	66-666,491	Malta	154,032	3-62,564
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,736,161	69-818,378	Columbia	184,004	3-588,552
Holland	2,733,274	69-811,438	Prussia	162,728	3-342,039
Brazil	2,531,991	68-174,964	Denmark	113,113	2-475,418
British North American colonies	1,311,203	48-837,741	Ionian Islands	85,168	3-62,490
Russia	1,836,381	36-802,803	Sweden	80,813	1-867,234
France	1,494,597	32-706,631	Philippine Islands	84,821	1-864,113
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	1,377,464	30-142,643	Norway	70,945	1-552,439
Portugal Proper	1,242,114	27-180,819	Azores	62,631	1-151,709
China	988,170	21-680,071	Madaira	40,461	8-83,820
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	863,584	18-897,557	Syria and Palestine	37,018	6-10,010
Belgium	861,198	18-845,301	Canary Islands	35,811	7-85,829
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land and Swan River	844,100	18-471,194	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	33,228	7-47,393
Chili	703,385	15-391,989	Morea and Greek Islands	23,273	6-11,508
States of the Rio de la Plata	678,672	15-377,441	St. Helena	21,223	4-69,073
Gibraltar	667,570	14-608,240	Guatemala	3,354	1-82,508
Peru	437,184	9-466,398	Araba	3,036	0-86,108
Cape of Good Hope	424,658	9-390,220	Ports of Spain	2,030	0-71,294
Mexico	416,452	9-118,058	Ile of Bourbon	1,814	0-99,696
Sumatra and Java	381,617	8-851,470	Eastern coast of Africa	1,782	0-88,567
Western coast of Africa	338,952	7-811,077	New Zealand and South Sea Islands	786	0-17,200
Spain and the Balearic Islands	356,998	7-608,786	Cape Verd Islands	635	0-13,496
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	340,116	7-442,608	Ascension Island	179	0-8,937
			African Ports on the Red Sea	33	0-0,124
			Total	45,898,182	1,000,000,000

II. Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with Nett Produce of the Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1837 and 1838.

Description.	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.
Ashes, pearl and pot	147,328	127,101	18,810	6,097	128,096	192,290	L. 193	233
Cocoa	2,553,000	4,096,408	933,278	639,297	1,418,613	1,601,787	13,922	15,262
Hunks and shells	511,757	394,422			491,710	421,548		
Coffee, vis	15,184,413	17,136,693	309,017	93,237	17,188,168	15,499,639	696,645	665,092
British plantation								
East India and Mauritius	8,850,008	8,414,698	1,290,255	246,578	9,906,634	10,383,843		
Foreign plantation	11,378,096	14,080,088	4,411,703	10,958,465	8,169	8,191		
All sorts	36,413,514	39,932,279	5,060,975	11,290,290	36,346,961	33,765,673		
Cm', unmanufactured	60,316	61,658	246	295	60,078	61,623	24,194	23,119
Cotton wool, from foreign countries, vis								
The U. S. of America	330,851,718	431,437,988						
Brazil	30,840,145	24,464,06						
Turkey, Syria, and Egypt	7,881,640	5,412,478						
Other foreign countries	4,618,929	4,750,660						
Total	354,090,230	406,074,551						
Cotton wool, from British possessions, vis								
East Indies and Mauritius, the growth of	51,577,141	40,229,495						
Foreign	50	689						
British West Indies, the growth of	1,198,192	928,435						
Foreign	396,540	606,931						
Other British possessions	33,664	16,806						
Total quantities	407,396,783	507,630,577	59,732,031	90,644,469	366,446,095	455,036,765	450,659	557,892
Indigo	6,545,473	7,004,898	6,887,561	5,148,981	2,926,184	8,000,780	39,898	33,419
Lac dye	1,011,874	1,098,552	183,956	403,937	493,525	675,099	1,140	1,694
Logwood	14,699	16,992	3,318	4,937	12,023	13,798	5,403	8,841
Madder	84,841	37,411	822	2,374	78,890	108,991	8,037	10,812
Madder roots	109,495	73,701	2	188	109,648	62,841	9,582	9,700
Flax and tow, or ecodilla of hemp and flax	1,000,964	1,626,377	6,970	6,690	998,664	1,615,906	4,254	5,927
Curcuma	217,941	168,738	17,821	22,931	174,848	166,634	184,490	168,233
Lemons and oranges	818,490	881,077	1,526	1,303	811,480	229,848	82,481	60,980
Reinsin	189,690	195,498	11,226	16,653	182,193	165,174	114,095	110,330
Hats of straw	36,228	14,472	18,714	9,778	5,064	4,522	1,676	1,293
Flattings of straw	30,962	40,110	1,546	11,028	23,962	34,928	30,033	39,041
Beeps, unadressed	773,621	730,378	16,574	94,469	651,619	703,378	2,768	3,194

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

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Table II.—continued.

Description.	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.		
	1877.	1878.	1877.	1878.	1877.	1878.	1877.	1878.	
	L.		L.		L.		L.		
Hides, tanned, viz.—									
Buffalo, bull, cow, or horse	cwt.	338,652	248,582	45,849	85,492	290,730	916,369	36,492	41,561
Hides, tanned, viz.—									
Buffalo, bull, cow, or horse	lbs.	87,574	195,955	19,903	221,142	63,886	20,392	814	910
Molasses	cwt.	682,223	650,549	1,641	1,291	682,019	528,210	256,324	236,688
Oil, olive	gallons	1,721,914	2,008,110	209,472	200,763	1,496,856	2,026,148	34,928	45,118
— prin	cwt.	223,337	226,319	16,732	6,229	811,919	273,901	13,299	17,102
— true, sperm-cast, and blubber	cwt.	31,803	23,231	983	1,192	20,879	29,890	14,370	6,805
Salt-petre and cubic nitre	cwt.	349,993	294,525	26,959	68,889	240,222	290,690	6,339	7,505
Flax and linseed	bush. ls.	3,321,040	3,304,969	6,878	146,628	3,391,643	3,136,995	21,111	19,221
Flax	—	130,036	50,015	183	437	107,499	71,855	5,533	4,210
Tares	—	4,146,411	3,458,959	245,271	134,458	3,620,108	3,595,516	15,451	16,290
Silk, raw	—	943,221	943,395	21,288	32,254	897,454	935,205	89	127
Waste and refuse	—	964,674	380,851	780,141	637,702	103,483	100,637	2,842	2,381
Cassia lignea	—	5,291,943	4,788,980	3,862,348	3,077,109	2,625,071	—	65,811	—
Pepper	—	9,113,300	965,989	1,376,645	907,539	335,400	—	4,180	—
Erucate	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sugar, viz.—									
West India, of British possessions	cwt.	3,306,233	3,621,434	448,592	374,977	—	—	—	—
East India, of British possessions	—	286,979	428,854	—	—	—	—	—	—
East India, of foreign possessions	—	77,627	199,637	—	—	3,954,810	3,909,685	4,760,665	4,456,922
Mauritius	—	637,961	604,671	—	—	—	—	—	—
Foreign	—	296,073	281,788	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tallow	—	1,314,649	1,122,449	69,375	12,513	1,289,514	1,160,167	203,977	183,669
Tea	—	36,973,331	40,415,714	4,716,248	2,577,977	30,625,206	32,231,593	3,223,240	3,262,035
Timber, viz.—									
Battens and battens ends	gd. bhds.	15,963	18,020	128	85	14,451	17,840	133,206	161,112
Deals and deal ends	—	72,952	72,797	948	1,206	66,651	70,778	580,570	622,261
Masts, 8 and under 8 ins. in diameter	No.	8,474	11,240	199	300	9,763	10,999	2,885	3,331
Masts, 9 and under 12 ins. in diameter	—	8,629	3,943	160	191	3,444	8,690	2,313	2,636
Masts, 13 inches and upwards	—	4,373	4,339	19	75	4,077	4,393	4,571	6,491
Oak planks	—	1,968	3,990	6	545	1,199	3,949	9,813	15,252
Staves	gd. bhds.	55,741	75,131	1,836	1,878	84,434	75,461	61,863	68,738
Fir, 8 ins. square and upwards	loads	679,980	647,081	846	645	631,099	633,899	464,416	672,595
Oak	—	31,626	34,680	—	—	30,060	36,155	41,425	46,766
Unenumerated	—	45,454	43,415	80	45	45,026	45,223	12,073	10,979
Wanseeet logs	—	5,883	5,377	3	—	4,020	4,519	10,834	12,053
Tin	cwt.	29,102	30,722	89,216	29,034	2	73	6	61
Tobacco, viz.—									
Manufactured or cleared	lbs.	37,144,107	30,182,024	17,241,587	11,640,495	22,321,469	23,149,736	3,417,663	3,561,819
Manufactured or cleared	—	362,186	1,445,084	303,969	652,990	144,395	188,718	—	—
Snuff	—	4,128	567	3,472	791	351	294	—	—
Wine, viz.—									
Cape	galls.	619,105	849,372	6,766	9,719	609,727	539,529	69,534	74,077
French	—	724,140	544,179	106,953	131,625	434,594	417,291	120,296	127,243
Portugal	—	2,608,361	1,183,725	199,519	245,166	2,560,252	3,900,457	1,197,243	1,197,243
Madeira	—	399,400	284,920	144,107	136,113	111,876	110,294	30,812	30,812
Spanish	—	3,903,760	3,375,647	499,545	683,948	3,976,353	4,197,957	60,214	60,214
Other sorts, including wine suited in bond	—	904,850	897,691	361,122	406,969	602,319	626,173	—	144,645
All sorts	—	6,038,480	6,518,434	1,384,793	1,668,427	6,361,681	6,590,27	1,697,097	1,846,077

III. Account of the Value of the various Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Ports, according to the real or declared Value thereof, in the Years 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Articles.	1836.			1837.			1838.		
	L.			L.			L.		
Alum	—	—	2,506	—	—	2,761	—	—	5,753
Apparel, slops, and negro clothing	—	—	604,963	—	—	631,301	—	—	584,934
Arms and ammuniton	—	—	411,068	—	—	299,142	—	—	333,087
Bacon and hams	—	—	42,318	—	—	35,840	—	—	44,226
Beef and pork, salted	—	—	126,098	—	—	118,117	—	—	118,488
Beer and ale	—	—	254,250	—	—	258,283	—	—	311,792
Books, printed	—	—	115,034	—	—	147,430	—	—	143,195
Brass and copper manufactures	—	—	1,073,002	—	—	1,168,093	—	—	1,321,079
Bread and biscuits	—	—	8,184	—	—	9,091	—	—	8,949
Butter and cheese	—	—	905,836	—	—	173,075	—	—	230,874
Cabinet and upholstry wares	—	—	75,511	—	—	67,337	—	—	77,201
Coals and culm	—	—	229,799	—	—	428,690	—	—	483,630
Cordage	—	—	84,473	—	—	73,291	—	—	92,969
Corn, grain, meal, and flour	—	—	81,237	—	—	84,311	—	—	115,619
Cotton manufactures	—	—	1,062,286	—	—	1,032,146	—	—	1,670,139
— yara	—	—	619,289	—	—	635,832	—	—	7,131,848
Cottons and cotes	—	—	4,073	—	—	5,107	—	—	4,914
Extensware of all sorts	—	—	837,493	—	—	663,093	—	—	651,095
Fish of all sorts	—	—	184,433	—	—	185,120	—	—	208,601
Olive of all sorts	—	—	551,599	—	—	478,595	—	—	375,859
Ironmongery and millinery	—	—	691,790	—	—	414,837	—	—	614,033
Hardwares and cutlery	—	—	3,270,630	—	—	1,490,404	—	—	1,497,535
Hats, beaver and felt	—	—	147,807	—	—	104,400	—	—	91,218
— of all other sorts	—	—	41,768	—	—	46,290	—	—	61,854
Hops	—	—	11,788	—	—	10,547	—	—	17,397
Horses	—	—	95,302	—	—	79,212	—	—	63,288
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	—	—	2,940,877	—	—	2,003,708	—	—	2,539,693
Lead	—	—	66,695	—	—	14,788	—	—	52,433
Lard and lard	—	—	221,831	—	—	155,210	—	—	184,108
Leather, wrought and unwrought	—	—	816,262	—	—	250,306	—	—	367,103
— military and harness	—	—	80,888	—	—	87,037	—	—	90,941

of Manufacture of the arranged in the Order of Amount of the Exports for each, supposing the

Average annual Amount of Exports, 1835-36.	Average annual Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be £1,000.
L.	L.
308,018	6-623,657
251,165	5-496,171
306,477	4-470,795
164,632	3-902,584
184,004	3-848,552
152,728	3-348,038
115,119	2-475,319
85,166	3-162,490
80,813	1-867,234
84,621	1-856,113
70,945	1-552,469
66,691	1-151,709
40,461	4-938,800
37,016	4-610,010
36,811	7-565,829
33,928	7-473,383
32,275	6-115,509
31,253	4-655,073
5,344	1-182,608
3,535	2-084,108
3,320	3-171,884
1,814	3-039,665
1,762	4-088,567
782	4-017,200
635	4-043,468
179	4-038,377
33	3-000,221
45,898,162	1-000,000,000

of Merchandise imported, with Nett Produce of

Nett Revenue.	Nett Revenue.	
	1837.	1838.
L.	L.	L.
182,380	199	233
601,757	13,922	15,355
421,548	—	—
468,639	696,645	685,932
263,643	—	—
6,191	—	—
765,673	—	—
67,622	24,184	23,119

Table III.—continued.

Articles.	1886.	1887.	1888.
	£	£	£
Linens manufactures	8,219,053	8,109,897	8,785,298
Yarns	915,608	417,736	867,891
Machinery and mill work	500,868	493,298	627,149
Mathematical and optical instruments	25,030	37,259	84,474
Musical	5,208	5,104	6,131
Musical instruments	78,130	71,818	65,998
III, train, of Greenland fishery	5,836	5,700	10,463
Painters' colours	210,811	151,307	177,979
Plates, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	288,989	227,708	240,283
Photoses	4,815	7,030	19,370
Salt	171,463	190,444	241,111
Saltpetre, British refined	14,411	12,550	25,079
Seeds of all sorts	8,520	7,498	10,331
Silk manufactures	918,777	808,653	777,273
Soap and candles	378,222	350,835	304,218
Spirits	34,297	10,496	17,385
Stationery of all sorts	297,216	197,499	218,178
Sugar, refined	963,267	453,994	553,222
Tin, unwrought	81,247	78,167	101,300
and pewter ware, and tin plates	287,528	271,518	454,700
Tobacco, manufactured, and snuff	15,654	13,124	12,448
Tongues	8,598	5,744	5,450
Umbrellas and parasols	62,236	39,464	57,102
Whalebone	10,520	6,347	6,201
Wool, shaggy	263,248	185,350	281,356
Wool of other sorts	89,287	10,078	92,300
Woolen and worsted yarn	358,890	337,140	364,535
Woolen manufactures	7,686,117	4,864,597	5,798,417
All other articles	1,288,928	1,117,298	1,326,548
Total real or declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported from Great Britain to foreign parts	62,840,530	41,706,205	49,640,896
<i>Ireland.</i> Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported from Ireland to foreign parts	858,141	308,040	420,074
<i>United Kingdom.</i> Total	59,298,979	42,000,245	50,060,970

IV. Account of the Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom, specifying the various Countries to which the same were exported, and the Values sent to each, in 1838.

Countries.	1836.	Countries.	1838.	Countries.	1838.
Russia	1,893,243	Syria and Palestine	188,440	New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,096
Sweden	102,647	Egypt (Ports on the Mediterranean)	242,505	British North American Colonies	1,507,457
Norway	77,486	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	74,013	West Indies	3,268,441
Denmark	181,404	Western Coast of Africa	413,334	Hayti	250,198
Prussia	165,323	Cape of Good Hope	628,323	Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	1,025,392
Germany	4,398,900	African Ports on the Red Sea	198	United States of America	7,885,760
Holland	3,548,429	Ascension Island	1,292	Mexico	738,778
Belgium	1,089,010	Cape Verd Islands	13,980	Columbia	174,318
France	2,314,144	St. Helena	167	Brazil	2,806,604
Portugal Proper	1,165,386	Mauritius	467,242	States of the Rio de la Plata	680,843
— Azores	36,595	Arabia	1,336,068	Chili	412,617
— Madeira	34,477	East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	3,978,196	Peru	412,195
Spain and the Balearic Islands	243,838	China	1,904,366	Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	548,634
— Canaries	47,893	Sumatra and Java	506,262	Total	50,680,970
Oibraltar	894,898	Philippine Islands	31,780		
Ialy and the Italian Islands	3,076,281	New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	1,336,068		
Malta	926,040				
Ionian Islands	96,190				
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	1,767,110				
Morea and Greek Islands	20,887				

Remarks on the above Tables.—Foreign Competition.—The falling off in the exports in 1837, (see p. 36.) was almost entirely owing to the decline in the exports to the United States, which fell off from 12,425,605*l.* in 1836, to 4,695,225*l.* in 1837. But this extraordinary decline was wholly owing to accidental causes, or to the pecuniary difficulties in which the mercantile class in the United States were involved in the latter part of 1836 and 1837, through the previous abuse of credit, and the revulsion occasioned by the universal stoppage of the banks. It was clear, that how severe soever in the meantime, any check to commerce originating in such circumstances would be of a temporary description; and, in point of fact, its influence soon ceased to have any very perceptible operation, and our exports to the United States were, in 1838, almost as large as ever.

But this is not all. Since the foregoing tables were published, an account has been printed exhibiting the declared value of the principal articles of native produce and manufacture exported from the United Kingdom in 1839. We subjoin this account, and it is seen from it, that the increase in the value of the exports of the 19 articles which it embraces in 1839 over the value of the same articles exported in 1838, amounts to nearly 2,000,000*l.* (See p. 797.)

It is obvious, therefore, that the statements that have recently been put forth with so much misplaced confidence, as to the injurious influence of foreign competition on our trade, and the consequent decline of our exports, are not mere exaggerations, but are wholly without any real foundation. The competition of Saxony, Rhenish Prussia, and Belgium, is represented as the most formidable; and if we might credit the statements put forth at public

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

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Account of the declared Value of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufacture exported in the Year ending the 31st of January, 1839 and 1810.

Articles.	1838.	1839.
Coal and culm	446,950	545,156
Cotton manufactures	16,715,537	17,694,318
yarn	7,481,989	6,917,826
Earthenware	16,124	768,476
Glass	377,263	371,370
Hardware and cutlery	1,199,327	1,810,000
Linon manufactures	6,730,272	5,422,488
yarn	826,183	914,877
Metals, viz.—Iron and steel	6,336,692	6,702,738
Copper and brass	1,621,792	1,283,977
Lead	154,126	120,640
Tin, in bars, &c.	101,846	112,680
Tin plates	436,977	346,412
Salt	323,456	219,068
Silk manufactures	777,260	665,768
Sugar, refined	653,247	813,739
Wool, sheep's or lamb's	434,706	361,679
Woolen yarn	394,585	401,188
Woolen manufactures	6,788,008	6,273,900
Total of the foregoing articles	43,344,631	45,281,251

meetings, and circulated by the press, as to the wonderful progress of manufactures in these countries, and the destructive influence of the Prussian League on our trade, it might be supposed that our exports to Germany had been reduced to little or nothing. But, how stands the fact? The declared value of our exports to Prussia, Germany, Holland, and Belgium, since 1830, has been—

	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Prussia	£ 177,921	£ 192,816	£ 218,456	£ 144,179	£ 136,423	£ 183,273	£ 190,722	£ 151,536	£ 15,201
Germany	1,463,933	3,844,952	6,069,997	4,355,548	4,547,166	4,612,968	4,463,749	4,486,316	4,988,007
Holland	2,924,453	8,062,636	2,730,398	3,181,493	3,470,267	3,819,402	3,516,822	3,040,028	3,589,489
Belgium				886,462	750,519	815,467	839,376	801,917	1,068,110
Totals	5,918,304	11,118,911	7,589,049	7,903,915	8,253,128	7,973,349	8,744,498	9,781,562	

It appears, therefore, that so far from there having been any falling off in our trade with Germany, and the countries through which Germany is supplied with manufactured goods, our exports to them have decidedly increased, and are greater at this moment than they were before the League was organised, or those improvements of which we have heard so much, had made any progress. It is not competition of the foreigner but of the home manufacturers against each other, that reduces prices and profits, and gives rise to perpetually recurring complaints of the decay of trade. Provided tranquillity be maintained at home, and Britain continue to be exempted from that political agitation that is the bane of industry and the curse of every country in which it prevails, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition. Our natural and acquired advantages for the prosecution of manufactures and trade, are vastly superior to those of every other country; and though foreigners do excel us in a few departments, and may come to excel us in others, so that the character and channels of our trade may, in consequence, be partially changed, there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for supposing that its amount will be at all affected. On the contrary, it is all but certain that it will continue to augment with the augmenting wealth and population of the innumerable nations with which we have commercial relations.

But it has been said, that though the declared value of our exports in 1839 be considerably greater than in 1838, the quantities of raw cotton, foreign wool, &c. entered for home consumption in 1839 were decidedly less than in 1838; and that, consequently, the extension of the export trade has been owing to the decline of the home demand for manufactures, originating in the depressed state of the manufacturing population. But we doubt whether there be much in this. The quantity of any article entered for home consumption is a totally different thing from the quantity *actually consumed*; and it is this only that is of the least importance. Now it is plain, that to determine the quantity consumed, we must not only know the quantities entered for consumption, but we must further know the stocks on hand at the beginning and end of the year; and before it can be truly affirmed that there has been any decline in the consumption of cotton goods, it would be necessary to know whether the stocks of such goods in the manufacturers' and dealers' hands had increased or diminished.

It appears from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 80. sess. 1840, that the cotton entered for consumption, in 1838, amounted to 460,756,013 lbs., whereas in 1839 it only amounted to 355,781,960 lbs., being a decline of about 105,000,000 lbs. But the actual consumption did not fall off in any thing like this proportion: on the contrary, it is stated in the most valuable document published on the state of the cotton trade—the annual circular of Messrs. Holt & Co. of Liverpool, for the 31st of December, 1839 (vol. i., p. 522.)—that the consumption of cotton in 1838 amounted to about 416,700,000 lbs., and in 1839 to about 381,700,000 lbs., being a decline of only 35,000,000 lbs., which was wholly owing to the increase in the price of raw cotton; and we have been assured by those well acquainted with

	1838.
97	£ 9,785,296
98	687,691
99	627,148
100	84,474
101	5,151
102	65,292
103	10,463
104	177,973
105	240,393
106	12,570
107	821,111
108	22,078
109	10,331
110	777,273
111	334,246
112	17,385
113	218,176
114	553,222
115	111,800
116	458,708
117	12,446
118	5,450
119	50,702
120	6,401
121	85,156
122	24,390
123	854,535
124	6,798,417
125	1,835,546

126 49,640,698

127 420,074

128 50,080,870

Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to the foreign countries, and the Value

Countries.	1838.
Zealand and South Sea	£ 1,095
North American Colonies	1,892,457
West Indies	3,395,411
and other Foreign West Indies	1,085,292
States of America	7,881,750
Spain	438,776
Portugal	174,318
France	9,088,004
of the Rio de la Plata	860,241
Sweden	413,917
Denmark	412,195
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	149,854
Total	50,609,970

falling off in the exports in 1839 to the United States, and to the other parts of the United States. But this extraordinary decline in our exports in the latter part of 1836 and 1837, is owing to the universal stoppage of our exports to the United States, and to the difficulties in the part of 1836 and 1837, by the universal stoppage of any check to commerce; and, in point of fact, our exports to the United States, in 1838, amounted to nearly

an account has been given of the five produce and manufactures in this account, and it is stated in the 19 articles which it contains, that in 1838, amounts to nearly

put forth with so much attention on our trade, and that we are wholly without any check to commerce, and Belgium, is represented as put forth at public

the facts, that this diminution of the consumption has been fully balanced by a proportionate diminution of the stocks of manufactured goods held by the manufacturers and dealers; so that it would appear that the supposed decrease of the home demand is about as visionary as the supposed disastrous influence of Prussian and Saxon competition. The decline in the entries of foreign sheep's wool in 1839, as compared with 1838, is too inconsiderable to deserve notice; but, such as it is, it is certainly to be accounted for in the same manner.

No doubt, however, there has been considerable mercantile and manufacturing distress during the last twelve months; but its extent has been ridiculously exaggerated, and it is besides clear that foreign competition had nothing to do with it. The distress that has existed is wholly, or almost wholly, ascribable to domestic causes—to the rise in the rate of interest, and the pressure on the money market, occasioned by the abuses that periodically and necessarily grow out of our vicious banking system, and to the indifferent harvests of 1838 and 1839. But the reader may be assured that there is nothing in the situation of the manufacture and commerce of the country that should excite any alarm.

Although, however, we attach no weight to the exaggerated and unfounded statements that have been so perseveringly circulated as to the decay of trade, we are not certainly of the number of those who think that no change should be made in the commercial policy of the country, or that it may not be very materially improved. Restrictive regulations and oppressive duties, though much diminished of late years, still continue to exert a very powerful and mischievous influence over many departments of industry; and are, in fact (supposing tranquillity to be preserved), the only thing from which it is at all reasonable to apprehend any serious injury. It is in all respects of the utmost importance that every practicable effort should be made for their modification and reduction. They not only diminish exportation, by diminishing importation, but inflict a grievous injury on the consumer, without producing any corresponding advantage to the revenue, to which, indeed, they are decidedly hostile. Perhaps, however, their worst effect consists in the handle and pretence which they afford for all sorts of misrepresentation and abuse. This has been strikingly evinced in the recent discussions as to the Corn Laws. All parties, manufacturers, and agriculturists, seem generally to entertain the most erroneous notions as to the influence of these statutes. The truth is, that, in ordinary years, it is now, thanks to the spread of agricultural improvement, all but imperceptible. During the six years ending with 1837, the average price of wheat in Great Britain was 50s. 2d. a quarter; and we are bold to say, that not a tittle of evidence has been, or can be produced, to show that this price would have been reduced 5s. a quarter had the ports been all the while open to unconditional importation from abroad. Hence, were our manufactures really declining, or in a perilous state, which happily they are not, it is idle to suppose that this decline or danger could be obviated by the repeal of the Corn Laws. The influence of the latter is now little felt, except in unfavourable years, when the home crops are deficient; but then it is extremely injurious. This arises not only from the restrictions which they lay on importation at the time, but also from the discouragement which they give to warehousing in ordinary years, and, consequently, forcing the required supply to be suddenly introduced, to the great derangement of the ordinary channels of trade and of the currency. Such a state of things should not be allowed to exist; and seeing that the agriculturists have really nothing to fear from the opening of the ports, sound policy would suggest that foreign corn should be admitted at all times for home consumption, under such a reasonable constant duty (5s. or 6s. on wheat, and other grain in proportion) as may be required to countervail the burdens peculiarly affecting the land. The exclusion of foreign sugar, and the regulations as to the timber trade, are productive of nothing but mischief, and have not, in fact, a single redeeming quality about them: their effect is to add very materially to the price of a most important necessary of life, and of our houses, ships, and machinery, and to deprive the Treasury of at least 1,500,000*l.* a year of revenue. But were the corn laws and those relating to timber and sugar placed on a proper footing, and some of the more oppressive duties in our tariff, as those on brandy and hollands, adequately reduced, the foreign competition to which we might be exposed would be productive of nothing but advantage. Such competition is, in reality, the vivifying principle of industry, *curis acens mortalia corda*. It gives a new stimulus to the inventive powers, at the same time that it supplies new products and new modes of enjoyment to reward the labour of the industrious. It must ever be borne in mind, that the amount of the exports from a country always depends upon, and is, in fact, measured by, the amount of its imports; and while the magnitude of the latter continues to increase, and we freely open our ports to the products of all countries and climates, we may be sure that our exports will equally increase, and be found in every market.—S.

[LIGHT-HOUSE.—The following six new light-houses have been erected on the coast of France:—

1. *Island of St. Marcouf*, in latitude of 49 deg. 30 min. 55 sec., longitude 3 deg. 29 min. west of Paris; the light situated on the fort, about 55 feet above the level of the sea, and may be perceived, in fine weather, at the distance of three leagues.

2. *Port Navalo*, on the right side of the entrance of the Morbihan; the light situated on the point, about 70 feet above the sea, and is visible, in fine weather, at the distance of 3 leagues.

3. *Caps Ferrat*, about one mile north of the entrance of the Basin of Arcachon, in latitude 44 deg. 38 min. 43 sec., longitude 3 deg. 35 min. 15 sec., west of Paris; the light situated about 200 feet above the level of the sea, and visible at the distance of 6 leagues.

The above are on the Atlantic coasts. The following are on the Mediterranean, near the mouths of the Rhone:

4. *La Camargue*.—In place of the small light-houses on the east bank of the entrance of the old Rhone, a new one, of the first order, with a fixed light, has been established on a tower, at the height of about 90 feet above the level of the sea, in latitude of 43 deg. 1 min. 30 sec., longitude 3 deg. 20 min. 30 sec. east from Paris; the light visible at the distance of 6 leagues.

5. *Port de Cassis*, in latitude of 43 deg. 12 min. 30 sec., longitude 3 deg. 11 min. 40 sec. east from Paris, on the left side of the entrance of the port, 90 feet above the level of the sea; visible at the distance of 3 leagues.

6. *Port de la Ciotat*.—Another light on a tower at the end of the new mole, on the right side of the entrance of the port, in latitude of 43 deg. 10 min. 35 sec., longitude 3 deg. 10 min. 28 sec. east of Paris, visible at the distance of 3 leagues. This second light will prevent all possibility of mistaking Ciotat, for Casals. *Am. Ed.*

[LIVERPOOL. The American editor originally intended to have given a separate article under this head, as well as under that of London; but, on further consideration, he has judged this to be unnecessary, on account of the very full description by the author of the commerce of these cities, in the article Docks, in the body of the work.—*Am. Ed.*]

[LONDON. (See LIVERPOOL in this supplement.)—*Am. Ed.*]

NAUPLIA. (See GREECE.)

NEWSPAPERS.

RETURN of the Number of Stamps issued to the different Newspapers in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, during each of the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1839. (Compiled from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 548, Sess. 1839.) N. B. The reduced rate of duty took effect on the 15th of September, 1836.

	1836.				Total.	1837.		Total.	1838.		Total.
	4d. Stamps.	2d. Stamps.	1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.		1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.		1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.	
England.											
London papers	13,267,862	85,125	8,224,339	43,040	21,790,266	29,464,920	204,730	29,699,650	28,510,281	171,086	28,681,367
Provincial papers	5,744,823	33,000	3,754,892	37,300	9,569,565	14,307,933	198,530	15,026,370	16,989,433	328,244	18,247,674
Scotland.	Newspapers.		Supplements.								
Scotch papers	2,941,983		2,100		2,943,983	3,893,710	79,400	3,973,110	4,116,942	111,284	4,238,370
Ireland.	Newspapers.		1-2d. Supplements.								
Dublin papers	1,497,323	745,625	5,800		2,242,748	2,990,469	53,025	3,043,513	3,927,455	62,618	3,992,071
Irish country papers	1,308,707	896,960	2,000		2,044,667	2,223,333	23,360	2,246,693	2,206,136	12,781	2,308,927
Total stamps					38,517,329			53,972,359			54,455,411

RETURN of the Amount of Advertisement Duty paid by the Different Newspapers in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, during each of the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1839 (Compiled as above.)

	1836.			1837.			1838.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
London papers	40,640	3	0	38,025	9	8	44,448	17	0
English provincial papers	44,441	8	8	48,879	10	7	50,525	5	5
Scotch papers	10,968	13	6	11,887	2	8	13,076	7	6
Dublin papers	4,409	14	0	4,500	8	0	4,508	17	0
Irish country papers	4,063	4	0	4,056	5	3	4,136	6	0
	101,243	1	2	108,148	11	3	116,721	12	11

It is seen from the first of the above returns, that the principal increase has been in the circulation of English provincial papers, which has risen from 9,559,585 in 1836, to 16,247,676 in 1838, being a rise of about 70 per cent. In Ireland, the stamp duty, previously to the reduction, was lower than in Britain, and the measure has consequently had comparatively little influence in that part of the empire.—S.

OPIUM. The opium trade, as the readers of the Dictionary are aware, has been, for a lengthened period, prohibited by the Chinese government, and has, in consequence, been conducted as a sort of smuggling speculation. There would seem, however, to be good grounds for thinking that the prohibition of the importation of opium was all along intended to be more apparent than real. At all events, it is certain that the trade has grown gradually up, from a small beginning, to be one of great extent and value; and it is contradictory and absurd to suppose that this should have been the case, had it encountered any considerable opposition from the Chinese authorities. But the truth is, that these functionaries, instead of opposing the trade, or even merely conniving at it, were parties to its being openly carried on; and received certain regulated and large fees on all the opium that was imported. It has even been alleged that a part of these fees had found its way into the imperial treasury at Peking, though that is more doubtful. The appetite for the drug increased with the increasing means of gratifying it; and there appeared to be no assignable limits to the quantity that might be disposed of in the empire.

The rapid extension of the trade seems at length to have awakened the attention of the court of Peking to the subject. We doubt, however, notwithstanding what has been alleged to the contrary, whether a sense of the injurious consequences of the use of the drug had much to do in the matter. This, indeed, is a part of the subject as to which there exists a great deal of misapprehension; and we are well assured, that, provided it be not carried to excess, the use of opium is not more injurious than that of wine, brandy, or other stimulants. In truth and reality, the alarm of the Chinese government was not about the health or morals of its subjects, but about their bullion! They are still haunted by the same visionary fears of being drained of a due supply of gold and silver, that formerly haunted the people of this country. The imports of opium having increased so rapidly as to be no longer balanced by the exports of tea and silk, *sycee* silver began also to be exported! The court of Peking could have tolerated what are called the demoralising effects of opium with stoical indifference, but the exportation of silver was not a thing to be endured.—It is, however, only fair to state, that the Chinese statesmen are not all of the Bexley school; and that some of them appear to have taken an enlightened view of the question, and to have emancipated themselves from the prejudices that still influence a majority of their colleagues. The statesmen in question contended, that the taste for the drug was far too deeply seated and too widely diffused to admit of its effectual prohibition; and they, therefore, proposed that its importation should be legalised, subjecting it, at the same time, to a heavy duty. There cannot be a doubt that this was the proper mode of dealing with the subject. In the end, however, the government of Peking, influenced by unfounded theories, as to the mischievous effect of the export of the precious metals, came to a different conclusion, and resolved to put a stop to the traffic.

No sooner had this resolution been adopted, than a most extraordinary change appears to have taken place in the conduct of the Chinese authorities; and their usual caution seems to have wholly deserted them. They now became as precipitate and violent as they had previously been slow and circumspect; and resolved at all hazards to attempt forcibly to put down the trade. To accomplish this, all foreigners were, in March, 1839, prohibited from leaving Canton; and compulsory measures were at the same time resorted to for compelling them to deliver up the opium in their possession.

How the affair might have ended, had our countrymen at Canton been left to the exercise of their own judgment in this crisis, it is impossible to say; but we have been assured by those on whose statements we are disposed to rely, that they would most probably have succeeded in getting out of it with comparatively little loss. Instead, however, of acting for themselves, they had to act in obedience to the orders of Mr. Elliot, chief superintendent of the British trade in Canton; and he, while under constraint, occasioned by confinement to the factory, and without supplies of food, which was withheld by the Chinese, commanded all the opium belonging to British subjects to be given up to him for delivery to the Chinese authorities; declaring, at the same time, that "failing the surrender of the said opium," the British government should be free "of all measure of responsibility or liability in respect of British-owned opium."

We do not presume to offer any opinion as to the necessity or policy of this proceeding on the part of the superintendent; but, in consequence thereof, and of the unjustifiable proceedings of the Chinese, above 20,000 chests of opium, worth upwards of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, were delivered up to Mr. Elliot by British subjects, and by him to the Chinese authorities; and the latter, not satisfied with the possession of the opium, which it was their duty to have placed in a state of security till the matters with respect to it should be arranged, immediately proceeded to destroy it! Having succeeded thus far, the Chinese next insisted that the foreign merchants should subscribe a bond, pledging themselves not to import opium into any part of China; or that, if they did, they were to be justly liable to the penalty of *death*. But this condition being refused, and no arrangement having been come to, Mr. Elliot suspended the trade on the 22d of May; and a collision has since taken place between a British sloop of war and some Chinese junks, when several of the latter were sunk.

Sundry grave questions will, no doubt, arise out of these extraordinary proceedings. That the Chinese have the same right to exclude opium from their empire, that we have to prohibit the importation of beef, or ammunition, or to lay a duty on corn, does not admit of any question. But in endeavouring to suppress a trade that had been carried on under the sanction of the authorities at Canton, all of whom had largely participated in its profits, justice required that notice should have been given to the parties concerned of the intentions of government. It is necessary to bear in mind, that the Chinese were in the habit of frequently issuing proclamations against the importation of opium; but as no attempt was ever made to give the slightest effect to these proclamations, the parties engaged in the trade were naturally led to conclude that such would always be the case. Hence the necessity for a distinct intimation being made, that the laws against the importation of opium were, in future, to be *bonâ fide* and truly carried into effect, and for fixing some period after which all parties found engaged in the trade would be subject to certain penalties. No valid objection could have been made to such a course of proceeding. The Chinese are clearly entitled to prohibit th

importation of opium; but neither the Chinese nor any other nation are entitled, after having, by a long connivance at and participation in the trade, induced foreigners to import a large amount of valuable property into their territories, to pounce upon and seize such property on pretence of its being contraband! The Chinese are a remarkably clever people; and it is impossible that they should not see that, in this instance, their government has been guilty of the grossest injustice; and that it has rendered itself liable for the full value of the property it has so unwarrantably seized and destroyed.

Suppose the British parliament had, in 1796, passed an act prohibiting the importation of tea; and suppose farther, that the collector of customs and other authorities in Liverpool had paid no attention whatever to this act, but that, from 1796 down to the present day, they had openly countenanced the trade, that it had rapidly increased; and that every year hundreds of Chinese ships laden with tea had arrived in the Mersey, safely unloaded their cargoes, and sailed either with silver or other British produce on board: what, under these circumstances, would the Chinese have said, had the British government suddenly turned round and declared, "You are engaged in an illegal trade;" and without farther intimation have proceeded to seize and destroy all the tea belonging to them in England? Would not the Chinese, the Russians, French, and, in short, the whole world, have declared such an act to be flagrantly unjust? And would not every honest man in England have said that the Chinese had been swindled; and that the government of China did not deserve to be treated with ordinary respect, if it did not endeavour to procure redress for its subjects.

Now, this is precisely the case of England against the Chinese. The morality or immorality of the opium trade is wholly beside the question. Though opium were ten times more injurious than has ever been represented, that would not alter the fact that the trade in it had been openly countenanced by the Chinese authorities for a period of more than forty years; and such being the case, foreigners were certainly entitled to infer that that countenance would not suddenly be withdrawn; and that, at all events, their property would be respected. This, in fact, is not a question about which there is any real room for doubt or difference of opinion. The conduct of the Chinese has been most unwarrantable; and the government of this country has not only a well-founded claim for redress, but is called upon to enforce it by a just regard for the national honour and the interests of the British subjects, whose rights have been so outrageously violated at Canton.

It is laid down by all writers on public law, that it depends wholly on the will of a nation to carry on commerce with another, or not to carry it on, and to regulate the manner in which it shall be carried on. (*Vattel*, book i. § 8.) But we incline to think that this rule must be interpreted as applying only to such commercial states as recognise the general principles of public or international law. If a state possessed of a rich and extensive territory, and abounding with products suited for the use and accommodation of the people of other countries, insulates itself by its institutions, and adopts a system of policy that is plainly inconsistent with the interests of every other nation, it appears to us that such nation may be justly compelled to adopt a course of policy more consistent with the general well-being of mankind. No doubt, the right of interference, in cases of this sort, is one that should be exercised with extreme caution, and requires strong grounds for its vindication. But that this right does exist, seems sufficiently clear. We admit that a slight degree of inconvenience, experienced from one nation refusing to enter into commercial transactions with another, or from its insisting that these transactions should be carried on in a troublesome and vexatious manner, would not warrant any interference with its internal affairs; but this, like all other questions of the same kind, is one of degree. Should the inconvenience resulting from such anti-social vexatious conduct become very oppressive on others, the parties so oppressed would have as good a right to interfere to enforce a change of conduct, as if the state that has adopted this anti-social offensive policy had openly attacked their territory or their citizens. A state has a perfect right to enact such rules and regulations for its internal government and the conduct of its trade as it pleases, provided they do not exercise any very injurious influence over others. But should such be the case—should the domestic or commercial policy of any particular state involve principles or regulations that trench on the rights or seriously injure the interests of other parties, none can doubt that these others have a right to complain; and, if the injury be of a grave character, and redress be not obtained on complaint being made,—no reasonable doubt can be entertained that the aggrieved party is justified in resorting to force.

These principles appear to us to apply with peculiar force in the case of China. Tea, a peculiar product of that country, has now become a necessary of life in England; and no one can doubt that a most serious injury would be inflicted on the people of Britain, were any considerable impediment thrown in the way of its importation; and as the arbitrary policy of the Chinese government, which is not influenced by the maxims, and is regardless of the forms, that prevail among civilised states, has already interrupted this trade, and constantly exposes it to great dangers, it certainly appears that this is a case for forcible intervention—*dignus vindicæ nodus*,—and that we are entitled to demand that the trade should

be placed on a solid footing, that the import and export duties should be rendered intelligible and moderate, and that an end should be put to the extortion and interference of the Chinese authorities.—S.

PAPER. The following is to be read as a conclusion of the article *Paper* in this edition of the Dictionary.

This measure has, also, in part obviated the injustice done to authors and publishers, by compelling them to pay a duty on the paper used in printing books previously to their publication; and, consequently, before it can be known whether the books will sell. When they do not sell, the tax has obviously to be paid out of the capital of the authors or publishers, and the loss arising from an unsuccessful publishing speculation is increased by its amount. (See vol. i., p. 200.) It is true that every duty on paper, how limited soever operates in this way, and is, therefore, objectionable on principle; but the hardship inflicted on an unsuccessful author by the existing paper duty being only half its former amount, is no longer of any very material importance.

As respects revenue, too, the measure promises to be most successful. In 1835, the net produce of the duties on paper, in the United Kingdom, amounted to 715,743*l.*, of which the duty on stained paper produced 60,141*l.* The latter duty, as already seen, was totally repealed in 1836, and deducting it, the duty on printing and writing papers, paste-board, &c., in 1835, amounted to 655,602*l.* Now, the rates on the latter descriptions having been reduced a half, it follows, that had the consumption continued stationary, the duty would now have amounted to 327,801*l.*; whereas, it amounted, in 1838, to 539,789*l.*, being an increase of 65 per cent., and we understand that the increase last year was still greater. The fair presumption, therefore, is that in a year or two, the consumption of taxed paper will be doubled, and that the revenue will have lost nothing by the reduction. This, in fact, is almost always the case. An oppressive tax on an article in general demand is never effectually reduced, without the revenue being in a very short time benefited by the measure. It may be truly said of taxation,—

—ab ipso
Duct opes animunque ferro.

The only thing to be regretted, is that the pruning knife is seldom vigorously and skilfully applied.—S.

STOCKS.

[We give the following Tables, exhibiting the fluctuations in stocks in two of the principal markets of the United States during the year 1840.—

The following prices of some of the principal stocks sold in the New York market at or near the close of each month in the year 1840 :

Stocks.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
United States Bank	76½	73	72	74	70½	73½	62½	65	63	66½	63½	64½
Bank of New York	113	85	117	117	117	125	125	125	123	120	123	123
Manhattan Bank	113	85	88	88	82	88	91	91	92	95½	90	96
Mechanics' Bank	110½	110	109	109	110½	110	110	100	112	114	115	115
Mechanics' Bank	94	98	97½	100	100½	102	99½	100½	101	100½	101½	103
Union Bank	109	110	109	107	108	110	111½	111	113	110	110	110
Bank of America	118	118	116	114½	114	111½	114	114	116½	115	116	116½
Phoenix Bank	79½	75	78½	79	79	81½	81½	84	80	85½	84	80
Dry Dock Bank	60	50	44	53½	47½	46½	40	44½	60	75	62	62
Delaware and Hudson Canal	69½	73½	67½	73	73	78½	75½	76	77½	79	88	83½
Lafayette Bank	66	68	68	73	73	78	78	78	80	80	89	90
Mechanics' Banking Assn.	64	69½	69	69	68½	76	76	73½	76	79½	80½	83½
American Exchange Bank	41½	53½	50	58	53	60	60½	62	65	67½	64½	63
Bank of Commerce, scrip	95½	95½	97½	97½	95	99½	98½	98	98½	99½	99½	99½
North American Trust Co.	41½	48½	43½	43½	34	32	26½	26½	26	32½	28½	28½
Mohawk Railroad	62½	64½	65	69	67½	74	70	71½	68½	69½	70	69
Paterson Railroad	43	40½	41	42	40	41	38	39	39	45	50½	52
Boston & Providence Railroad	101	102½	96	94	94	98	92	93½	95	94	93½	93
New Jersey Railroad	76½	81½	77½	82	80½	81	74½	74	76	78	76	76
Stonington Railroad	15½	16½	12½	18½	15½	18	17½	24	29	54	28½	28½
Harlem Railroad	44½	46	45½	45	40½	41½	36½	39	37	40½	39½	38
Utica Railroad	115	118½	122	121½	130	130	122½	125	120½	129	129	131½
Long Island Railroad	50½	50½	50½	54	50½	49½	45½	50	49½	56½	55½	55½
Syracuse Railroad	107½	107½	109½	114	119	121	120	119½	116	117	120	121
Farmers' Trust Company	77½	83	83½	82½	78½	82	73	76	75½	84	84½	84½
Canton Company	27½	28	23	27	24½	24½	21½	22	24	28½	24½	23½

* Offered.

‡ Asked.

STOCKS.

803

The Prices of some of the principal Stocks sold in the Philadelphia Market at or near the close of each Month in the Year 1840.

Stocks.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan. 1841.	Diff. Jan. 1840 & 1841.
United States Bank	80½	78	78½	78½	76	74½	69	69	66	67½	67	64½	60	30½
Mechanics Bank	33	33½	33	36½	35½	36½	36	36½	36½	36½	35½	35½	34	1 adv.
Girard Bank	33½	33½	36½	40	39½	40½	36	39½	39½	40	39	36½	34	1
Farmers and Mech. Bank	54½	53½	53	56½	53	54	54½	54½	56½	56½	55½	52½	52	2½
Penn Township Bank	52	51	51½	55	53	51½	51½	51½	51	53	52½	52½	52½	1
Pennsylvania Bank	402½	400½	400½	411	410	410½	408	405	400	416	415	412	395	7½
Merchants and Mechanics' Bank of Pittsburg	51	48	49½	49	41	45	-	-	47	47½	-	47½	47	4
Exchange Bank	37	-	-	35	-	-	-	-	42	48	-	44	43	6
Commercial, Cincinnati	85	80	80½	85	86	86½	88	89½	93	92	91½	-	88½	9½
Northern, Kentucky	82½	83½	82	83	90	89	87½	93	87	90	92½	91	85	9½
Union, Tennessee	67½	65	61½	66	68	67½	64	66½	67½	69½	70	70	65½	9
Vicksburg R. R. Co., Miss.	15	15½	15½	17½	15	19½	10½	9½	7½	15½	13	10	9½	5½
New Orleans Gas	13	10	10	10½	11	9½	11	10½	10½	13	13	-	9½	3½
N. Am. Ins. Co. Philada.	9	7	9½	9½	9½	9	0	0	0	10½	0	10½	10	1
Girard Life and Trust	22½	21	22½	23	24½	24½	24½	23½	24½	24½	25	25	24½	½
Schuylkill Navigation Co.	93	81½	80½	78½	83½	87	77½	75	78	77	70½	78	63	30
Lehigh Coal and Nav. Co.	54	53	52½	47	45	45½	36	44	44	40	40	39½	24½	29½
Delaware & Hudson Canal	73	75	71½	73	70	75	-	78	78	-	87	-	95	23
Morris Canal	13	18	13	10	15	10	10	9	9	9	8½	-	-	-
Camden and Amboy R. R.	110	107	103	110	118½	116½	108	107	108	113	110	104½	90½	13½
Philada. and Trenton do.	95½	99	100½	105	110	-	-	102½	103	103	100½	-	96	14
Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore	44	41½	42½	42½	46	46	43½	44	43½	44	45	48½	39½	4½
Stonington Rail Road	15	16½	16	15	15	19½	19½	21½	27½	53	34	-	30	15
Reading do.	32	33	35	32	32	30	36	37	35	37½	25	22	22	10
Harrisburg and Lancaster	30½	30	26	27	23	24	26	27½	25	32½	30	25	23	7½
Exchange on New York	100½	106½	105½	105½	105½	104½	103½	104½	103½	103	102½	100½	100½	6
Penn'a. State 5 per cent.	95	93½	90	91	91	97½	95	97½	94	94	94½	93½	86	9
City 5 per cent.	100	100	101	105½	105½	103	-	-	-	101½	102	-	101	1

Am. Ed.]

ould be rendered intelligible interference of the Chinese

article Paper in this edition

authors and publishers, by ke previously to their pube books will sell. When tital of the authors or pub- lication is increased by its paper, how limited soever ; but the hardship inflicted y half its former amount, is

ccessful. In 1835, the nett d to 715,743½, of which the s already seen, was totally riting papers, paste-board, er descriptions having been tionary, the duty would now 539,789½, being an increase was still greater. The fair ion of taxed paper will be reduction. This, in fact, 'neral demand is never effe e benefited by the measure

dom vigorously and skilfully

a stocks in two of the princi-

ork market at or near the close

July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
22½	25	23	26½	25½	24½
25	125	123	130½	123	124
31	98½	92	95½	96	96
10	*100	112	114	115	115
92½	100½	101	100½	101½	103
11½	*111	113	110	110	110
4	114	118½	115	116	116½
91½	84	86	85½	84	82
10	44½	60	75	62	68
73½	78	77½	79	86	83½
8	78	80	90	89	*90
8	73½	76	79½	80½	83½
90½	92	95	97½	94½	93
92½	98	98½	99½	99½	98½
96½	26½	26	22½	21½	20½
70	71½	68½	69½	70	69
28	39	39	45	50½	52
72	63½	65	64	63½	63
44½	74	78	78	76	76
74	84	29	54	28½	28½
36½	39	37	40½	39½	39
23	125	126½	129	129	131½
18½	50	49½	56½	55½	55½
20	119½	116	117	120	124
73	76	76½	84	84½	85½
21½	92	24	28½	24½	23

Asked.

THE END.

1870

THE

REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS

OF THE

LAND OFFICE

FOR THE YEAR

1870

AND

THE

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

COMMISSIONERS

IN

RELATION

TO

THE

LANDS

OF THE

INDIAN

TRIBE

OF

THE

STATE

OF

NEW

YORK

FOR

THE

YEAR

1870

1870

THE
REVENUE BOOK:

CONTAINING

THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH

The Tariff of 1842,

Reduced to Ad Valorem Rates as far as practicable.

ALSO,

**THE SUB-TREASURY, WAREHOUSING, AND
CANADIAN TRANSIT BILLS, OF 1846,**

**AND THE ACT ALLOWING DRAWBACK ON GOODS EXPORTED TO
SANTA FE, AND OTHER PLACES, PASSED IN 1845.**

WITH THE

Treasury Circulars in Relation thereto.

LIKEWISE,

THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF,

**AS AMENDED BY THE PASSAGE OF THE NEW CORN LAWS AND SUGAR DUTIES, AT
THE LATE SESSION OF PARLIAMENT:**

TOGETHER WITH

A CONDENSED CAMBIST,

**OR TABLE OF ALL FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COINS REDUCED TO FEDERAL
CURRENCY**

COMPILED FROM THE MOST AUTHENTIC SOURCES,

BY A. JONES.

New York:

**PUBLISHED BY GEO. H. BELL, 158 NASSAU STREET,
BOOKSELLERS AND STATIONERS,
PRINTERS AND LAW BLANK PUBLISHERS,**

1853.

THE DISTRICT COURT OF THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF NEW YORK
IN SENATE CHAMBERS
AT NEW YORK
ON THE 15th DAY OF JANUARY 1910
IN SENATE CHAMBERS
AT NEW YORK
ON THE 15th DAY OF JANUARY 1910
IN SENATE CHAMBERS
AT NEW YORK
ON THE 15th DAY OF JANUARY 1910

Entered according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1910, by
GEORGE H. BELL,
In the Clerk's Office of the District Court for the Southern District of New York.

THE DISTRICT COURT OF THE SOUTHERN DISTRICT OF NEW YORK
IN SENATE CHAMBERS
AT NEW YORK
ON THE 15th DAY OF JANUARY 1910
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ON THE 15th DAY OF JANUARY 1910

THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH

The Tariff of 1842,

REDUCED TO AD VALOREM RATES, AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE.

Compiled from Official Copies supplied from Washington.

1840.	1842.	1846.	1842.
A			
Absynth pr ct 100	60 cts gal	Anvils..... pr ct 30	1842.
Accordions 20	30 pr ct	Any goods, wares or merchandise of	2½ cts lb
Acetous acid 20	20	the growth, produce, or manufac-	
Acetate of lead, or white lead..... 20	4 cts lb	ture of the United States, or of its	
— of potasse..... 20	30 pr ct	fisheries, upon which no drawback,	
Acetic acid..... 20	20	bounty, or allowances have been	free.
Acetate of quicksilver..... 20	20	paid..... free	
Acid boracic..... 20	5	Apothecaries' vials and bottles, 6 oz.	51.33
— benzoic..... 20	25	and under..... 30	
— citric, white or yellow..... 20	20	Apothecaries' vials and bottles ex-	
— muriatic..... 20	20	ceeding the capacity of six, and	
— nitric, or nitric..... 20	20	not exceeding the capacity of six-	
— oxalic..... 20	20	teen oz. each..... 30	\$1.75 gro
— pyroligneous..... 20	20	Apparatus, philosophical, imported	
— tartaric, in crystals..... 20	20	for any Society incorporated for	
— sulphuric, or of sulphur..... 10	30	philosophical or literary purposes,	
Acorns..... 20	1 ct lb	or for the encouragement of the	
Acids, all kinds of, used for chemical	20	fine arts, or for the use of any	
or medical uses, or in the fine arts,	20	seminary of learning within the	
not otherwise provided for..... 20	20	United States, according to the ma-	
Adhesive felt, for covering ships'	free.	terial of which it is composed.....	
bottoms..... free	20	Apparatus, philosophical, not special-	
Adhesive plaster, salve..... 30	20	ly imported according to the ma-	
Adiantum..... 20	20	terials of which they are composed.	
Adzes..... 30	7	Apparel, wearing, and other personal	
Agates, and bookbinders' do..... 10	30	baggage in nautical use..... free.	free.
Alabaster, in sheets or otherwise..... 30	20	Aprons silk..... 30	30 pr ct
Alabaster and spar ornaments..... 40	30	Aqua ammoniac, or hartshorn..... 30	20
Alba, onella..... 20	20	Aqua fortis..... 20	20
Alconorque bark..... 5	free.	— mellis, or honey water..... 30	free.
Ale in bottle or otherwise..... 30	20 cts gal	Arabic gum..... 10	free.
Alkanet root..... 20	20 pr ct	Arrack..... 100	60 cts gal
Alkermes..... 20	20	Armenian, bole, and stone..... 20	20 pr ct
Alkople, oil of..... 30	20	Archella, archil..... 20	5
Almonds..... 40	3 cts lb	Argent vivum, or qui silver..... 20	30
— oil of, sweet, and bitter..... 30	25 pr ct	Argentine, or German silver..... 20	free.
— paste..... 30	free.	Argol, crude tartar..... 5	30
Aloes..... 20	11.37	Arms, fire and side..... 30	20
Alum..... 20	20	Arrow root..... 20	20
Amber..... 20	25	Arsenic, all..... 15	20
— heads, and oil of..... 30	20	Articles embroidered with gold, sil-	
Ambergris..... 20	20	ver, or metal..... 20	20
Amethyst..... 10	7	Articles of the growth or manufac-	
Ammonia..... 10	20	ture of the United States, brought	
— salts of..... 20	20	back in the same condition as when	
Ammoniac, crude, refined, bole..... 20	15	exported..... free	free.
Ammunition, ball, shot, cannon		Articles, all, not free, and not sub-	
balls, chain shot, grape shot, lun-		ject to any other rate of duty..... 20	20
gre shot..... 30	1 ct lb	Articles worn by men, women, or chil-	
Anatomical preparations..... 30	free.	dren of whatever materials com-	
Anchors, and all parts thereof..... 30	2½ cts lb	posed, made up in whole or in part,	
Anchovies, (in oil) in bottles or kegs..... 10	30	by hand..... 30	40
Angelica root..... 20	30	Articles, all imported for the use	
Angora, goats' wool or hair..... 20	1 ct lb	of the United States, according to	
— gloves and mitts..... 30	20 pr ct	materials of which composed.....	free.
Animals imported for breed..... free.	free.	Asphalten..... 20	
Animal oil, not otherwise enumerated..... 20	20	Assefetida..... 20	free.
Animal carbon..... 20	20	Asses skin, and imitation of..... 30	25
Animatto..... 10	20	Abyssian carpets..... 30	25.70
Antimonial iron wire..... 30	11 cts lb	Augsburg..... 30	30
Anise seed..... 20	20 pr ct	Auripigmentum, or orpiment..... 10	30
Anise seed, oil of..... 30	20	Ava root..... 20	free.
Anthos, oil of..... 20	20	Awl hafts..... 30	30
Anthony, crude..... 20	free.	Awls..... 30	20
Antique oil..... 30	25	Axes..... 30	30
Antiquities..... free.	free.	Axletrees, iron..... 30	4 cts.
		Ay-stones..... 20	20 pr ct

Year 1846. by

District of New York.

	1846.	1842.	1846.	1842.
Bacon	20			
Baggage, personal, in actual use.....	free.			
Bagging, called cotton bagging.....	20			
Bags, bead-made in part by hand.....	30			
— grass.....	30			
— gunny.....	20			
— woolen.....	30			
— flax.....	20			
— hemp.....	20			
— carpet, woolen.....	30			
— worsted, silk, carpet, worsted.....	30			
— carpet, wool, or worsted and leather.....	30			
Balises.....	25			
Balls, billiard.....	30			
— cannon.....	30			
— musket.....	20			
— wash.....	30			
Balm of Gilead.....	30			
Balsam copaiva and Tolu.....	30			
Balsam, all kinds of cosmetic.....	30			
Bambos, unmanufactured.....	10	free.		
Bark of cork trees, unmanufactured.....	15	free.		
— Peravian.....	15	free.		
— all not specially mentioned.....	20			
Barrege, cotton.....	25			
— wool.....	30			
— worsted or silk and worsted.....	25			
Barley.....	20			
— pearl or hullless.....	30			
Barytes, sulphate of.....	20			
Bard iron, slit or rolled.....	30			
Bar iron.....	30			
Bar wood.....	5			
Barilla.....	10			
Baskets, wood, osier, palm leaf, straw, grass, or whalebone.....	20			
Best ropes.....	25			
Bottledores.....	30			
Bay water, or Bay rum.....	30			
Bayonets.....	30			
Bicellium.....	20			
Beads.....	30			
Beans.....	20			
Beaver, fur undressed on the skins.....	10			
Beam knives.....	30			
Beams, scales.....	30			
Bed feathers.....	25			
— ticking, linen, flax, and hemp.....	20			
— ticking, cotton.....	25			
Beer.....	20			
Beer in bottles or otherwise.....	30			
Bees' wax.....	30			
Bellows pipes.....	30			
Bell cranks, levers, and pulls.....	30			
Bellows.....	30			
Belts, sword leather.....	30			
Benzoin.....	30			
Benzoin acid, or flor benzoin.....	20			
Benzoin, (a Gum).....	30			
Bed spreads, or covers.....	25			
Bells, of bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured.....	5			
Bell metal, manufactured.....	30			
Bells, silver, and gold.....	30			
Bergamot, essence of.....	30			
Berries, used for dyeing, all exclusively, in a crude state.....	5			
Berries not otherwise provided for.....	20			
Blezour stones.....	20			
Bichromate of potash.....	20			
Bick Irons.....	30			
Binding, carpet.....	25			
Binding, cotton, worsted and quality.....	25			
— woolen.....	30			
— silk.....	25			
— leather.....	30			
— linen.....	20			
Bird's eye stuff, linen.....	20			
— worsted stuff.....	25			
Birch.....	20			
Bismuth.....	20			
— oxide of.....	20			
Bits, carpenters'.....	30			
Bitter apple.....	20			
Bitumen.....	20			
Black, Ivory.....	30			
— lamp.....	30			
— lead, pots.....	30			
— lead, powder.....	20			
Blacking.....	20			
Bladders.....	20			
Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges.....	30			
Black lead pencils.....	30			
Blankets, all.....	20			
Blankets of mohair or goats' hair.....	20			
Bleaching powders.....	10			
Blue, Prussian.....	20			
— vitriol.....	20			
Boards, planed and rough.....	20			
Bobinet lace.....	20			
Bobbin.....	25			
— wire, covered with cotton.....	30			
Boeking.....	25			
Bodkins.....	30			
Boiler plates.....	30			
Belogna sausages.....	30			
Bolting cloths.....	25			
Belts, iron, for fastenings.....	30			
— brass, for do.....	30			
— copper.....	20			
— composition.....	30			
Bolt rope, as cordage (tarred).....	25			
— rope, as cordage (untarred).....	30			
— iron, not manufactured in whole or in part by rolling.....	30			
— iron, when manufactured in whole or in part by rolling.....	30			
Bore ammoniac, or Armenian bole.....	20			
Bone, black.....	20			
Bonnets, Leghorn.....	30			
— chip, grass, fur, leather, straw, and muslin.....	30			
— silk or satin.....	30			
— wire, covered with silk.....	30			
— wire, covered with cotton.....	30			
Bouche leaves.....	20			
Bone alphabets, chessmen.....	30			
— whale, rosettes.....	30			
— tip and bones.....	5			
— whale, other manufactures of.....	20			
— whale, not of Am. fisheries.....	20			
— manufactures of.....	30			
Boots.....	25			
— lined, silk or satin for children.....	25			
— Boots, for women or men, silk.....	75			
Boots and booties, men's, of leather.....	30			
— women's, of leather.....	50			
— children's, of leather.....	15			
Book binders' agates ferrule.....	30			
Books, blank, when bound.....	20			
— blank, when unbound.....	20			
Books, periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in the U. S.....	20			
Books, printed magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for.....	10			
Books, Hebrew, or of which that language forms the text, when bound.....	10			
Books, do. do. unbound.....	10			
Books, do. all in foreign languages, except Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, bound or in boards.....	10			
Books, do. do. in sheets or pamphlets.....	10			
Books, editions of works in Hebrew, Greek, Latin, or English, which have been printed 40 years prior to date of importation.....	10			
Books, all reports of Legislative Committees, appointed under foreign governments.....	10			
Books, Polyglots, Lexicons, and Dictionaries.....	10			
Books of Engravings, bound or unbound.....	10			

1840.	1842.	1846.	1842.	
Carbines or carbines.....	30	30	Chains, coil, $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch and over in diameter, the links of the form peculiar to chain cables.....	30
Carbonate of magnesia.....	30	20	Chain breaching, iron curbs, gilt.....	30
— sal or brim of soda.....	20	20	Chains, hair.....	30
— of Ammonia.....	10	20	— iron, tinned, washed.....	30
Carboys, of the capacity of half a gal. 30	30	30	— plated, silver, steel.....	30
— above half, and not above 3	30	50	Chains, brass and copper.....	30
gallons.....	30	30	— iron, suitable for cables.....	30
Carboys, exceeding 3 gallons.....	30	30	— iron, not otherwise specified.....	30
Carbuncles.....	10	20	— gold or silver.....	30
Cardamom seed.....	20	20	— gold or silver, if jewelry.....	30
Card cases.....	30	20	— gilt, if jewelry.....	30
Cards, playing.....	30	25 ea pek	— gilt, plated, steel, tinned, wash-	30
— visiting and blank.....	30	12 pr pek	ed, dog, ox, trace.....	30
Wool and cotton.....	30	30 perct.	Chairs, sitting.....	30
Caroline.....	30	25 sq y'd	Chalk, red, French.....	30
Caroline plaids, cotton and wool.....	30	65	— red, pencils.....	30
Caroline plaids, stripes, cotton.....	25	65	— white.....	5
Carpeting, Aubusson.....	30	35	Chambray gauze, cotton, as cotton	25
Carpet binding.....	25	55	— if wool is a compo-	
Carpets and carpeting, Brussels.....	30	55	— nent part.....	30
— Ingrained.....	30	20	— of silk only.....	25
— treble Ingrained.....	30	65	Chamomile flowers.....	20
— Turkey.....	30	55	Chandeliers, brass.....	30
— Venetian.....	30	20	— glass, etc.....	40
— Wilton.....	30	65	Charbon, animal.....	30
Carpet cloth.....	30	35	Charts and books of.....	10
Carpet Saxony.....	30	40 per ct	Checks, cotton, (see cottons).....	25
Carpet bugs, woolen.....	30	30	— princess, wool.....	30
— if part leather.....	30	30	— princess, worsted.....	25
— worsted.....	30	30	— linen.....	25
Carriages, all kinds, and parts there-	30	30	Cheese.....	30
of.....	30	30	Chemical preparations, not other-	
Carriage springs.....	30	30	— wise specified.....	30
Carri, or caraway, oil of.....	30	30	Chemical salts, not otherwise speci-	
Carvers.....	30	30	— fied.....	30
Cascarilla.....	20	20	Chenille, cords or trimming of, cot-	
Cashmere, borders of wool, whole or	30	40	— ton.....	25
part.....	30	25	Cheroots, (Indian segars).....	40
Cashmere of Thibet.....	25	40	Chessmen, bone, ivory, or rice.....	30
— cloth.....	30	40	— wood.....	30
— gown patterns, wool being a	30	40	Chest handles.....	30
component material.....	30	40	Children's shoes.....	30
Cashmere gowns, made.....	30	50	Children's slippers.....	30
— chawis, Thibet.....	30	20	China ware.....	30
Casement rods, iron for.....	30	2 1/2 c p pd	— root.....	20
Cases, fish skin.....	20	20 per ct.	Chinchilla skins, undressed.....	10
Cassimere, woolen.....	30	40	— dressed.....	20
Cassimere, cotton, wool being a com-	30	30	Chip hats or bonnets.....	30
ponent part, chief value.....	30	20	Chisels, socket, and all other.....	30
Casks, empty.....	20	20	Chloride of lime.....	10
Cassia, or meal of.....	20	20	Chocolate.....	20
Cassia, Chinese, Calcutta and Suma-	40	1 c p pd	Choppa romais, silk.....	25
tra.....	40	20 per ct	Chowdangary, a manufacture of cot-	
Cassia buds and fistula.....	20	20	— ton.....	25
Castans, or castinal.....	30	24 ets lb.	Chromate of potash, do. of lead.....	20
Castings of plaster.....	30	1 1/2 "	Chronic, yellow.....	30
— of iron, (except vessels) all other,	30	14 "	— acid.....	20
not specified.....	30	20 per ct.	Chronometers, and parts.....	30
Castling iron vessels.....	30	40 c. gal.	Chrysolites.....	20
Castor beans.....	20	30 per ct	Crystals of tin.....	20
— oil.....	20	30	Clar, or colar, rope.....	25
Castors, brass or iron, wood.....	30	30	Cleat.....	20
Castors or cruet, silver, plated, wood	30	see glass	Cigars.....	40
Castor Glasses, not in the frames or	40	see glass	— paper.....	40
ernets, cut.....	40	40 pr. ct.	Cinehoua.....	15
Castor glasses, not in cruet, not cut.	30	20	Cinehonine.....	20
Castorine lize, woolen cloth.....	30	1 ct. lb.	Cinnabar.....	25
Casterum.....	20	14 "	Cinnamon and oil of.....	30
Cast shoe bills.....	30	30 pr. ct.	Cinchiglia web, (woolen).....	30
Cast iron vessels, not otherwise speci-	30	15 pr. ct.	Circassians, (worsted).....	25
fied.....	30	30	Citrate of lime.....	20
Catches, brass, copper, or iron.....	30	10 et. lb.	Citric acid.....	20
Catocha.....	10	15 pr. ct.	Citron, in its natural state.....	20
Catgut.....	20	30	— preserved.....	40
Catsup.....	30	20	— oil of.....	30
Caulking mallets.....	30	10 et. lb.	Civet, oil of.....	30
Caustic.....	30	15 pr. ct.	Clasps, brass.....	30
Cayenne pepper.....	30	20 per lb	— gold or silver.....	30
Cedar wood.....	20	20	— gilt or plated, steel, set, gold	30
Cement, Roman.....	20	60	— or silver, iron.....	30
— or cherry water, a cordial.....	100	4 ets. lb	Clay, ground or prepared.....	20
— Ceruse, dry or in oil.....	20	30 pr. ct.	— unwrought.....	5
Chasing dishes, copper, iron, or tin.....	30	24 ets. lb.	Clayed suga, white.....	20
Chain cables.....	30	30 per ct.	Clonks.....	30
Chain, oil, under $\frac{1}{2}$ inch.....	30			

21 " "

30

20

30

30

30

24 cts lb.

30 per ct

20

63

30

30

30

free.

2.50 lb.

20 pr. ct

30 "

45 cts lb.

20 pr. ct

20 "

40 per ct

30 "

25

9 cts lb.

20 per ct

20

40 per lb

20 "

30

30

15 c. pal

15 "

30 per ct

20

10

10 p lb.

4 "

2.50 ct. lb.

see col't'n

20 per ct

1 ct. lb.

20 per ct

30

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1840.	1842.	1840.	1842.
Denmark satin, or antteens, entirely stuff.....	25	30	25
Dentifrices.....	30	25	30
Devonshire kerseys.....	30	40	30
Diamonds.....	10	7 1/2	10
do. set.....	30	25	30
do. gaiters'.....	15	25	30
Diaper linen.....	20	25	30
Diapers, cotton.....	25	30	30
Dice, ivory or bone.....	30	20	30
Dimities and dimity muslin.....	25	see cotton	30
Dimity, furniture, and all other.....	25	see cotton	30
Directions for patent medicines.....	20	20 pr et	30
Dirks.....	30	30	30
Dishes, chafin, copper, iron or tin.....	30	30	30
Distilled vinegar, medicinal.....	30	20	30
Diuretic, sal.....	20	20	30
Dividers, brass, iron, steel, silver, or wood.....	30	30	30
Jog chains.....	30	30	30
Balls, of every description.....	30	30	30
Downs.....	30	25	30
Doyleys cotton.....	35	30	30
do. linen.....	20	25	30
do. woollen.....	30	40	30
Down, all kinds.....	25	25	30
Dragon's blood.....	15	25	30
Drawing pencils.....	30	25	30
Drawings.....	10	20	30
Drawer knobs.....	30	30	30
do. if entirely of cut glass.....	40	30	30
do. ivory or bone.....	30	30	30
Drawing knives.....	30	30	30
Drawers, guernsey wool or worsted.....	30	30	30
do. kilt, without needle work.....	30	30	30
do. silk, wove.....	30	40	30
do. cotton, wove.....	20	30	30
Dressed furs, on the skin.....	20	25	30
Dried pulp.....	20	20	30
Drillings, linen.....	30	25	30
Drugs, dyeing, not otherwise enum.....	30	20	30
Drugs, medicinal, not otherwise enumerated, in a crude state.....	20	30	30
Duck, Holland, English, Russia, half-duck, and all other salt duck.....	20	7 1/2 sq yd	30
Duck, Ravens, of hemp.....	20	20 pr ct	30
do. do. of flax.....	20	25	30
Dutch metal, in leaf.....	20	25	30
Durants, worsted stuff.....	25	30	30
Dustpans.....	30	30	30
Dutch pink.....	20	30	30
Dyeing articles, used principally for.....	20	free.	30
not otherwise enumerated.....	20	free.	30
Dye woods.....	5	free.	30
E			
Earth, in oil.....	30	1 1/2 ct lb	30
Earthenware.....	30	30 pr ct	30
Ebony, unmanufactured.....	20	free.	30
do. manufactures of, or of which it is the material of chief value.....	40	30	30
Elastic garters, made of elastic wire, covered.....	30	30	30
Elephants' teeth.....	5	free.	30
Electropane.....	20	20	30
Embroideries, of gold or silver, or other metal.....	30	30	30
Emeralds.....	10	7	30
Emery.....	30	free.	30
Emetic, tartar.....	30	30	30
Engravers' copper, prepared, or polished.....	30	30	30
Engravers' scrapers and burishers.....	30	30	30
Engravings, books of, bound or not.....	10	free	30
Epaulets.....	30	free.	30
Epsom salts.....	20	20	30
Equalising tiles.....	30	30	30
Escutoheons.....	30	30	30
do. pins.....	30	30	30
Essences, all kinds.....	30	25	30
Estopline, linen.....	20	35	30
Etchings or engravings.....	10	20	30
Ether.....	20	20	30
Etoile, or stars for ornaments, gold.....	30	15	30
Ether sulphuric.....	20	25	30
Extracts, all kinds of.....	30	25	30
Extracts and decoctions of dye woods not otherwise provided for.....	20	25	30
Eyes and rods for stairs.....	30	30	30
F			
False collars.....	30	50	30
Fans, all.....	30	25	30
Fancy, or perfumed shaving soap.....	30	30	30
Fastenings, shutter or other, of copper, iron, steel, brass, gilt, plated, or japanned.....	30	30	30
Fearnought cloth.....	30	40	30
Feathers, ornamental.....	30	40	30
do. for beds.....	25	25	30
Felts, or hat bodies made in whole or in part of wool.....	20	18 ct ea	30
Feltings, paper.....	30	30	30
Ferri rubigo.....	20	30	30
Fiddles.....	20	30	30
Fids.....	30	30	30
Fifes, bone and ivory.....	20	30	30
Fifes, of wood.....	30	30	30
Figures, alabaster.....	40	30 pr et	30
do. brass, bronze, gold or silver, gilt or plated, marble, plaster.....	30	30	30
Figs.....	40	2 ct lb	30
Fig blue.....	20	20 pr ct	30
Filberts.....	30	1 pr lb	30
Filles.....	30	30	30
File cuts.....	30	30	30
Filtering stones.....	30	30	30
unmanufactured.....	20	20	30
Fire arms, other than muskets and rifles.....	30	30	30
Fire crackers, irons, screens.....	30	30	30
Fish, pickled, other than in barrels or half barrels not specified.....	20	20	30
Fish, for lgn caught, dry.....	20	100 pr wt	30
—, mackerel, and herring pickled.....	20	150 "	30
—, salmon, pickled or dry salted.....	20	200 "	30
—, salmon, smoked.....	20	100 "	30
—, all other pickled.....	20	100 "	30
—, fresh, for daily consumption, foreign.....	20	free.	30
—, other, in oil.....	40	20 pr et	30
—, hooks and saucers.....	30	30	30
—, skins, raw, and skin cases.....	20	20	30
Fisheries of the United States and their territories, all products of, free.....	free.	free.	30
Fishing nets, other than dip or scoop.....	30	7 cts lb	30
Flags.....	25	25 pr ct	30
Flageolets.....	20	30	30
Flannels, all.....	25	14 c sq yd	30
Flap hinges.....	30	30	30
Flasks, powder.....	30	30 pr ct	30
Flat irons.....	30	2 1/2 cts lb	30
Flats, for making hats or bonnets.....	30	35 pr ct	30
Flax, unmanufactured.....	15	\$20 pr tn	30
—, all manufactures of, or of which flax is a component part, not otherwise specified.....	20	25 pr ct	30
Flaxseed.....	20	5 "	30
Fleam.....	30	10	30
Fles, Spanish, or cautharides.....	20	free.	30
Flints and flint stone and do. ground.....	5	free.	30
Float files.....	30	free.	30
Floor cloth, stamped, printed or painted.....	30	15 c sq yd	30
Floor cloth, dish, or table mats of.....	30	25 pr et	30
—, cloth lined with woollen or wool.....	30	10 c sq yd	30
—, matting, all.....	25	25 pr ct	30
Floor benzoin.....	30	25	30
Floss silk, purified from the gum.....	25	see cott's	30
Floss cotton, (see cotton thread).....	25	10 pr cwt	30
Flour, of wheat.....	20	20 pr ct	30
—, of other grain.....	20	25 pr et	30
Flour-sulphur.....	15	30	30
Flower water, orange.....	30	30	30
Flutes.....	30	30	30
Flushings.....	30	40	30
Folls, fencing.....	30	30	30
Fol. digitalis.....	20	20	30
Forks.....	30	20	30
Forge hammers.....	30	2 1/2 cts lb	30
Fossils.....	free	20 pr et	30
Fox gloves.....	20	30	30

1846.	1842.	1846.	1843.
Hames	see and 'ry	Hydriodate of potash	20
Hams, bacon	30	Hydrometers, of glass	30
Hand hammers	30		
Handkerchiefs, linen	30	I	
Do. bandanna and choppa, silk, cot-		imitation of precious stones	10
ton, Madras	25	implements of trade of persons arriv-	
Hangers	30	ing in the United States	free.
Hanging paper	30	India grass	25
Hares' hair or fur	10	do. rubber, unmanufactured	10
Hare skins, undressed	10	India rubber oil cloth, and shoes, or	
do. skins, dressed	25	other manufactured articles, of In-	
Harlem oil	30	dia rubber	30
Harness	35	India rubber cloth	30
Harp strings, gut	15 pr. ct.	do. webbing	30
do. strings, wire	30	Indian meal and corn	20
Harpa and harpsichords	30	Indigo	5
Harshehorn	30	Indispensables, or bags, leather	30
Hatshehorn	30	Do. cotton, merino stuff, silk, bead	30
Hat felts or bodies, not put in form		Do. bead, or silk, with clasp	30
or trimmed	20	Ink and ink powder	25
Hat bodies, cotton	30	Ink stands	30
do. in whole or in part wool,		Instruments, philosophical	30
and wool of chief value	20	do. musical	20
Hata, Leghorn	30	do. philosophical, not spe-	
Hat linings, cotton, as cottons	25	cially imported, duty according to	
Hats of chip, straw or grass	30	the materials they are composed of.	
do. cotton cloth, complete with the		Iodine, and salts of	20
exception of the lining and band	30	Ipsaco, or Ipsosauha	20
Hats of wool	20	Iris root	20
do. fur	30	Iron, articles not enumerated, manu-	
do. leather	30	factured from iron, or of which iron	
do. palm leaf	30	is a component part	30
do. rattan	30	Iron, in bars or bolts, made wholly	
do. japanned	30	or in part by rolling	30
do. silk, men's	30	Iron, in bars or bolts, not manufactur-	
Hatters' irons	30	ed in whole or in part by rolling	30
Hats, of any material not specified	30	Iron boiler plates, with holes for riv-	
Haulboys	30	ets	30
Haversacks, of leather	30	Iron boiler plates, without holes for	
Hayknives	30	rivets	30
Head-dresses, ornaments for	30	Iron band, and cables, or parts there-	
Head matter, if fisheries of the Uni-		of	2½ "
ted States	free.	Iron castings	30
Head pieces, for stills	30	Iron in slabs, blooms, bolts, loops,	
Heart's ruge, all	40	piqs, rods, &c., not otherwise pre-	
Hellebore root	20	vided for	30
Hemlock	tree.	Iron nail plates	30
Hemp seed	10	Iron, old, in scrap	30
do. all manufactures of, not		Iron, rolled or hammered	30
otherwise specified	20	Iron in pipe	30
Hemp unmanufactured	30	Iron, round, or braziers' rods, of 3-15	
Henbane	20	to 10-16 of an inch diam. inclusive	30
Herrings, pickled	20	Iron, sad or flat irons	30
do. smoked or dried	20	Iron screws, for wood	30
Hessians, German flax	25 pr. ct.	Iron, vessels of, cast, even with wrot	
do. hemp	20	ings, hoops, handles, &c. not oth-	
Hides, raw or salted	5	erwise specified	30
do. tanned	5	do. wrought for ships, locomotive,	
Hinges	30	and steam engines	30
Hobby horses	30	do. weights, cast, even with wrought	
Hods, coal, iron, copper	30	ings, hoops, handles, &c. &c.,	
Hoes	30	not otherwise specified	30
Holisting chains	30	Iron railroads to pay as rolled iron	30
Hollands, brown	25	do. wheels for cars	30
Hollow ware, tinned	30	do. chains, all others not otherwise	
Hones	20	specified	30
Honey	30	do. malleable, or castings	30
Hooks	30	do. tubes or pipes, for steam, gas,	
do. and eyes	30	or water, made of band or rolled	
Hoop iron	2½ cts lb.	iron	30
Hoops, iron, fit for use	30	do. sulphate of	20
Hops	20	do. manufactures of	30
Horn combs	25	Iridium	30
do. tips	5	Iring'ssa	30
do. plates, for lanterns	30	Issue peas	30
Horns	5	do. plaster	30
Horse hair	10	do. plaster	30
Hose, cotton	30	Ivory	5
do. wool, worsted, and silk, sewed	30	do. manufactured	30
do. leather, and linen thread	25 pr. ct.	do. unmanufactured	5
Household effects, old and in use of		do. black	20
persons from foreign countries, if		do. nuts	5
not intended for sale	free.	do. vegetable, manufactures	30
Household furniture	30		
Hungary water	25	J	
Hyacinth roots	free.	Jacks, jack chains and jack screws	30
		Jalap	20

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Lint.....	30	Manufactures of linen, if embroid- ered.....	30
Liquor or cordials, all.....	100	Manufactures of leather, not other- wise provided for.....	30
Liquor, iron, purple, red and tin.....	30	Manufactures of marble, more advan- ced than slabs or blocks, (rough).....	30
Liquorics paste, root, and juice.....	20	Manufactures of mohair, or goats hair, not otherwise provided for.....	25
Litharge.....	30	Manufactures of mohair cloth, for shoes, boots, booties, and buttons.....	5
Lithographic stones.....	30	Manufactures of paper, not otherwise provided for.....	30
Lithmus.....	30	Manufactures of papier machine, not otherwise provided for.....	30
Loodstones.....	30	Manufactures of silk, embroidered.....	30
Loaf sugar.....	30	Manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for.....	25
Lotions, all cosmetic.....	30	Manufactures of tobacco, all not oth- erwise provided for.....	40
Lozenges, all medicinal.....	30	Manufactures of wood, viz: cedar, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rose, and satin.....	40
Locks.....	30	Manufactures of wood, not otherwise provided for.....	30
Logwood.....	5	Manufactures of wool, embroidered.....	40
Logwood, extracts of.....	30	Manufactures of wool, or of which wool is a component part of chief value, not otherwise provided for.....	30
Long cloths, linen.....	30	Manufactures of worsted, embroid- ed.....	30
Looking-glasses.....	30	Manufactures of worsted, not other- wise provided for.....	25
frames.....	30	Maps.....	10
Looking-glass plates.....	30	Marble, manufactures of.....	30
Looking-glass frames.....	30	do. busts, not specially imported.....	30
Lump sugar.....	30	do. unmanufactured.....	25
Lunar caustic.....	30	Marbles, (for children's play) baked.....	30
Lustres, glass, cut.....	40	do. stones.....	30
do., brass and glass.....	30	Marine coal.....	25
Lutes.....	20	Marmalade, a sweetmeat.....	40
Lye, soda.....	20	Marrow.....	10
		Muscade, essence of.....	15
		Mush mallow.....	20
		Mastic, crude.....	15
		do. refined.....	25
		Matches, for pocket lights.....	30
		Mathematical instruments, specially imported.....	30
		Mathematical instruments.....	30
		Mats, tables, straw, tow or flax.....	25
		do. all other.....	25
		Mattings, all floor of flags, jute, or grass.....	25
		Mattresses, hair, or moss, linen tick.....	25
		Meal, cassada, linseed, oat.....	20
		Meats prepared.....	25
		Meeklin lace, linen.....	15
		Medals and other collections of an- tiquities.....	free
		Medicinal drugs, roots and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise speci- fied.....	30
		Metal, plated.....	30
		Metallic slates.....	25
		Metallic pens.....	25
		Metals, unmanufactured, not other- wise provided for.....	30
		Melting pots.....	30
		Mercury or quicksilver.....	5
		do. all preparations of.....	25
		Merino shawls, (so called) body worsted or combed wool.....	30
		Merino shawls, border woollen fringe sewed on.....	40
		Merino cloth, entirely of combed wool.....	30
		do. wool, not combed, be- ing a component part.....	40
		Merino stuff, fringe and trimmings.....	30
		do. shawls made of wool.....	40
		do. cloth, worsted stuff.....	30
		do. cloth, woollen.....	40
		Manilla hemp.....	\$25 ton

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Macaroni.....	30
Mace.....	40
Maceae oil.....	30
Machinery, models of.....	free.
Macquerel, pickled.....	20
Madder.....	5
Madder root.....	5
Madopolanis, cotton.....	25
Madras handkerchiefs, cotton.....	25
Maglo lanterns, and similar articles.....	30
Magnesia.....	30
Magnesia, carbonate of.....	30
do. sulphate of.....	20
Mahogany.....	20
Mails, an iron article used in wear- ing.....	30
Mallets, wood.....	30
Malt.....	20
Manganese.....	20
Mangoes.....	20
Mangroves, or shells of.....	20
Manilla grass.....	25
Manna, (a crude gum).....	20
Mantillas, silk.....	30
Mantles.....	30
Manufactured tobacco.....	40
Manufactures of the United States and its territories.....	free.
Manufactures, all, of the U States, brought back.....	free.
Manufactures of articles, vessels and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platinum, silver, tin, or other ware.....	30
Manufactures of bark of cork tree, except corks.....	30
Manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, and vegetable ivory.....	30
Manufactures of cotton, if tamboured or embroidered.....	30
Manufactures of cotton, wholly, not otherwise provided for.....	25
Manufactures of cloth, suitable for shoes, boots, booties, and buttons, exclusively.....	5
Manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for.....	20
Manufactures of fur, or of which fur is a component material.....	30
Manufactures of glass, articles, ves- sels, and wares, not otherwise pro- vided for.....	30
Manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for.....	20
Manufactures of hair, not otherwise provided for.....	25

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do. or chlorate of potasse, or				
potash.....	.20	30	Pearl, mother of.....	5
Oysters.....	20	free.	Pearls, set.....	30
Osnaburgs.....	20	25 pr ct	do. all.....	10
			do. composition, set.....	30
			do. mock pearls.....	10
P			Peas.....	20
Pack thread.....	30	6 cts lb	Peanuts.....	30
Padding.....	30	40 pr ct	Pelerines, lace.....	30
Paddy.....	30		Pellitory root.....	30
Pad screws.....	30	see ad'ry	Pelts, salted.....	5
Paint brushes.....	30	30 pr ct	Pencil, black lead.....	30
Painted floor cloths, oil.....	30	35 sq y'd	do. camel's hair.....	30
Painting brushes.....	30	30 pr ct	do. red chalk.....	30
Paintings, the productions of American artists residing abroad.....	free.	free.	do. slate.....	20
Paintings, other, provided the same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not merchandise.....	free.		Pencil cases.....	30
Paintings on glass, and porcelain.....	30		Penknives.....	30
Paints, carmine.....	30	30 pr ct	Pens.....	30
Paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for.....	20	30	Pepper, black and white.....	30
Paints, all not otherwise specified.....	20	30	do. cayenne, and Chili or African.....	10
do. Ivory black.....	20	30	Percussion caps.....	30
do. red lead.....	20	30	Perfumes.....	30
do. rose pink.....	30	4 cts lb	Perry.....	100
do. Spanish brown, dry.....	30	1	Peruvian bark.....	15
do. do. in oil.....	30	1 1/2	Pestles and mortars.....	30
do. terra umbra.....	30	1	Petersbann, woolen cloth.....	30
do. white lead.....	20	4	Petticoats ready made.....	30
Painters' colors.....	20	10 pr ct	Pewter, old, fit only to be remanufactured.....	5
Palm leaves, unmanufactured.....	10	20 pr ct	Pewter, articles of, not enumerated, manufactured from, or of which pewter is a component part.....	30
do. leaf hats.....	30	35 pr ct	Phosphate of lime and soda.....	20
do. leaf baskets.....	30	25	Philosophical apparatus, duty according to the material of which it is composed.....	30
do. oil.....	10	free.	Phosphorus lights, in glass bottles, with paper cases.....	30
Panel saws.....	30	30 pr ct	Phosphorus.....	20
Pit saws.....	30	\$1, each	Phosphuret of lime.....	20
Panilla grass.....	25	\$25 pr tn	Pianofortes.....	30
Paper, antiquarian, double elephant, atlas, columbian, elephant, imperial, super-royal, royal, medium, demy, and foolscap drawing and writing.....	30	15 cts lb	Pickled fish, other than mackerel, and salmon.....	20
Paper, bank folio and quarto post of all kinds, letter and bank note.....	30	17	Pickles.....	30
Paper, copper-plate, blotting, copying, colored for labels and needles, marble, and fancy colored.....	30		Picrotoxicine, an extract.....	25
Paper, ginas, morocco, sand and tissue.....	30	12 1/2	Picture glass (see gins, window).....	30
do. pot and pith.....	30	12 1/2	Pictures.....	30
do. pasteboard, pressing boards, and gold and silver paper in sheets or strips.....	30	15	Pimento.....	40
Paper, colored copper-plate, printing, and stainers.....	30	12 1/2	Pimento, oil of.....	30
Paper, binders' boards, box boards, mill boards, and paper makers' boards.....	30	10	Pin or needle cases.....	30
Paper, sheathing, wrapping, and cartridge.....	30	3	Pin cushions.....	25
Paper envelopes and fancy note.....	30	3 cts lb	Pincers.....	30
do. music with lines.....	10	30 pr ct	Pine apples.....	30
do. gilt or metal, not gold or silver.....	30	25	Pink, Dutch, rose, root, saucers.....	20
do. for screens or fireboards.....	20	25	Pine.....	30
do. all other not enumerated.....	30	35 pr ct	Pink, Dutch, rose, root, saucers.....	20
do. counting house boxes.....	30	15 cts lb	Pinecrine, an extract.....	30
Paper boxes, fancy.....	30	25 pr ct	Pipes, an extract.....	30
do. hangings.....	20	35	Pipes, clay, smoking.....	30
do. segurs.....	40	20	do. iron, not being castings.....	30
do. snuff-boxes.....	30	25	do. iron castings.....	30
do. wadding.....	30	20	do. lead.....	20
Parasols, silk.....	30	30	Pistols.....	30
Parasol sticks or frames.....	30	30	Pitch, Burgundy.....	25
Paving tiles.....	20	25	Pitch.....	20
Parchment.....	30	25	Plaid, cotton.....	25
Paris white, dry.....	20	1 ct lb	Plains.....	30
Pasteboard.....	30	12 1/2 ct lb	Plaintain, or Manilla grass, or Manilla hemp.....	25
Paste giggers.....	30	30 pr ct	Plaits, for making hats or bonnets.....	30
do. almond, and perfumed.....	30	25	Plaster of Paris, unground.....	free.
Paste work that is set in gold or silver.....	30	20	do. do. ground.....	20
do. imitation of precious stones.....	10	1/2 pr ct	Plaster, court, on silk.....	30
Pastel or wood.....	10	5 cts lb	do. do. on cambric.....	30
Patent floor cloth, oil.....	30	5 cts yd	do. busts, casts, statues, and ornaments.....	30
do. mordant.....	0		Planks, wrought.....	30
do. yellow.....	0	20 pr ct	do. rough.....	20
Paving stones.....	20	20	Plants.....	free.
			Plaintain bark.....	30
			Plane irons.....	30
			Planes.....	30
			Plata pink.....	free.
			Plate, silver.....	30
			Plated carriage and harness furniture.....	30
			do. wares of all kinds, not otherwise specified.....	30
			Plates boiler.....	30

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Ribbons.....	25	25.50 lb	Salempore, cottons.....	25
do. Borelour, silk and cotton.....	35	30 pr ct	Salep.....	25
do. pou'd.....	35	32.50 lb	Salmon, preserved.....	40
Rice.....	20	20 pr ct	do. pickled.....	20
Rifles.....	30	2.50 ct	do. dry or smoked.....	20
Rigotine, a kind of woolen cloth.....	30	40 pr ct	Salt.....	20
Rings.....	30	30	Salt, crude mineral.....	20
Rivets.....	30	30	Salt, fossil, mineral salt.....	20
Robes, made up.....	30	50	Salts, brown, epsom, glauber, Ko-	30
Roche's salts.....	20	20	chelle.....	20
do. or common salt.....	20	8 ct b's'l	Salts, all other chemical salts not	20
Rock moss.....	20	4 pr ct	enumerated.....	20
Rocca.....	10	20	Salted skivers, roams, and pelts.....	5
Rods, braziers', of 3-16 to 10-16 of an	30	2 1/2 cts lb	Saltpetre, or sal nitre, or nitrate of	5
inch diameter, inclusive.....	30	30 pr ct	potash, crude.....	5
Rods and eyes, for stairs.....	30	30 pr ct	Saltpetre, refined.....	10
Rods, wood.....	30	30	do. partially refined.....	10
do. copper.....	20	4 ct. lb.	Sandarach, refined.....	20
do. competition.....	30	30 pr ct	Sanders wood.....	5
do. casement, silt, silt or rolled.....	30	24 cts lb.	do. red.....	5
do. steel.....	30	30 pr ct	Sandal wood.....	30
Rolls, brown or white linen.....	20	25 pr ct	Sand stones.....	30
Roller buckles, as saddlery.....	20	25 "	Sanguis dragons.....	15
Romala, cotton goods.....	25	as cot't's	Sanna, cottons.....	25
Roman cement.....	20	20 pr ct	Sarcooila, crude.....	20
do. vitrol.....	20	4 cts lb	Sardines.....	40
Rope, made of hides out in strips.....	20	20 pr ct	do. and all fish in oils.....	40
Rope or cordage of cocoa-nut hulls.....	25	4 1/2 cts lb	Sarsaparilla.....	20
Rops, arrow.....	20	20 pr ct	Saranets, silk.....	25
do. ava and madder.....	5	free.	do. cotton.....	25
do. medicinal, not specially men-	20	20	Sash fasteners.....	30
tioned, in a crude state.....	20	20	Sashes, silk.....	25
Roots, all not otherwise enumerat-	free.	20	Sassafras.....	20
ed.....	free.	20	do. oil of.....	30
Rope, made of grass or bark.....	25	4 1/2 cts lb	Satin, Denmark, (worsted stuff).....	25
Rope, oar or colar.....	25	4 1/2 "	do. do. if any cotton.....	25
Rose leaves.....	20	20 pr ct	Satin, gauze.....	25
Rose water.....	30	25 prot	do. silk.....	25
Rose wood.....	20	15	do. wood.....	30
Rosin.....	20	75	Satins, figured, when in a strip, exclu-	5
Rosolio, a cordial.....	100	60 cts gal.	sively for buttons.....	5
Rotten stone.....	10	free.	Sauces, all kinds not otherwise spe-	30
Rouens, linen.....	20	25 pr ct	oified.....	30
Rouge.....	20	20	Saucepans.....	30
Rubigo ferri.....	20	20	Sausages.....	25
Rubrum, bark acer.....	20	20	Saws, mill.....	30
Rubies.....	10	7	Saws, cross-cut and pit.....	30
do. set.....	30	7 1/2	Saws, all not otherwise specified.....	30
Rue, essence of.....	20	20	Saw sets.....	25
Rugs for bed covering, cotton.....	25	see cot't's	Sawns, cottons.....	25
Rugs for bed covering, woolen.....	30	40 pr ct	Scagliola tables or slabs.....	40
Rugs, hearth, all.....	30	40	Scale beams.....	30
Rugs, fur horses.....	30	40	Scales, bone.....	20
Rules.....	30	20	do. ivory.....	20
Rum.....	100	60 cts gal	do. all other material.....	30
Rum, bay, or bay water.....	30	25 pr ct	Scammoniate.....	20
Russia crash, heinp.....	20	20 pr ct	Scantling.....	30
do. duck.....	20	7 c sq yd	do. and sawed timber not plan-	20
do. diaper and linen.....	20	25	ed or wrought into shape for use.....	20
do. sheetings, and other of flax.....	20	25	Scarfs, silk.....	30
Rust of iron.....	20	20	do. if any cotton.....	30
Rye.....	20	15 cts b's'l	do. if any wool.....	30
Rye flour.....	20	30	Sella, or squills.....	20
			Seisars.....	30
			Scotch braces.....	30
			Scrapers.....	30
			Scrap lead.....	20
			do. iron.....	30
			Screws, bed.....	20
			do. brass.....	30
			Sea weed, and all other vegetable	20
			substances used for bed or mat-	20
			treesses.....	20
			Seeds, garden.....	free
			do. all other not specified.....	free
			Seed lac.....	free.
			Seines.....	30
			Segars.....	40
			Segars, paper.....	40
			Seltzer water.....	20
			Seneca, or radix root.....	20
			Senegal gum.....	10
			Senna.....	20
			Septa.....	20
			Serge, woolen.....	40
			Sewing silk.....	30

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Socket chisels.....	30	30	Steel, shovels.....	30	30
Soeks, cotton.....	20	30	Steel, all articles not enumerated,		
do. silk.....	30	30	manufactured from steel, or of		
do. linen or thread.....	30	25	which steel is a component part	30	30
do. wool.....	30	30	Steel not otherwise provided for.....	20	30
do. worsted, including children's.....	30	30	Steelyards.....	30	30
Soda, ash.....	10	5	Stereotype plates.....	30	25
do. carbonate of iodate of, hydr-			Sticks, walking, finished or not.....	30	30
odate of, lay, powders, sal, salts			do. or frames for umbrellas or par-		
of.....	20	20	sols.....	30	30
do. all carbonate of, except soda			Stiffeners for cravats.....	30	40
ash, barilla, and kelp.....	20	20	Scilletoes, daggers.....	30	30
Soie blanche, Chenille.....	30	30	do. ivory.....	30	20
Solanina.....	20	20	Still-bottoms, copper.....	20	30 pr ct
Soles, felt.....	31	40	Still worms.....	30	30
do. cork.....	31	35	Stirrup irons.....	30	30
Sooty romals, cotton.....	25	see coll'n	Stockette.....	30	40
Souvenirs.....	30	30	Stockings and half stockings, of wool		
Soy.....	30	30	or worsted.....	30	30
Spades of iron, with or without			Stockings silk.....	30	30
handles.....	30	30	Stomach pumps.....	30	30
do. of steel do. do. do. do.	30	30	Stone ware.....	30	30
Spanish brown, dry.....	30	1 ct lb	Stone Armenian.....	20	20
do. do. ground in oil.....	30	1 1/2 ct lb	Stones, bristol		
Spanish files, or cantharides.....	20	free.	polishing red and sand.....	10	free.
Spare.....	20	30 pr ct	do. burr, unwrought.....	10	free.
Spartaria, or sparterie, or willow			do. burr, wrought.....	10	20 pr ct
sheets for hats.....	30	35	do. building.....	10	20
Spatulas.....	30	30	do. caustic.....	20	20
Sparteen, or coral.....	20	20	do. cornelian, and garnet.....	10	7
Spa, or spaware.....	40	30	do. mill.....	10	20
Specimens of anatomical preparations	30	free.	do. not merchantable, for ballast.....	20	20
do. in botany, mineralogy, natu-			do. oil.....	20	20
ral history, and in sculpture,			do. paving.....	20	30
and not for sale.....	free	free.	do. pumice.....	10	7
Spectacle cases.....	30	30	do. rotten.....	10	7
do. glasses.....	30	\$2 grms.	do. touch and wheel.....	20	20
Spectacles, all kinds.....	30	30 pr ct	do. turpentine and balsam.....	20	20
Spy-glasses.....	30	30	Storax or styrax, a balsam.....	30	30
Spy-glasses, manufactures of			Straining web.....	20	25
do. in pigs, bars, or plates.....	5	free.	Straw baskets.....	20	25
do. in sheets.....	15	10	do. carpets and straw carpeting.....	25	30
Spermaceti oil, of foreign fisheries.....	20	25 ct gal.	do. matting and mats.....	25	25
Spikes, copper.....	20	4 cts lb	do. for hats, in its natural state.....	20	20
do. composition.....	30	30 pr ct	Stretchers for umbrellas and parasols.....	30	30
do. iron.....	30	3 cts lb	Strings of musical instruments, if gut		
Spike rods.....	30	2 1/2 cts lb	do. bow, if gut, and hatters' if		
Spirits, lac, and yellow.....	20	20 pr ct	gutlin and murite of.....	15	15
do. do.....	100	60 ct gal	do. ultrate of.....	30	20
Spokes and spoke shaves.....	30	30 pr ct	Strychnine, a salts.....	20	20
Sponges.....	20	20	Studs, all kinds.....	10	10
Spoons, all kinds.....	30	30	Stuff, shoes.....	30	25 pr ct
Spunk.....	20	20	Stuff, goods, all kinds of worsted.....	25	30 pr ct
Spurs, all kinds.....	30	30	Stump joints.....	30	30
Sprigs.....	30	5 pr 1000	Sublimate, corrosive.....	25	25
Springs for wigs.....	30	30 per ct	Succini, oil of, (drug).....	30	30
Spy-glasses.....	30	30	Succory.....	30	30
Squares, brass, iron, steel.....	30	30	Sugar, brown, raw.....	30	21 cts lb
Squares wire, for stretchers for um-			do. candy.....	30	6
brellas.....	30	1 1/2	do. loaf and lump.....	30	6
Squares, wood.....	31	30 pr ct	do. white, cloyed.....	30	4
Squills, or scilla.....	20	20	do. of lead.....	20	4
Stamped floor cloths, oil.....	30	35 c sq yd	do. syrup of.....	30	2 1/2
Staroh.....	20	2 cts lb	do. brown, cloyed.....	30	2 1/2
Stars of gold, fine and half fine.....	30	15 pr ct	Sugars, all other not refined.....	30	4
Statuary, the production of American			do. refined.....	30	6
artists residing abroad.....	free.	free.	Sugar moulds, hooped or not.....	30	30 pr ct
Statues and specimens specially im-			Sugar tongs.....	30	30
ported as objects of taste and not			Sulphate of copper, or blue vitriol.....	30	40 pr ct
merchandise.....	free.	free.	Sulphate of quinine.....	20	40 cts lb
Statues not specially imported, viz:			do. of rhubarb, of zinc, of mag-		
Statues of Alabaster.....	40	30 pr ct	sh.....	20 pr ct	20 cts lb
do. of brass, bronze, marble, met-			do. of iron.....	20	20
al, plaster, cast or wood.....	30	30	Sulph, mur, tin.....	20	20
Staves.....	20	20	Sulphur, flor. flour, flower of sulphur		
do. rough.....	20	20	do. of vitriol.....	10	10
Stavesacre.....	20	20	Sulphuric ether.....	20	20
Steel, cast, shear, and German in bars			Sulphur.....	5	5
do. wire, not exceeding No. 14.....	30	1.50 cwt	Surgeons' instruments.....	30	30 pr ct
do. do. over No. 14 and not ex-			Surplice plus.....	30	30
ceeding No. 25.....	30	8 cts lb	Suspenders or braces.....	30	30
do. wire, exceeding No. 25.....	30	11 cts lb	Suspender ends.....	30	30 pr ct
do. in bars, all other.....	20	\$2.50 cwt	Swans, down of.....	25	25
do. chains.....	30	30 pr ct	Swansdown, woolen and cloth.....	30	40
do. pens.....	30	25	Swans' skins, undressed.....	5	5
do. cutting knives, scythes, sickles,			do. dressed.....	20	25
reaping hooks, spades and					

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Twine, cotton, mohair, worsted.....	30	Walking sticks or canes.....	30
Twine, cotton, mohair, worsted.....	30	Warming pans.....	30
Twine, silk.....	30	Washes, cosmetic or dentifrice.....	30
Types, printing, new or old.....	25	Wash balls.....	30
do. metal.....	20	Waste or shoddy.....	5
U			
Umbrellas.....	30	Watches, and parts thereof.....	10
do. sticks or frames for.....	30	Watch crystals, when not set.....	30
do. brass tips, runners, &c., for.....	30	Watch pipe keys, (carré or cannon).....	30
Umbrella square wire, stretchers.....	30	Water wheels of iron.....	30
Umbrella furniture.....	30	Water colors.....	30
V			
Valencia wool.....	30	Wax beads.....	30
do. worsted.....	25	Wax, bees', bleached or unbleached.....	20
Valenciennes, (thread lace).....	20	Wax, sealing.....	30
Valonia, or valeni, a nut, for dyeing.....	5	Wax, shoemakers'.....	20
Vanilla, plants of.....	free.	Wearing apparel of persons arriving in the United States in actual use, and personal effects, not merchan- dise.....	free.
do. beans.....	20	Webb, or webbing, boot, of fax.....	20
Varnishes of all kinds.....	20	do. do. of silk.....	25
Vases, porcelain, containing flowers with stands and shades—the vases.....	30	do. do. of worsted.....	25
Vegetables, prepared.....	40	do. do. of wool.....	30
Do. used in dyeing, or in composing dyes, in a crude state.....	5	Webbing, Indian rubber.....	30
Vegetables, not otherwise provided for.....	30	Wedgewood ware.....	30
Vells, lace, cotton.....	30	Weights, brass.....	30
Vells, silk.....	30	do. cast iron.....	30
Vellum.....	20	do. copper.....	30
Velvet, cotton, or silk and cotton cotton chief value.....	20	do. lead.....	30
Velvet, silk.....	25	Weld.....	5
Velvet binding, cotton.....	25	Wet blue.....	20
Velvet, tarry or figured, in strips or patterns of the size exclusively for buttons.....	5	Whale bone, product of for. fishing.....	20
Velvet binding, silk.....	25	do. of American fishing.....	free.
Velveteens, cotton, as cottons.....	25	Whale oil, of foreign fishing.....	15
Venitian red, dry.....	30	do. of American fishing.....	free.
do. in oil.....	30	Wheat.....	25
Venison hams.....	20	Wheat flour.....	20
Vermatris.....	20	Whetstones.....	20
Vergil.....	20	Whips.....	30
Vermorel.....	20	Whiskey.....	100
Vermilion.....	20	Whiting.....	20
do. if mercurial.....	25	Whitting ground in oil.....	20
Vessels, cast iron, not otherwise spe- cified.....	30	Wick, cotton or wick yarn.....	25
Vessels, copper.....	30	Wigs.....	30
Vestings, cotton.....	25	Willow sheets, for hats.....	30
do. silk and cotton.....	25	Willow for making baskets or cover- ing demijohns.....	20
do. silk.....	25	Window glass.....	20
do. silk and wool.....	30	Wine, Burgundy, in bottles.....	40
do. stuff.....	25	do. do. in casks.....	40
do. woollen.....	30	Wine, Canary, in casks or bottles.....	40
Vests.....	30	Wine, Champagne, in bottles or casks.....	40
Vials, all perfumery and fancy, not cut, not exceeding the capacity of four ounces each.....	30	Wine, Claret, in bottles.....	35
Vials, perfumery and fancy, not cut, when exceeding four ounces, and not exceeding sixteen ounces each.....	30	Wine, do. in casks.....	40
Vials, all perfumery and fancy cut.....	40	Wine, Madeira, in bottles.....	40
Vials, apothecaries', above six ounces, and not exceeding sixteen ounces.....	30	Wine, do. in casks.....	40
Vices.....	30	Wine, do. imitation of, in bot- tles or casks.....	40
Vinegar.....	30	Wine, Oporto, in bottles.....	40
Violins.....	20	Wine, do. in casks.....	40
Violin strings, gut.....	20	Wine, Port, imitation of, in bottles.....	40
do. wire.....	30	Wine, do. in casks.....	40
Violet, oil of sulphuric acid.....	10	Wine, Sherry, in casks or bottles.....	60
do. blue, or Roman.....	20	Wine, St. Lucia, in casks or bottles.....	60
do. green.....	20	Wines, Sicily Madeira, in casks or bottles.....	25
do. white, or sulphate of alum.....	20	Wines, all other of Sicily, in casks or bottles.....	40
W			
Wadding, paper.....	30	Wine, Teneific, in casks or bottles.....	40
Wafers.....	30	Wine, of all countries, in bottles, un- less specially enumerated.....	65
Wagon boxes.....	30	Wines of all countries, in casks, un- less specially enumerated.....	25
Walters.....	30	Wines, white, in casks, not enume- rated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions.....	75
		Wines, of Austria and Prussia, in bot- tles.....	15
		Wines, white, in bottles, not enume- rated, of France, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions.....	20
		Wines, red, in casks, not enumerated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions.....	6
		Wines, red, in bottles not enumerated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions.....	30

A BILL

REDUCING THE DUTY ON IMPORTS, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

PASSED JULY 29, 1846.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on the goods, wares, and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following rates of duty—that is to say:

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule A, a duty of *one hundred* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule B, a duty of *forty per cent.*

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule C, a duty of *thirty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule D, a duty of *twenty-five* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule E, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule F, a duty of *fifteen* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule G, a duty of *ten* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule H, a duty of *five* per centum ad valorem.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the first day of December next, the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule I shall be exempt from duty.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That, from and after the first day of December next, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise imported from foreign countries, and not specially provided for in this act, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That in all cases in which the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight or quantity, or measure of goods, wares, or merchandise now weighed or measured or gauged, the same shall be weighed, gauged, or measured at the expense of the owner or consignee.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the bounty heretofore authorized by law to be paid on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, there shall be allowed, on the exportation thereof, if cured with foreign salt, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on the salt, and no

more, to be ascertained under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares, and merchandise imported after the passage of this act, and which may be in the public stores on the second day of December next, shall be subject to no other duty upon the entry thereof than if the same were imported respectively after that day.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the twelfth section of the act entitled, "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved August thirty, eighteen hundred and forty-two, shall be, and the same is hereby, so far modified, that all goods imported from this side the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores for the space of one year instead of the term of sixty days prescribed in the said section; and that all goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores one year instead of the term of ninety days prescribed in the said section.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the owner, consignee, or agent of imports which have been actually purchased, on entry of the same, to make such addition in the entry to the cost or value given in the invoice, as in his opinion may raise the same to the true market value of such imports in the principal markets of the country whence the importation shall have been made, or in which the goods imported shall have been originally manufactured or produced, as the case may be; and to add thereto all costs and charges which, under existing laws, would form part of the true value at the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties should be assessed. And it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered to cause the dutiable value of such imports to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained in accordance with the provisions of existing laws; and if the appraised value thereof shall exceed by ten per centum or more the value so declared on the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected and paid, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem, on such appraised value. *Provided nevertheless*, That under no circumstances shall the duty be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice value; any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputies of any collector, naval officer, or surveyor, and the clerks employed by any collector, naval officer, surveyor, or appraiser, who are not by existing laws required to be sworn, shall, before entering upon their respective duties, or, if already employed, before continuing in the discharge thereof, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation faithfully and diligently to perform such duties, and to use their best endeavours to prevent and detect frauds upon the revenue of the United States; which oath or affirmation shall be administered by the collector of the port or district where the said deputies or clerks may be employed, and shall be of a form to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That no officer or other person connected with the navy of the United States, shall under any pretence, import in any ship or vessel of the United States any goods, wares, or merchandize liable to the payment of any duty.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted,* That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed.

SCHEDULE A.

Brandy and other spirits distilled from grain, or other materials; cordials, absynthe, arrack, curacoa, kirschenwasser, liqueurs, marashino, ratafia, and all other spirituous beverages of a similar character.

SCHEDULE B.

Alabaster and spar ornaments; almonds; anchovies, sardines, and all other fish preserved in oil; camphor refined; cassia; cloves; composition tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; comfits, sweetmeats, or fruit preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses; currants; dates; figs; ginger root, dried or green; glass cut; mace; manufactures of cedar wood, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rosewood, and satin wood; nutmegs; pimento; prepared vegetables, meats, poultry, and game sealed or enclosed in cases, or otherwise; prunes; raisins; scagliola tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; segars, snuff, paper segars, and all other manufactures of tobacco; wines, Burgundy, champagne, claret, Madeira, port, sherry, and all other wines and imitations of wines.

SCHEDULE C.

Argentine, alabatta, or German silver, manufactured or unmanufactured; ale, beer, and porter in casks or bottles; articles embroidered with gold, silver, or other metal; articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, made up, or made wholly or in part, by hand; asses' skins; balsams, cosmetics, essences, extracts, pastes, perfumes, and tinctures, used either for the toilet, or for medicinal purposes; baskets, and all other articles composed of grass, osier, palmleaf, straw, whalebone, or willow, not otherwise provided for; bay rum; beads, of amber, composition, or wax, and all other beads; benzoates; bologna sausages; bracelets, braids, chains, curls, or ringlets composed of hair, or of which hair is a component part; braces, suspenders, webbing, or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India rubber, not otherwise provided for; brooms and brushes of all kinds; cameos, real and imitation, and mosaics, real and imitation, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; canes and sticks for walking, finished or unfinished; capers, pickles, and sauces of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; corks; earthen, China, and stone-ware, and all other wares composed of earthy and mineral substances not otherwise provided for; fire crackers; flats, braids, plaits, sparteere, and willow squares, used for making hats or bonnets; glass tumblers, plain, moulded, or pressed, not cut or printed; hats and bonnets for men, women, and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip grass, palm leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for; caps, hats, muffs, and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material; caps, gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for; card cases, pocket books, shell boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles, of whatever material composed; carpets, carpeting, hearth-rugs, bedsides, and other portions of carpeting, being either of Aubusson, Brussels; ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric; carriages and parts of carriages; cay-

parts of acts repag-
herely repealed.

materials; cordials,
marashino, ratafia,
er.

ardines, and all other
composition tops for
ats, or fruit preserv-
s; ginger root, dried
r wood, granadilla,
megs; pimento; pre-
nclosed in cases, or
, or other articles of
manufactures of tobac-
port, sherry, and all

d or unmanufactured;
broidered with gold,
or children, of what-
or in part, by hand;
pastes, perfumes, and
all purposes; baskets,
af, straw, whalebone,
ads, of amber, com-
bologna sausages;
of hair, or of which
ng, or other fabrics,
erwise provided for;
tation, and mosaics,
er metal; canes and
ickles, and sauces of
n, China, and stone-
neral substances not
plaits, sparteere, and
lass tumblers, plain,
onnets for men, wo-
chip grass, palm leaf,
whalebone, or other
s, and tippets of fur,
hall be a component
ngs, wove shirts and
by men, women, or
pocket books, shell
material composed;
ortions of carpeting,
y, Turkey, Venetian,
ts of carriages; cay-

enne pepper; cheese; cinnamon; clocks and parts of clocks; clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, sempstress, or manufacturer; coach and harness furniture of all kinds; coal; coke and culm of coal; combs of all kinds; compositions of glass or paste, when set; confectionary of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; coral, cut or manufactured; cotton cords, gimps, and gallons; court-plaster; crayons of all kinds; cutlery of all kinds; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; dolls and toys of all kinds; epaulets, galloons, laces, knots, stars, tassels, tresses, and wings of gold, silver, or other metal; fans, and fire screens of every description, of whatever material composed; feathers and flowers, artificial or ornamental, and parts thereof, of whatever material composed; frames and sticks for umbrellas, parasols, and sunshades, finished or unfinished; furniture, cabinet and household; ginger, ground; grapes; gum benzoin or benjamin; hair pencils; hat bodies of cotton; hemp, unmanufactured; honey; human hair, cleansed or prepared for use; ink and ink powder; iron, in bars, blooms, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for; castings of iron; old or scrap iron; vessels of cast iron; japaned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; jewelry, real or imitation; jet and manufactures of jet, and imitations thereof; lead pencils; maccaroni, vermicelli, gelatine, jellies, and all similar preparations; manufactures of the bark of the cork tree, except corks; manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, or vegetable ivory; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin, or other metal, or of which either of those metals or any other metal shall be the component material of chief value; manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool, or worsted, if embroidered or tamboured in the loom or otherwise, by machinery, or with the needle, or other process; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares of glass, or of which glass shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; colored, stained, or painted glass; glass crystals for watches; glasses or pebbles for spectacles; paintings on glass, porcelain glass; manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for; manufactures and articles of marble, marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs or blocks in the rough; manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures, articles, and wares of papier mache; manufactures of wood, or of which wood is a component part, not otherwise provided part; manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for; medicinal preparations, not otherwise provided for; metallic pens; mineral waters; molasses; muskets, rifles, and other fire-arms; nuts, not otherwise provided for; oil-cloth of every description, of whatever material composed; ochres and ochry earths used in the composition of painter's colors, whether dry or ground in oil; oils, volatile, essential, or expressed, and not otherwise provided for; olive oil, in casks, other than salad oil; olive salad oil, and all other olive oil, not otherwise provided for; olives; paper, antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial, letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for; paper boxes, and all other fancy boxes; paper envelopes; parasols and sunshades; parchment; pepper; plated and gilt ware

of all kinds; playing cards; plums; potatoes; red chalk pencils; saddlery of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; salmon, preserved; sewing silk, in the gum or purified; shoes composed wholly of India rubber; sealing wax; silk twist and twist composed of silk and mohair; side-arms of every description; silver-plated metal, in sheets or other form; soap, Castile, perfumed, Windsor, and all other kinds; sugar of all kinds; tobacco, unmanufactured; syrup of sugar; twines and pack thread, of whatever material composed; umbrellas; vellum; vinegar; wafers; water colors; fire-wood, and wood unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; wool, unmanufactured.

SCHEDULE D.

Buttons and button moulds, of all kinds; borax or tinctal; Burgundy pitch; calomel, and all other mercurial preparations; camphor, crude; feather beds, feathers for beds, and downs of all kinds; floss silks; grass cloth; hair cloth, hair seating, and all other manufactures of hair not otherwise provided for; jute, Sisal grass, coir, and other vegetable substances unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; baizes, bockings, flannels, and floor-cloths, of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for; cables and cordage, tarred or untarred; cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids; manufactures composed wholly of cotton, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of goat's hair or mohair, or of which goat's hair or mohair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; matting, Chinese, and other floor matting and mats made of flags, jute, or grass; manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; roofing slates, slates, other than roofing slates; woollen and worsted yarn.

SCHEDULE E.

Acids, acetic, acetous benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow, nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for; aloes; Angora, Thibet, and other goat's-hair or mohair unmanufactured; cedar wood, ebony, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satin wood, unmanufactured; cream of tartar; extract of indigo; extracts and decoctions of logwood and other dye-woods not otherwise provided for; extracts of madder; flax seed; green turtle; gunny cloth; alum; amber; ambergris; anisseed; animal carbon; antimony; crude and regulus of; arrow root; articles, not in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for; assa-fœtida; bacon; bananas; barley; beef; beeswax; berries, vegetables, flowers and barks, not otherwise provided for; bismuth; bitter apples; blankets of all kinds; blank books, bound or unbound; blue or Roman vitriol, or sulphate of copper; boards, planks, staves, lath, scantling, spars, hewn and sawed timber, and timber to be used in building wharves; bronze liquor; iron liquor; lac spirits; manna; marble in the rough slab or block, unmanufactured; Dutch and bronze metal in leaf; needles of all kinds for sewing, darning, or knitting; ozier or willow prepared for basket-makers' use; paving stones; paving and roofing tiles and bricks; boucho leaves; breccia; bronze powder; butter; cadmium; calamine; cantharides; caps, gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and

pencils; saddlery of
 red; sewing silk, in
 India rubber; sealing
 wicker; side-arms of
 other form; soap, Cas-
 of all kinds; tobacco,
 thread, of whatever
 colors; water colors;
 provided for; wool,

or tinctal; Burgundy
 resins; camphor, crude;
 resins; floss silks; grass
 manufactures of hair not
 of other vegetable sub-
 stance; baizes, hockings,
 composed, not otherwise
 provided for; cotton laces, cotton
 braids; manufactures
 of hair shall be a compo-
 nent; Chinese, and other
 manufactures of silk,
 not otherwise provided
 for shall be a component
 material; slates, other than

citric, muriatic, white
 and other acids of every
 kind for manufacturing,
 except; Angora, Thibet,
 cedar wood, ebony,
 unmanufactured; cream
 of logwood and other
 of madder; flax seed;
 iris; anisseed; animal
 pot; articles, not in a
 list provided for; assa-
 foetida berries, vegetables,
 smuth; bitter apples;
 ground; blue or Roman
 laces, lath, scantling,
 used in building wharves;
 marble in the rough slab
 in leaf; needles of all
 sizes prepared for bas-
 ing tiles and bricks;
 cadmium; calamine;
 castles, wove shirts and

drawers, made on frames, composed wholly of cotton, worn by men,
 women, and children; cassia buds; castor oil; castorum; chocolate;
 chromate of lead; chromate, dichromate, hydriodate, and prussiate of pot-
 ash; cobalt; cocoa nuts; cocculus indicus; coppers or green vitriol, or
 sulphate of iron; copper rods, bolts, nails, and spikes; copper bottoms;
 plaster of Paris when ground; quicksilver; saffron and saffron cake;
 seppia; steel, all than otherwise provided for; copper in sheets or plates,
 called braziers' copper, and other sheets of copper not otherwise provided
 for; cubebs; dried pulp; emery; ether; felspar; fig blue; fish, foreign,
 whether fresh, smoked, salted, dried, or pickled, not otherwise provided
 for; fish glue or isinglass; fish skins; flour of sulphur; Frankfort black;
 French chalk; fruit, green or ripe, not otherwise provided for; fulmi-
 nates, or fulminating powders; furs dressed on the skin; gamboge; glue;
 gunpowder; hair, curled, moss, sea-weed, and all other vegetable sub-
 stances used for beds or mattresses; hams; hats of wool; hat bodies,
 made of wool, or of which wool shall be a component material of chief
 value; hatters' plush, composed of silk and cotton, but of which cotton is
 the component material of chief value; hemp seed or linseed, and rape-
 seed oil, and all other oils used in painting; Indian corn and corn meal;
 ipecacuanha; iridium; iris or orris root; ivory or bone black; jalap;
 juniper berries; lac sulphur, lump black; lard; leather, tanned, bend, or
 sole; leather, upper of all kinds; lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets; leaden
 pipes; leaden shot; leeches; limestones of all kinds; liquorice paste, juice,
 or root; litharge; malt; manganese; manufactures of flax, not otherwise
 provided for; manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for; marine
 coral, unmanufactured; medicinal drugs, roots, and leaves, in a crude state,
 not otherwise provided for; metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise pro-
 vided for; mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not other-
 wise provided for; musical instruments of all kinds, and strings for mu-
 sical instruments of whip gut or cutgut, and all other strings of the same
 material; nitrate of lead; oats and oatmeal; oils, neatfoot and other ani-
 mal oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish oil, the produce of foreign fish-
 eries; opium; oranges, lemons, and limes; orange and lemon peel; patent
 mordant; paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for; paper
 hangings and paper for screens or fireboards; pearl or hulled barley;
 periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in
 the United States; pine apples; pitch; plantains; plumbago; pork; po-
 tassium; Prussian blue; pumpkins; putty; quills; red chalk; rhubarb;
 rice or paddy; roll brimstone; Roman cement; rye and rye flour; sad-
 dlery, common, tanned, or japanned; sago; sal soda, and all carbonates of
 soda, by whatever names designated, not otherwise provided for; salts,
 Epsom, glauber, Rochelle, and all other salts and preparations of salts, not
 otherwise provided for; sarsaparilla; shuddocks; sheathing paper;
 skins, tanned and dressed, of all kinds; skins of all kinds, not otherwise
 provided for; slate pencils; smalts; spermaceti candles and tapers;
 spirits of turpentine; sponges; spunk; squills; starch; stearine candles
 and tapers; stereotype plates; still bottoms; sulphate of barytes, crude
 or refined; sulphate of quinine; tallow candles; tapioca; tar; thread
 laces and insertings; type metal; types, new or old; vanilla beans; ver-
 digris; velvet, in the piece, composed wholly of cotton; velvet, in the
 piece, composed of cotton and silk, but of which cotton is the component
 material of chief value; vermilion; wax candles and tapers; whalebone
 the produce of foreign fisheries; wheat and wheat flour; white and red

lead; whiting, or Paris white; white vitriol, or sulphate of zinc; window glass, broad, crown, or cylinder, woollen listings, yams.

SCHEDULE F.

Arsenic bark, Peruvian; bark Quilla; Brazil paste, brimstone, crude iron bulk; cork tree bark, unmanufactured; codilla, or tow of hemp or flax, diamonds, glaziers, set or not set; dragons blood; flax, unmanufactured, gold and silver leaf; mineral kermes; silk, raw, not more advanced in manufacture than singles tram and thrown or organzine; terne tin plates tin foil; tin in plates or sheets; tin plates galvanised, not otherwise provided for; steel in bars; cast, shear, or German; zinc, spelter, or tutene-gue, in sheets.

SCHEDULE G.

Ammonia; anatto, rancon or Orleans; barilla; books printed, magazines, pamphlets, periodicals and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for; bleaching powders or chloride of lime; building stones; burr stones, wrought or unwrought, cameos and mosaics, and imitations thereof, not set; chronometers, box or ships, and parts thereof; cocoa, cochineal; cocoa shells, compositions of glass or paste, not set; cudbear; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations thereof, when not set; engravings or plates, bound or unbound; hempsed, linseed and rapeseed, fullers' earth; furs, haters', dressed or undressed, not on the skin; furs, undressed when on the skin; goldbeaters' skins; gum Arabic; gum Senegal; gum Tragacanth; gum Barbary; gum East India; gum Jedda; gum substitute or burnt starch; indigo; kelp; natron; terra japonica or catechu; hair of all kinds, unclean and unmanufactured; India rubber, in bottles, slabs or sheets, unmanufactured; lemon and lime juice; lime; maps and charts; music and music paper, with lines, bound or unbound; rux vomica; oils, palm and cocoanut; orpiment; palm leaf, unmanufactured; polishing stones; pumice and pumice stone; rattans and reeds, unmanufactured; rotten stone; sal ammonia; salt-petre, (or nitrate of soda, or potash,) refined or partially refined; soda ash, sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol; tallow, marrow, and all other grease and soap stocks and soap stuffs, not otherwise provided for; watches and parts of watches; watch materials of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; woad or pastel.

SCHEDULE H.

Alcornoque, argol, or crude tartar; bells when old, or bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured; brass in pigs or bars; Brazil wood, and all other dye-woods in sticks; brass, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; bristles; chalk, not otherwise provided for; clay, unwrought; copper in pigs or bars; copper, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; flints; grindstones, wrought or unwrought; berries, nuts, and vegetables used exclusively in dyeing, or in composing dyes, but no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture; ivory, unmanufactured; ivory nuts, or vegetable ivory; madder root; nutgalls, pearl, mother of; lastings, suitable for shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons, exclusively; manufactures of mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufactures of cloth, suitable for the manufacture of shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons exclusively; horns, horn-tips, bones, bone-tips, and teeth, unmanufactured;

kermes; lac dye; lac spirits; madder, ground; nickel; pewter, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; rags, of whatever material; raw hides and skins of all kinds, whether dried, salted, or pickled, not otherwise provided for; safflower; saltpetre, or nitrate of soda, or potash, when crude; seed-lac; shellac; sumac; tin in pigs, bars or blocks; tortois and other shells unmanufactured; tumeric; waste, or shoddy; weld; zinc, spelter, or teutenege, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for.

SCHEDULE I.

Animals imported for breed; bullion, gold and silver; cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities; coffee and tea when imported direct from the place of their growth or production, in American vessels, or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage, and other charges; coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands in the same manner; coins, gold, silver and copper; copper ore; copper when imported for the United States Mint; cotton; felt, adhesive, for sheathing; garden seeds, and all other seeds not otherwise provided for; goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce or manufacture of the United States exported to a foreign country, and brought back to the United States in the same condition as when exported, upon which no drawback or bounty has been allowed: *Provided*, that all the regulations to ascertain the identity thereof, prescribed by existing laws, or which may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be complied with; guano; household effects, old and in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them, and not intended for any other person or persons, or for sale; junk, old; models of inventions and other improvement in the arts; *Provided*, That no article or articles shall be deemed a model or improvement which can be fitted for use; oakum; oil, spermaciti, whale and other fish, of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of such fisheries; paintings and statuary, the production of American artists residing abroad, and all other paintings and statuary: *Provided*, The same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not of merchandise; personal household effects (not merchandise) of citizens of the United States dying abroad; plaster of Paris, unground platina, unmanufactured; sheathing copper, but no copper to be considered such, and admitted free, except in sheets forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide, and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces the square foot; sheathing metal; specimens of natural history, mineralogy, or botany; trees, shrubs, bulbs, plants, and roots, not otherwise provided for; wearing apparel in actual use, and other personal effects, not merchandise, professional books, instruments, implements, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, of persons arriving in the United States; *Provided*, That this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment or for sale.

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THE WAREHOUSING BILL.

A BILL TO AMEND AN ACT ENTITLED "AN ACT TO PROVIDE REVENUE FROM IMPORTS, AND TO CHANGE AND MODIFY EXISTING LAWS IMPOSING DUTIES ON IMPORTS, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES."

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the twelfth section of the act entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved the thirtieth day of August, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two, is hereby amended so as hereafter to read as follows:—[Sec. 12] *And be it further enacted,* That, on and after the day this act goes into operation, the duties on all imported goods, wares, or merchandise shall be paid in cash: *Provided,* That in all cases of failure or neglect to pay the duties within the period allowed by law to the importer to make entry thereof, or whenever the owner, importer, or consignee shall make entry for warehousing the same in writing, in such form and supported by such proof as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, the said goods, wares, or merchandise shall be taken possession of by the collector, and deposited in the public stores, or in other stores to be agreed on by the collector or chief revenue officer of the port and the importer, owner, or consignee, the said stores to be secured in the manner provided for by the first section of the act of the twentieth day of April, one thousand eight hundred and eighteen, entitled "An act providing for the deposit of wines and distilled spirits in public warehouses, and for other purposes," there to be kept with due and reasonable care, at the charge and risk of the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and subject at all times to their order upon the payment of the proper duties and expenses, to be ascertained on due entry for warehousing thereof, and to be secured by a bond of the owner, importer or consignee, with surety or sureties to the satisfaction of the Collector, in double the amount of the said duties, and in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe: *Provided,* That no merchandise shall be withdrawn from any warehouse in which it may be deposited, in less quantity than in an entire package, bale, cask, or box, unless in bulk; nor shall merchandise so imported in bulk, be delivered except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than one ton weight, unless by special authority of the Secretary of the Treasury. And in case the owner, importer, consignee, or agent of any goods on which the duties have not been paid, shall give to the collector satisfactory security that the said goods shall be landed out of the jurisdiction of the United States, in the manner now required by existing laws relating to exportations for the benefit of drawback, the collector and naval officer, if any, on an entry to re-export the same, shall, upon payment of the appropriate expenses, permit the said goods, under the inspection of the proper officers, to be shipped without the payment of any duties thereon. And in case any goods, wares, or merchandise, deposited as aforesaid, shall remain in public store beyond one year, without payment of the duties and charges thereon, then said goods, wares, or merchandise shall be appraised by the appraisers of the United States, if there be any at such port, and if none, then by two merchants to be designated and sworn by the collector for that purpose, and sold by the collector at public auction, on due public notice thereof being first given, in the manner and for the time to be prescribed by a general regulation of the Treasury Department; and at said public sale distinct printed catalogues descriptive of said goods, with the appraised value affixed thereto, shall be distributed among the persons present at said sale; and a reasonable opportunity shall be given before such sale, to persons desirous of purchasing, to inspect the quality of such goods; and the proceeds of said sales, after deducting the usual rate of storage at the port in question, with all other charges and expenses, including duties, shall be paid over to the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and proper receipts taken for the same: *Provided,* That the overplus, if any there be, of the proceeds of such sales, after the payment of storage, charges, expenses, and duties as aforesaid, remaining unclaimed for the space of ten days after such sales, shall be paid by the collector into the treasury of the United States; and the said collector shall transmit to the Treasury Department, with the said over-

**CIRCULAR TO THE COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE
CUSTOMS, IN RELATION TO THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.**

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Aug. 14, 1846.

The following instructions and forms are transmitted for the information and government of the officers of the customs in carrying into effect the provisions of the annexed Act of Congress, approved 6th August, 1846, entitled "An Act to establish a warehousing system, and to amend 'An Act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes.'" Approved 30th August, 1842.

It is to be remarked, that goods, wares, or merchandise entitled to entry for warehousing, are such only as shall have been actually imported after the passage of the Act "reducing the duty on imports and for other purposes," approved 30th July, 1846, vide 6th section. All goods, wares, or merchandise, imported prior to 30th July, 1846, yet on deposit in public store, the duties on which have not been paid, are subject to the payment of the duty and charges imposed by the Tariff Act of 30th August, 1842.

Where owners, importers, consignees, or agents desire to warehouse their goods, due entry in writing must be made in each case, according to the form accompanying these instructions, marked A, and a bond taken with surety or sureties to the satisfaction of the collector, in double the amount of the dues, according to form marked B.

In making entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise to be warehoused, all acts necessary to determine their exact quantity, quality, and original cost, and dutiable value, such as appraising, weighing, gauging or measuring, in order to ascertain the precise amount of duty chargeable on the importation, must be performed and complied with.

Any goods, wares, or merchandise, proposed to be withdrawn from warehouse for home consumption, prior to the second day of December next, the day on which the new rate of duties take effect under the Act of 30th July last, must be entered, and the duties, with interest and other charges imposed by the Act of 30th August, 1842, must be duly paid before granting permit for the delivery of any such goods, wares, or merchandise. Due regard must be paid to these strictions imposed in the Act, in the withdrawal of merchandise from warehouse, to wit: in no case "a less quantity than an entire package, bale, cask, or box," or if in bulk, then only "the whole quantity of each parcel, or a quantity not less than one ton weight, unless by the special authority of the Secretary of the Treasury," can be withdrawn and delivered.

Where it is intended to withdraw any goods, wares, or merchandise, from warehouse for transportation to any other port of entry to be re-warehoused thereat, in pursuance of the second section of the Act of 6th August, to establish a warehousing system, twenty-four hours' notice at least must be given to the collector of such intention, and entry be made according to form C, and the transportation is to be made under the regulations provided in the act of 2d March, 1799, in respect to the transportation of goods, wares and merchandise, from one collection district to another, to be exported with the benefit of drawback. Hence goods may be transported from any port of entry to any other port of entry in the United States, subject to the regulations prescribed by the before-mentioned Act.

On making a transportation entry, a bond must be given by the owner of the merchandise to be withdrawn for transportation, with sufficient sureties in double the amount of the duties chargeable thereon, according to form herewith marked B; which bond is to be cancelled on production of a certificate, duly authenticated, from the collector of the port to which the goods may be transported, certifying that the identical goods, stated in the transportation certificate, have been duly entered and re-warehoused in public store, in his collection district, and bond given for the duties.

On the withdrawal of any such goods from warehouse at any port, the storage and other charges that may have accrued thereon must be duly paid. On re-deposit or re-warehousing of any transported goods as aforesaid, due entry must be made and bonds taken in the forms herewith marked E and F.

For the purpose of distinguishing goods which may have paid duty under the new Tariff Act, which goes into operation on the second day of December next, that may be withdrawn for consumption after said day, and entitled to drawback, if exported within the time prescribed by law, from other imports on which duty was paid under the Tariff Act of 30th August, 1842, it became proper that suitable marks should be placed on all goods that may be withdrawn as aforesaid, to identify the same, so as to prevent mistake or imposition in the allowance of drawback.

Goods, wares, or merchandise entered for warehousing must be conveyed from the vessel, or wharf, where landed, to the warehouse, under the special superintendance of an inspector of the customs, in drays, carts, or other usual mode of conveyance, to be employed on public account, by the proper officer of the customs, and the expense at

**OFFICERS OF THE
USING SYSTEM.**

MENT, Aug. 14, 1846.
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the rates usually paid for such service at the port in question, is to be defrayed at the time by the person who enters said goods, wares, or merchandise, for warehousing. In case where goods, wares, or merchandise imported after the passage of the Act of the 30th July, 1846, are intended to be exported directly from warehouse to a foreign country, entry must be made according to form herewith marked G, and bond given, according to form H, and such exportation be otherwise made in the manner now required by existing laws, relating to exportations for the benefit of drawback. In all such cases the appropriate expenses are to be paid before granting permit for exportation.

All stores used for warehousing purposes are to be rented by the collector on public account, and paid for as such, and appropriated exclusively to the storage of foreign merchandise, which is to be subject to the usual rates of storage existing at the respective ports where such stores may be hired or rented. Appropriate warehouses must be provided for goods of a perishable nature, as well as for gun-powder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances, having due respect to existing municipal regulations.

For warehousing of coal, woods of various kinds, &c.—Yards well enclosed and secured to the satisfaction of the collector, may be hired or rented and the usual rates for storage are to be charged on all articles deposited therein. Care must be observed by collectors in renting stores to select those of a substantial and secure character, and fire-proof where they can be obtained, and the rents stipulated for must be as reasonable as can be procured. Before entering into any lease of stores, the opinion and approval of the Department must first be obtained.

Where any goods, duly warehoused, shall remain in store beyond one year, without payment of the duties and charges thereon, which in pursuance of the Act are required to be appraised and sold, the department hereby prescribes that all such sales shall take place within thirty days after the expiration of the year, and due notice of such sales must be published in two or more of the public newspapers having the most extensive circulation at the port in question, daily at the principal ports for the space of ten days, and at the other ports three times a week, or as often as one or more papers may be published thereat, for the space of two weeks. But as the law provides that "all goods of a perishable nature, and all gun-powder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances deposited as aforesaid, shall be sold forthwith," they must be sold at the earliest day practicable, after due publication of notice, and time given for inspection by persons desirous of purchasing the same.

The quarterly returns required by the 4th section of the Act will be made according to the form herein marked I.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

AN ACT,

FOR

THE ALLOWANCE OF DRAWBACK ON FOREIGN MERCHANDISE,

Imported into certain districts of the United States,

FROM

THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES

And exported to Foreign Countries

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That any merchandise imported from the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States, which shall have been duly entered and the duties thereon paid or secured, according to law, at either of the ports of entry in the collection districts situated in the northern, north-eastern, and north-western portions of the United States, may be transported by land or by water, or partly by land and partly by water, to any port or ports from which merchandise may, under existing laws, be exported for the benefit of drawback, and be thence exported with such privilege to any foreign country: *Provided*, That such exportations shall be made within one year from the date of importation of said merchandise, and that existing laws relating to the transportation of merchandise entitled to drawback from one district to another, or to two other districts, and the due exportation and proof of landing thereof, and all regulations which the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe for the security of the revenue shall be complied with.

Approved August 8th, 1846.

AN ACT TO EXEMPT CANAL BOATS FROM THE PAYMENT OF FEES AND HOSPITAL MONEY.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the owner or owners, master or captain, or other persons employed in navigating canal boats without masts or steam power, now by law required to be registered, licensed, or enrolled and licensed, shall not be required to pay any marine hospital tax or money; nor shall the persons employed to navigate such boats receive any benefit or advantage from the marine hospital fund; nor shall such owner or owners, master or captain, or other persons be required to pay fees, or make any compensation for such register, license, or enrollment and license, nor shall any such boat be subject to be libelled in any of the United States courts for the wages of any person or persons who may be employed on board thereof, or in navigating the same.

Sec 2. And be it further enacted, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this Act, be and the same are hereby repealed.

Approved, August, 1846.

CIRCULAR TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS IN RELATION TO DRAWBACK.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 9th, 1846.

I have to call the attention of the officers of the customs generally, and more particularly those of certain mentioned districts on the frontiers of the United States, to the provisions of the annexed Act of Congress, approved the 8th of August, 1846, "For the allowance of drawback on foreign merchandise imported into certain districts of the United States, from the British North American provinces, and exported to foreign countries."

It is to be observed that the Act allows drawback on any merchandise imported from the British North American provinces adjoining the United States, which shall have been duly entered and the duties paid or secured according to law, at either of the ports of entry in the collection districts situated in the northern, north-eastern, and north-western portions of the United States, and authorizes such merchandise to be transported by land or by water, or partly by land and partly by water, to any port or ports from which merchandise may, under existing laws, be exported for the benefit of drawback, and be thence exported with such privileges to any foreign country. All such goods are, however, required to be exported within one year from the date of importation.—

Where goods are entered and the duties paid at the port of arrival on the frontiers referred to, and intended to be transported for exportation from another port, such transportation must be made in conformity with existing laws regulating the transportation of merchandise for benefit of drawback. In granting drawback in these cases, a deduction of 2 1-2 per cent. must be made from the drawback.

It is moreover to be observed, that any dutiable merchandise imported into the ports referred to, from the adjoining British provinces, is entitled to all the privileges and benefits granted by the warehousing act of the 6th of August, 1846, if the importers choose to avail themselves of said privileges and benefits. Consequently any such merchandise not entered for consumption, may be warehoused at either of the said ports, and be subsequently withdrawn therefrom for transportation to other ports of entry, to be re-warehoused thereat, and be exported *directly* from such warehouse to any foreign port on payment only of storage and expenses. In all such cases, therefore, the regulations and forms prescribed in the Circular issued by the department under date of the 11th ult., for the government of the officers of the customs, in carrying into effect the Warehousing Act, must be strictly complied with.

Any articles of merchandise subject to ad valorem duty imported into the frontier ports before referred to, which are not of the growth, manufacture, or production of the British provinces alluded to in the act, must pay duty upon "the current market value or wholesale price of similar articles at the principal markets of the country of production or manufacture at the period of the exportation of said goods, wares, and merchandise, to the United States." To this value is to be added all costs and charges, except insurance, and including, in every case, a charge for commissions at the usual rates.

For the appraisement of merchandise at ports where there are not legal appraisers, the appraisement is to be made in the manner indicated in the 16th section of the Act of 1st March, 1823, to wit: by two respectable resident merchants of the port, duly appointed by the collector for the purpose, to receive for their services while actually employed on that duty, a compensation of five dollars per diem, each, as authorized by the 17th section of the same Act.

It is specially enjoined upon the officers of the customs at ports to which merchandise may be transported under this Act, either for exportation therefrom to a foreign port for benefit of drawback, or to be re-warehoused thereat, and especially in the case of foreign spirits and wines, to have such merchandise carefully inspected and examined, to ascertain that the packages, boxes, casks, &c., contain the identical articles described in the transportation certificate accompanying the same, without diminution or change of the article in any respect having taken place during the transportation.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

AN ACT,
ALLOWING DRAWBACK UPON FOREIGN MERCHANDISE,
EXPORTED IN THE ORIGINAL PACKAGES
To Chihuahua and Santa Fe, in Mexico,
AND
TO THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES, ADJOINING THE
UNITED STATES.

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fé, in New Mexico, either by the route of the Arkansas river, through Van Buren, or by the route of the Red river through Fulton, or by the route of the Missouri river through Independence.

Sec. 2. And be it further enacted, That all the merchandise so exported shall be in the original packages as imported, a true invoice whereof, signed by the exporter, shall be made, to the satisfaction of the collector, describing accurately each package with its contents and all the marks upon it, exclusive of the name of the exporter, the place of destination, and the route by which it is to be exported; all which shall be inscribed thereon, upon which invoice the collector shall certify that he is fully convinced the same is true, that the goods are in the original packages as imported, that they are duly entered for drawback, and be exported by the owner, (naming him), to either of the places aforesaid, (naming it,) and by one of the aforesaid routes, (naming it.)

Sec. 3. And be it further enacted, That upon the arrival of such goods at either of the places in Arkansas or Missouri above named, they shall be again inspected and compared with the invoice and certificate aforesaid, by an officer of the United States, who shall, if fully convinced that the several packages are identical, having remained unbroken and unchanged, also certify on said invoice the facts, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe.

Sec. 4. And be it further enacted, That upon the arrival of any such goods at Santa Fé or Chihuahua, they, with the invoice and certificates aforesaid, shall be submitted to the inspection of the Consul of the United States, or such agent as the President may appoint for that purpose; who, if fully convinced thereof, shall, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, certify upon said invoice that the goods have arrived there in the original packages as imported, without change or alteration, and have been exported from the United States in good faith, to be disposed of and consumed in a foreign country.

Sec. 5. And be it further enacted, That if the exporter shall give bond, with satisfactory securities, in thrice the amount of duties, that the said merchandise by him exported has been delivered at either of the places aforesaid without the United States, in good faith, to be sold and consumed there, and shall also produce said invoice, with the regular certificates thereon, the collector shall thereupon pay to him the usual drawback allowed by law.

Sec. 6. And be it further enacted, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint inspectors to reside at each of the following places, to wit: Van Buren, Fulton, and Independence, above named, or such other place in Missouri as the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate; who shall each have a salary of two hundred and fifty dollars, and make a full report of all the trade that passes under their inspection, to the Secretary of the Treasury, semi-annually, giving an account of the number of packages, the kind of goods, the value, and the names of the exporters.

Sec. 7. And be it further enacted, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburg, in the District of Champlain; Burlington, in the District of Vermont;

Sacketts Harbor, Oswego, and Ogdensburgh, in the District of Oswegatchie; Rochester, in the District of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the District of Presqu'isle; Cleveland, in the District of Cuyahoga; Sandusky and Detroit, together with such ports on the seaboard from which merchandise may now be imported, for the benefit of drawback are hereby declared ports from which foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports, foreign goods, wares, and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback; *Provided*, That such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American Provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties upon goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this Act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this Act, they shall produce to the collector of the port from which such goods, wares and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares, and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining provinces; which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the said manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom-house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest, granted at the time of such exportation, had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom-house, and that the duties imposed thereon, at the said foreign port, had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That no goods, wares or merchandise, exported according to the provisions of this Act shall be voluntary landed or brought into the United States; and on being so landed, or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited; and the same proceeding shall be had for their condemnation, and the distribution of the proceeds of their sales, as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported. And every person concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States shall be liable to a penalty of four hundred dollars.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That from the amount of duties upon any goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, and which shall be exported according to the provisions of this Act, there shall be deducted two and a half per centum of such amount, which shall be retained by the respective collectors for the United States, and the residue only shall be the drawback to be paid to the exporter of such goods wares and merchandise.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby further authorized to prescribe such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as he may deem necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this Act, and to prevent the illegal re-importation of any goods, wares, or merchandise which shall have been exported as herein provided; and that all the Acts or parts of Acts inconsistent with the provisions of this Act be, and the same are, hereby repealed.

APPROVED, March 3d, 1845.

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS OF THE CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 10th, 1845.

Herewith you will receive an Act entitled "An act allowing drawback upon foreign merchandise exported in the original packages to Chihuahua and Santa Fé, in Mexico, and to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States," approved 3d March, 1845, accompanied with forms and instructions for carrying the same into execution.

The first six sections of the Act apply to the exportation of merchandise, "in the original packages as imported" to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fé, in New Mexico either by the route of the Arkansas River through Van Buren, or by the route of the

Red river through Fulton, or by the route of the Missouri River, through Independence. Consequently foreign imported merchandise exported or conveyed to the places in Mexico, or New Mexico, mentioned, by any other routes than those indicated in the Act, will not be entitled to a drawback of the import duties. It is also to be remarked that the exportation of merchandise by the routes and to the places before mentioned can only be made from the *original port of importation*.

In pursuance of the authority vested in the Secretary of the Treasury, by the 11th section of the Act, the following rules, regulations, and forms, are prescribed, and are to be strictly observed.

First. In regard to the exportation of merchandise to Chihuahua and Santa Fé.

On first giving twenty-four hours notice at the Custom-house, of intention to export, the exporter must make due entry, and for that purpose must produce the invoice required by the 2d section of the Act. Said entry must recite the invoice in detail, and in addition give a particular description of the merchandise, whence and by whom imported, the name of the vessel and the time of importation, with the original invoice value of the goods; and also state the destination and route by which the merchandise is to be transported. The entry must in all cases be verified by the oath or affirmation of the person making the same, together with the oath or affirmation of the first importer, with that of any person through whose hands the merchandise may have passed, declaring the same to be in the original package or packages, and that the duties have been paid or secured. Inspection of the packages should also be carefully made by a proper officer of the customs at the time of making entry. The bond required by the 5th section of the Act must be given by the exporter.

In consideration of the large inland transportation and the consequent risk of injury and defacing the marks on the packages, thereby rendering it difficult to identify them, it is deemed proper for the more effectual security of the revenue, to require that each package shall be enclosed in a secure wooden box or covering, on which the same marks and numbers are to be placed as those on the inner package. The inner package is to be secured with a strong cord or rope, with the Custom-house seal attached.

Second.—The remaining sections of the Act apply to the exportation of merchandise for benefit of drawback to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States, and enumerate certain ports, "declared ports from which foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, may be transported inland or by water, from the port of original importation under existing provisions of law to be thence exported for benefit of drawback."

The course to be pursued in the transportation inland of foreign merchandise in the original packages as imported, to the designated ports of exportation enumerated in the 7th section of the Act, is to be similar to that prescribed in the 79th section of the general collection Act of 2d March, 1799, and all the legal requirements and forms of law must be strictly pursued, in cases arising under this Act.

In the exportation by sea to ports in the adjoining British provinces, all existing requisitions of law, regulating the exportation of merchandise to foreign ports, for the benefit of drawback, must be fully complied with.

On the arrival of merchandise transported inland at either of the enumerated ports of exportation, a strict and thorough inspection of the same must be made by an officer of the customs, to see that the goods are identical with those described in the accompanying transportation certificate, granted by the collector of the port from whence they may have been originally transported.

In the event of any detention of the merchandise, at the port of exportation, for any cause, said merchandise must be deposited either in the custom-house, or some secure store-house, to be selected by the collector, the keys of which must be lodged in his hands. Any expense for storage must be defrayed by the owner or consignee of the goods. Before exporting the goods to their destined port in the adjoining British Provinces, entry must be made according to the forms herewith, marked E and F.

On the return of the manifest with the certificates thereon, in due form, to the collector of the port of exportation, it must be immediately transmitted to the collector of the district and port from whence the goods were originally transported, in order that the drawback of the duties may be duly paid by the collector of said port.

It is to be specially noted, that the law contemplating the probable retention of the original manifest at the foreign Custom-house, requires a *duplicate or certified copy* of the same to be granted at the time of exportation, on which is to be endorsed the certificate of the foreign collector, and also the oath or affirmation of the master.

R. J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury.

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THE CUSTOMS.

NT, April 10th, 1845.

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CIRCULAR TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, August 25th, 1846.

The Department has been asked by merchants whether foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, can be entered for exportation for benefit of drawback, and shipped to a foreign port and there landed, but with the intention of being brought back and *re-landed* in the United States, and entry made of the same goods at the rates of duty imposed by the Tariff Act of the 30th July, 1846.

As this subject has heretofore received the consideration and decision of the Department, and instructions duly issued in accordance therewith, it is deemed proper at this time to recapitulate former instructions, and enjoin upon the respective officers of the Customs, a strict conformity therewith.

In a circular issued by the First Comptroller, under date of the 15th of November, 1830, with the concurrence of the then Secretary of the Treasury, the following decision is communicated for the government of the officers of the Customs, viz: "It has been supposed by some merchants, that when the duty on a certain article is reduced by law, nothing more is necessary, in order to obtain the benefit of the reduction on previous importations of it, than merely to comply with the forms of entering and shipping it for the benefit of drawback, without any intention whatever of selling, or even landing it at a foreign port, and then bringing it back to the United States and entering it at the low rate of duty." "Such a course, however, is considered to be totally irreconcilable with the oath which the 76th section of the collection law of 2d March, 1799, requires the exporter to take, and which is in the following words: 'And the said exporter, or exporters, shall likewise make oath, that the said goods, so noticed for exportation, and laden on board such ship or vessel previous to the clearance thereof, or within ten days (twenty days allowed by the 2d section of the Act of 18th April, 1820), after such clearance, are truly intended to be exported to the place whereof notice shall have been given, and are not intended to be re-landed within the United States.'"

In a more recent Circular from the Department, dated the 20th of July, 1845, in reference to Texas, but deemed specially applicable to the question now under consideration, the views and directions of the Department are more specifically given in the following extracts therefrom, to wit:

"By the 80th section of the Act of Congress of the 2d of March, 1799, it is provided:— 'That the Collector aforesaid may refuse to grant such debenture or debentures, in case it shall appear to him that any error has arisen, or any fraud has been committed, and in case of such refusal, if the debenture or debentures claimed shall exceed one hundred dollars, it shall be the duty of the said Collector to represent the case to the Comptroller of the Treasury, who shall determine whether such debenture or debentures shall be granted or not.' An entry for drawback, with a view to re-importation, free of all duty, into the United States, is a fraud within the meaning of this Act; and in all such cases, it is the duty of the collector to refuse the debenture certificate. In all cases where the debenture shall not exceed one hundred dollars, the Collector will judge for himself, whether such fraud as is before designated is contemplated; and, in the language of the law, 'if the debenture or debentures claimed shall exceed one hundred dollars, it shall be the duty of the said Collector to represent the case to the Comptroller of the Treasury, who shall determine whether such debenture or debentures shall be granted or not.'

"By the 76th section of the Act of 2d March, 1799, it is provided as follows:— 'And the said exporter or exporters shall likewise make oath that the said goods, so noticed for exportation, and laden on board such ship or vessel, previous to the clearance thereof, or within ten days after such clearance, are truly intended to be exported to the place whereof notice shall have been given, and are not intended to be re-landed within the United States, otherwise, the said goods, wares and merchandise shall not be entitled to the benefit of drawback.'

"If, then, in point of fact, the goods thus exported to Texas, are intended 'to be re-landed within the United States,' they are not entitled to drawback, and if re-landed, are subject to seizure and forfeiture, as well as the vessel in which they are thus introduced.

"Great vigilance will be required in obtaining ample security upon all exported bonds, as those bonds may not be cancelled in any case of exportation of goods to Texas with the privilege of drawback, until the numerous and important questions arising under such bonds shall have been finally adjudicated.

"You will in no case omit to publish in the newspapers, as now required by law, the names of all persons who shall be found guilty of the violations of the revenue laws therein prescribed, as well as to seize for forfeiture the goods, vessel, tackle, apparel, and furniture in all such cases."

It must be obvious from the foregoing, that the oath prescribed by law, could not be taken by an exporter, and the goods so exported be *re-landed* into the United States without subjecting said exporter to the penalties prescribed for perjury, and the goods to forfeiture.

An entry for drawback, with a view to the re-importation of the goods at the lower rate, into the United States, is a fraud within the meaning of the 80th section before quoted, of the Act of March 2, 1799, and in all such cases, it is the duty of the collector to refuse the debenture certificate, or pursue the course indicated in the Circular before quoted, of the 29th July, 1845.

R. J. WALKER, Secretary of the Treasury.

OF CUSTOMS.

August 25th, 1816.
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THE SUB-TREASURY BILL.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE BETTER ORGANIZATION OF THE TREASURY, AND FOR THE COLLECTION, SAFE-KEEPING, TRANS- FER, AND DISBURSEMENT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE.

Whereas, by the fourth section of the act entitled "Act to establish the Treasury Department," approved September second, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that it should be the duty of the Treasurer to receive and keep the moneys of the United States, and to disburse the same upon warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury, countersigned by the Comptroller, and recorded by the Register, and not otherwise; and whereas it is found necessary to make further provisions to enable the Treasurer the better to carry into effect the intent of the said section, in relation to the receiving and disbursing the moneys of the United States: Therefore—

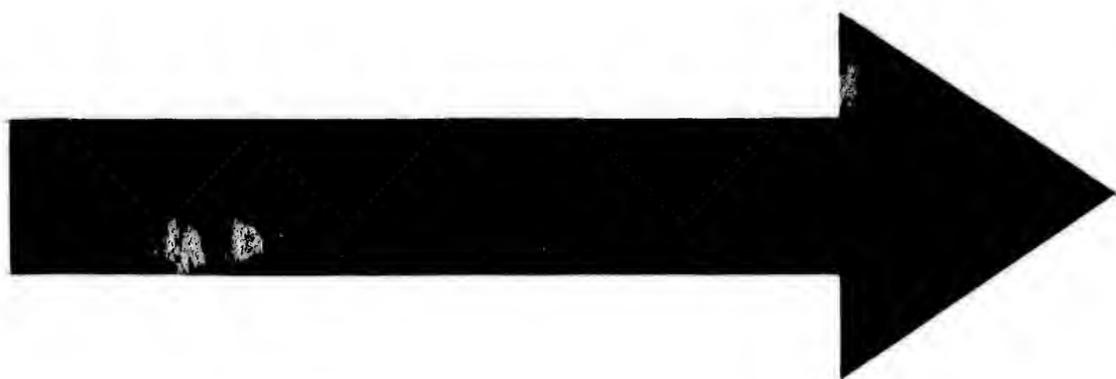
Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the rooms prepared and provided for the new treasury building at the seat of government for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, his assistants, and clerks, and occupied by them, and also the fire-proof vaults and safes erected in said rooms for the keeping of the public moneys in the possession, and under the immediate control of said Treasurer, and such other apartments as are provided for in this act as places of deposit of the public money, are hereby constituted, and declared to be, the treasury of the United States; and all moneys paid into the same shall be subject to the draft of the Treasurer, drawn agreeably to appropriations made by law.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That the mint of the United States, in the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, and the branch mint in the city of New Orleans, in the State of Louisiana, and the vaults and safes thereof, respectively, shall be places of deposit and safe-keeping of the public moneys at those points, respectively; and the treasurer of the said mint and branch mint, respectively, for the time being, shall be assistant treasurers under the provisions of this act, and shall have the custody and care of all public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursements of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That the rooms which were directed to be prepared and provided within the custom-houses in the city of New York, in the State of New York, and in the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, for the use of receivers general of public moneys, under the provisions of the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at those places, respectively; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes prepared and provided within said rooms for the keeping of the public moneys collected and deposited with them, respectively; and the assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those points, shall have the custody and care of the said rooms, vaults, and safes, respectively, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of all such moneys, according to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. And be it further enacted, That the offices, with suitable and convenient rooms, which were directed to be erected, prepared, and provided for the use of receivers general of public money, at the expense of the United States, at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina, and at the city of St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, under the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at the places above named; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes, erected within the said offices and rooms, for the keeping of the public money collected and deposited at those points, respectively; and the said assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those places, shall have the custody and care of the said offices, vaults, and safes, erected, prepared, and provided as aforesaid, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

SEC. 5. And be it further enacted, That the President shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint four officers, to be denominated "assistant treasurers of the United States," which said officers shall hold their respective offices for the term of four years, unless sooner removed therefrom; one of which shall



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be located at the city of New York, in the State of New York; one other of which shall be located at the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; one other of which shall be located at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina; and one other at St. Louis, in the State of Missouri. And all of which said officers shall give bonds to the United States, with sureties, according to the provisions hereinafter contained, for the faithful discharge of the duties of their respective offices.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurers, and those acting as such, of the various branch mints, all collectors of the customs, all surveyors of the customs acting also as collectors, all assistant treasurers, all receivers of public moneys at the several land offices, all post-masters, and all public officers of whatsoever character, be, and they are hereby, required to keep safely, without loaning, using, depositing in banks, or exchanging for other funds than as allowed by this act, all the public money collected by them, or otherwise, at any time, placed in their possession and custody, till the same is ordered, by the proper department or officer of the government, to be transferred or paid out; and when such orders for transfer or payment are received, faithfully and promptly to make the same as directed, and to do and perform all other duties as fiscal agents of the government which may be imposed by this or any other acts of Congress, or by any regulation of the Treasury Department made in conformity to law; and, also, to do and perform all acts and duties required by law, or by direction of any of the executive departments of the government, as agents for paying pensions, or for making any other disbursements, which either of the heads of those departments may be required by law to make, and which are of a character to be made by the depositaries hereby constituted, consistently with the other official duties imposed upon them.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans, and all the assistant treasurers hereinbefore directed to be appointed, shall respectively give bonds to the United States faithfully to discharge the duties of their respective offices according to law, and for such amounts as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, with sureties to the satisfaction of the Solicitor of the Treasury; and shall, from time to time, renew, strengthen, and increase their official bonds, as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct, any law in reference to any of the official bonds of any of the said officers to the contrary notwithstanding.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted,* That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, at as early a day as possible after the passage of this act, to require from the several depositaries hereby constituted, and whose official bonds are not hereinbefore provided for, to execute bonds, new and suitable in their terms, to meet the new and increased duties imposed upon them, respectively, by this act, and with sureties and in sums such as shall seem reasonable and safe to the Solicitor of the Treasury; and, from time to time, to require such bonds to be renewed and increased in amount, and strengthened by new sureties, to meet any increasing responsibility which may grow out of accumulations of money in the hands of the depositary, or out of any other duty or responsibility arising under this or any other law of Congress.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted,* That all collectors and receivers of public money, of every character and description, within the District of Columbia, shall, as frequently as they may be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury or the Postmaster-General, so to do, pay over to the Treasurer of the United States, at the treasury all public moneys collected by them or in their hands; that all such collectors, and receivers of public moneys within the cities of Philadelphia and New Orleans shall, upon the same direction pay over to the treasurers of the mints in their respective cities, at the said mints, all public moneys collected by them, or in their hands; and that all such collectors and receivers of public moneys within the cities of New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, shall, upon the same direction, pay over to the assistant treasurers in their respective cities, at their offices respectively, all the public moneys collected by them, or in their hands, to be safely kept by the said respective depositaries until otherwise disposed of according to law; and it shall be the duty of the said Secretary and Postmaster-General respectively to direct such payments by the said collectors and receivers at all the said places, at least as often as once in each week, and as much more frequently, in all cases, as they in their discretion may think proper.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted,* That it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the moneys in the hands of any depositary hereby constituted to the treasury of the United States to be there safely kept, to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, according to the provisions of this act; and, also, to transfer moneys in the hands of any one depositary constituted by this act to any other depositary constituted by the same, at his discretion, and as the safety of the public moneys and the convenience of the public service shall seem to him to require; which authority to transfer the moneys belonging to the Post Office Department is also hereby conferred upon the Postmaster General, so far as its exercise by him may be consistent with the provisions of existing laws; and every depositary constituted by this act shall keep his account of the money paid to or deposited with him, belonging to the Post Office De-

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the Solicitor of the Treas-
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bonds.

The duty of the Secretary of the
Treasury, by this act, to require from the
depositors that the bonds are not hereinbefore
required, to meet the new and
increased, and with sureties and in-
crease of the Treasury; and, in-
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out of any other duty
imposed.

Receivers of public money,
at Columbia, shall, as frequently
directed by the Postmaster-General,
at the treasury all public
deposits, collectors, and receivers of
public moneys shall, upon the same
respective cities, at the said
cities; and that all such collec-
tors at New York, Boston, Charleston,
and New Orleans, to the assistant treas-
urer, shall the public moneys col-
lected at said respective depositories
be the duty of the said Secre-
tary to receive payments by the said col-
lectors in each week, and as
soon as may think proper.

The duty of the Secretary of the
Treasury hereby constituted to
the credit of the Treasurer
of the United States; and, also, to transfer
the public moneys to any other depository
for the safety of the public moneys
to require; which authority
is also hereby conferred
may be consistent with the
duty by this act shall keep his
accounts and reports to the Post Office De-

partment, separate and distinct from the account kept by him of other public moneys so
paid or deposited. And for the purpose of payments on the public account, it shall be
lawful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositories,
as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of the
public creditors, or both. And each depository so drawn upon shall make returns to
the Treasury and Post Office Departments of all moneys received and paid by him, at
such time and in such form as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, or
the Postmaster General.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall be, and
he is hereby authorized to cause examinations to be made of the books, accounts, and
money on hand, of the several depositories constituted by this act; and for that purpose
to appoint special agents, as occasion may require, with such compensation, not exceed-
ing six dollars per day and travelling expenses, as he may think reasonable, to be fixed
and declared at the time of each appointment. The agents selected to make these
examinations shall be instructed to examine as well the books, accounts, and returns
of the officer, as the money on hand, and the manner of its being kept, to the end that
uniformity and accuracy in the accounts, as well as safety to the public moneys, may
be secured thereby.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the examinations provided
for in the last preceding section, and as a further guard over the public moneys, it shall
be the duty of each naval officer and surveyor, as a check upon the assistant treasurers,
or the collector of the customs, of their respective district; of each register of a land office,
as a check upon the receiver of his land office; and of the director and superintendent
of each mint and branch mint, when separate offices, as a check upon the treasurers,
respectively, of the said mints, or the persons acting as such, at the close of each quar-
ter of the year, and as much more frequently as they shall be directed by the Secretary
of the Treasury to do so, to examine the books, accounts, returns, and money on hand,
of the assistant treasurers, collectors, receivers of land offices, treasurers of the mint and
each branch mint, and persons acting as such, and to make a full, accurate, and
faithful return to the Treasury Department of their condition.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the said officers, respectively, whose duty it
is made, by this act, to receive, keep, and disburse the public moneys, as the fiscal
agents of the government, may be allowed any necessary additional expenses for clerks,
fire-proof chests, or vaults, or other necessary expenses of safe-keeping, transferring,
and disbursing said moneys; all such expenses of every character to be first expressly
authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury, whose directions upon all the above sub-
jects, by way of regulation and otherwise, so far as authorized by law, are to be strictly
followed by all the said officers: Provided, That the whole number of clerks, be
appointed by virtue of this section of this Act shall not exceed ten; and that the aggregate
compensations of the whole number shall not exceed eight thousand dollars, nor
shall the compensation of any one clerk, so appointed, exceed eight hundred dollars
per annum.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury may, at his
discretion, transfer the balances remaining with any of the present depositories, to any
other of the present depositories, as he may deem the safety of the public money or the
public convenience may require: Provided, That nothing in this Act shall be so con-
strued as to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the balances remaining
with any of the present depositories, to the depositories constituted by this Act, before
the first day of January next. And provided that, for the purpose of payments on
public account, out of balances remaining with the present depositories, it shall be
lawful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositories
as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of
the public creditors, or both.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That all marshals, district attorneys, and others
having public money to pay to the United States, and all patentees wishing to make
payment for patents to be issued, may pay all such moneys to the Treasurer of the
United States at the treasury, to the treasurer of either of the mints in Philadelphia or
New Orleans, to either of the other assistant treasurers, or to such other depository
constituted by this Act as shall be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury in other
parts of the United States to receive such payments, and give receipts or certificates of
deposit therefor.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all officers and other persons charged by
this or any other Act with the safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public
moneys, other than those connected with the Post Office Department, are hereby required
to keep an accurate entry of each sum received, and of each payment or transfer, and
that if any one of the said officers, or of those connected with the Post Office Depart-
ment, shall convert to his own use, in any way whatever, or shall use, by way of
investment in any kind of property or merchandise, or shall loan, with or without inter-
est, or shall deposit in any bank, or shall exchange for other funds, except as allowed
by this act, any portion of the public moneys intrusted to him for safekeeping, disburse-

ment, transfer, or for any other purpose, every such act shall be deemed and adjudged to be embezzlement of so much of the said moneys as shall be thus taken, converted, invested, used, loaned, deposited, or exchanged, which is hereby declared to be a felony; and any failure to pay over or to produce the public moneys intrusted to such person shall be held and taken to be *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement; and if any officer charged with the disbursement of public moneys shall accept or receive, or transmit to the Treasury Department to be allowed in his favor, any receipt or voucher from a creditor of the United States, without having paid to such creditor, in such funds as the said officer may have received for disbursement, or such other funds as he may be authorized by this act to take in exchange, the full amount specified in such receipt or voucher, every such act shall be deemed to be a conversion by such officer to his own use of the amount specified in such receipt or voucher; and any officer or agent of the United States, and all persons advising or participating in such act, being convicted thereof before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be sentenced to imprisonment for a term of not less than six months nor more than ten years, and to a fine equal to the amount of the money embezzled; and upon the trial of any indictment against any person, for embezzling public money, under the provisions of this act, it shall be sufficient evidence for the purpose of showing a balance against such person, to produce a transcript from the books and proceedings of the Treasury, as required in civil cases under the provisions of the act entitled, "An act to provide more effectually for the settlement of accounts between the United States and receivers of public money," approved March third, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven, and the provisions of this act shall be so construed as to apply to all persons charged with the safekeeping, transfer, or disbursement of the public money, whether such persons be indicted as receivers or depositaries of the same; and the refusal of such person, whether in or out of office, to pay any draft, order, or warrant, which may be drawn upon him by the proper officer of the Treasury Department, for any public money in his hands belonging to the United States, no matter in what capacity the same may have been received or may be held, or to transfer or disburse any such money promptly, upon the legal requirement of any authorized officer of the United States, shall be deemed and taken, upon the trial of any indictment against such person for embezzlement, as *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That until the rooms, offices, vaults, and safes, directed by the first four sections of this act to be constructed and prepared for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurers of the mints at Philadelphia and New Orleans, and the assistant treasurers at New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, can be constructed and prepared for use, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to procure suitable rooms for offices for those officers at their respective locations, and to contract for such use of vaults and safes as may be required for the safekeeping of the public moneys in the charge and custody of those officers, respectively; the expense to be paid by the United States.

And whereas, by the thirtieth section of the act entitled "An Act to regulate the collection of duties imposed by law on the tonnage of ships or vessels, and on goods, wares, and merchandises imported into the United States," approved July thirty-one, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that all fees and dues collected by virtue of that act should be received in gold and silver coin only; and, whereas, also, by the fifth section of the act approved May ten, eighteen hundred, entitled "An act to amend the act entitled 'An act providing for the sale of the lands of the United States in the territory northwest of the Ohio, and above the mouth of Kentucky river,'" it was provided that payment for the said lands shall be made by all purchasers in specie, or in evidences of the public debt; and whereas experience has proved that said provisions ought to be revived and enforced, according to the true and wise intent of the Constitution of the United States:

Sec. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the thirtieth day of June on the first day of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, all duties, taxes, sales of public lands, debts, and sums of money accruing, or becoming due, to the United States, and also all sums due for postage, or otherwise, to the General Post Office Department, shall be paid in gold and silver coin only, or in Treasury notes issued under the authority of the United States: Provided, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall publish monthly in two newspapers at the City of Washington the amount of specie at the several places of deposit, the amount of Treasury notes or drafts issued and the amount outstanding on the last day of each month.

Sec. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That on the first day of April, one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, every officer or agent engaged in making disbursements on account of the United States, or of the General Post Office, shall make all payments in gold and silver coin or in treasury notes, if the creditors agree to receive said notes in payments; and any receiving or disbursing officer or agent who shall neglect, evade, or violate the provisions of this and the last preceding section of this Act, shall, by the Secretary of the Treasury, be immediately reported to the President of the United States, with the facts of such neglect, evasion, or violation; and

also to Congress, if in session, and if not in session, at the commencement of its session next after the violation takes place.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That no exchange of funds shall be made by any disbursing officers or agents of the government, of any grade or denomination whatsoever, or connected with any branch of the public service, other than on exchange for gold and silver; and every such disbursing officer, when the means for his disbursements are furnished to him in gold and silver, shall make his payments in the money so furnished; or when those means are furnished to him in drafts, shall cause those drafts to be presented at their place of payment, and properly paid according to the law; and shall make his payments in the money so received for the drafts furnished, unless in either case he can exchange the means in his hands for gold and silver at par. And it shall be, and is hereby, made the duty of the head of the proper department immediately to suspend from duty any disbursing officer who shall violate the provisions of this section, and forthwith to report the name of the officer or agent to the President, with the fact of the violation, and all the circumstances accompanying the same and within the knowledge of the said Secretary, to the end that such officer or agent may be promptly removed from office, or restored to his trust and the performance of his duties, as to the President may seem just and proper: Provided, however, That those disbursing officers having, at present, credits in the banks, shall, until the first day of January next, be allowed to check on the same, allowing the public creditors to receive their pay from the banks either in specie or bank notes.

Sec. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and publish regulations to enforce the speedy presentation of all government drafts for payment at the place where payable, and to prescribe the time, according to the different distances of the depositaries from the seat of government, within which all drafts upon them, respectively, shall be presented for payment; and, in default of such presentation, to direct any other mode and place of payment which he may deem proper; but, in all these regulations and directions it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to guard, as far as may be, against those drafts being used or thrown into circulation as a paper currency, or medium of exchange, and no officer of the United States shall, either directly or indirectly, sell or dispose to any person or persons, or corporations whatsoever, for a premium, any Treasury note, draft, warrant or other public security, not his private property, or sell or dispose of the avails or proceeds of such note, draft, warrant or security in his hands for disbursement, without making return of such premium and accounting therefor by charging the same in his accounts to the credit of the United States, and any officer violating this section shall be forthwith dismissed from office.

Sec. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That the assistant treasurers directed by this act to be appointed shall receive, respectively, the following salaries per annum, to be paid quarter-yearly of the treasury of the United States, to wit: the assistant treasurer at New York shall be paid a salary of four thousand dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Boston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Charleston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at St. Louis shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the treasurer of the mint at Philadelphia shall, in addition to his present salary, receive five hundred dollars annually, for the performance of the duties imposed by this Act; the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans shall also receive five hundred dollars annually, for the additional duties created by this Act; and these salaries, respectively, shall be in full for the services of the respective officers, nor shall either of them be permitted to charge or receive any commissions, pay, or perquisite, for any official service, of any character or description whatsoever; and the making of any such charge, or the receipt of any such compensation, is hereby declared to be a misdemeanor, for which the officer convicted thereof, before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be subject to punishment by fine or imprisonment, or both, at the discretion of the court before which the offence shall be tried.

Sec. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be, and hereby is appropriated to be paid out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of five thousand dollars, to be expended, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, in such repairs or additions as may be necessary to put in good condition for use, with as little delay as may be consistent with the public interests, the offices, rooms, vaults, and safes herein mentioned, and in the purchase of any necessary additional furniture and fixtures, in the purchase of necessary books and stationery, and in defraying any other incidental expenses necessary to carry this Act into effect.

Sec. 24. *And be it further enacted*. That all Acts or parts of Acts which come in conflict with the provisions of this Act be, and the same are, hereby repealed.

APPROVEN, August 6th, 1846.

CIRCULAR IN RELATION TO THE SUB-TREASURY.

To each Collector, Receiver of Public Money for Lands, Assistant Treasurer, Treasurer of the Mint at Philadelphia, Treasurer of each Branch mint, and Treasurer of the United States.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 15, 1846.

A copy of the "Act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, safekeeping, transfer and disbursement of the public revenue," is herewith enclosed.

You will exercise great vigilance in the performance of the new duties it may devolve on you, without any omission of such as have been imposed and are still required by former laws and regulations.

The new instructions received in respect to the books you are to keep, and the returns you are to make, will be strictly conformed to. Any expenses necessary to be incurred under this Act, will be separated from others in your accounts, and cannot be allowed unless authority is previously obtained, or satisfactory reasons assigned to the department. It is hoped the expenses will be few, and on the most economical scale.

As a depository of the public money standing to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, you will keep an account current with him, in which you will debit yourself with all sums received on his account, and credit yourself with all payments made by his order.

A weekly transcript of this account must be forwarded to the department, in duplicate, one directed to the secretary, the other to the treasurer, which latter must be accompanied by the vouchers for the charges made therein.

Collectors of customs, designated collectors and receivers of public moneys at 'and offices, who may act as depositaries of the money collected or received by them only, should credit the treasurer, weekly, with the surplus receipt of the week, after reserving sufficient to meet the current expenses of their offices. Moneys once reported to the treasurer, cannot afterwards be used except in compliance with his drafts, or orders, either for the transfer or the payment of warrants on the treasurer, issued under the authority of law.

The treasurer of the mint, of the branch mint at New Orleans, the assistant treasurers and such other depositaries as may be required to receive on deposit moneys not collected by them as collectors or receivers, should enter to the treasurer's credit each sum deposited with or transferred to them, specifically, setting forth the date of the deposit, name of the party or parties making it, the object for which and the name of the party for whose credit it is made, (which particulars must appear on the weekly transcripts,) and, also, the kind of funds in which it is made.

Entries of treasurer's drafts, when paid, should show the date of payment, number of draft, and number of warrant on which it was issued, or the designation "transfer draft," when of that character. The kind of money used in paying drafts must also be noted on your books, but not stated in the transcripts.

The principal book necessary to carry out these details, is a ledger account current, which will serve also as a cash-book; as auxiliary to this, particularly when the transactions are numerous, a day-book or blotter should be kept. It will be well, also, to keep a separate register of transfer drafts.

The form in which this account should be made out, for transmission to the department, is herewith inclosed, marked A. It should be made on paper of the same size of the form.

The form of certificate to be given by you to persons authorized to make deposits with you, to the credit of treasurer of the United States, is also enclosed, marked B.

The account current should be balanced at the close of each week, so as to correspond with the transcripts. They must be balanced at the close of each quarter, but the last weekly transcript of a quarter may be deferred, should the quarter terminate in the middle of a week, so as to embrace the odd days, and the first transcript of a new quarter may, also, be deferred for a like purpose.

You will also keep separate books for your incidental expenses, whether they be made under general instructions, as expenses of collection, or from advances by the treasury for that purpose; and a book for recording all letters from and to your office as a depository.

Be pleased to understand thoroughly this principle, that all money in your hands to the credit of the treasurer is, in fact, money in the treasury of the United States, and cannot be used for any other purpose than the payment of warrants (or the drafts thereon) issued in pursuance of appropriations by Congress; but these moneys may be transferred from one depository to any other depository, by direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, under the authority of the 10th section of the Act.

The 12th section of the Act requires each naval officer, and surveyor of each port where there is a naval officer and surveyor, and the register of each land office, to make

TREASURY.

Asst. Treas.,
Branch mint, and Treasur.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 15, 1846.
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a quarterly examination of the books, accounts, returns, and money on hand of the public depository with which he is connected, and to make such examinations as much more frequently as he may be directed so to do by the Secretary of the Treasury. The 11th section of the Act authorizes me to make such examinations also, by special agents, as occasion may require. You will grant to the surveyor of the port, naval officer, or the register of the land office, as the case may be, and to such special agents as may be appointed, every facility in your power for making such examinations, and will always keep your money, papers, and books, in readiness for it.

By the 18th section provision is made as to the kind of money you may receive. To the requirements in that section you will, in all cases, conform, using great caution to avoid the receipt of money that is counterfeit, or the notes of banks not at par, or not convertible into specie on the spot, or not issued by institutions of high credit. After the 31st of December next all payments into the treasury must be made in gold and silver coin only, or in treasury notes. It is desirable that the notes received by you should, when acceptable to others in payment, be first paid out; and if, at the close of any quarter, an amount of them remain on hand over the sum of five thousand dollars, they should, for security, be converted into specie, and oftener, if loss is apprehended, or the specie wanted to meet drafts you are liable to pay in specie.

For greater accuracy in receiving coin, it will generally be desirable, in very large sums, to weigh as well as count it; and for convenience and speed in making payments and examinations, to keep it scaled up and marked, in bags or boxes of a hundred and a thousand dollars each. It may be well for the examiners to add their seal after their monthly examinations, to verify the amounts.

The receipt of treasury notes in all public payments as heretofore provided by Congress, and then to be cancelled and remitted here as required by former instructions, will still be continued when any debtors offer them in payment.

So you will receive in the same way any drafts drawn by the treasurer on yourself, instead of the useless delay and trouble of counting out the money on such drafts, and immediately receiving it back in payment.

In no instance will you permit any other than public money to be placed in the chest or vault in which that is kept.

All other parts of the Act relating to your duties will be strictly enforced by you, though not specially referred to in this Circular. In case of doubt you will apply to proper officers here for advice.

Further instructions, except those to particular classes of officers separately, it is considered unnecessary to give at this time. If you find any of these here given inconvenient in operation, or if you can suggest measures by which the ends of the law can be more easily obtained, I shall be very happy to hear from you on the subject.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

CIRCULAR TO THE COLLECTORS OF THE CUSTOMS,

At Buffalo creek, Wilmington, N. C., Savannah and Mobile. To the surveyors of the customs at Nashville, and Cincinnati, and to the Receivers of public moneys at Little Rock, Ark., at Jeffersonville, Ind., Chicago, Ill., and Detroit, Mich.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 15, 1846.

The fifteenth section of "An Act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," enacts, "That all marshals, district attorneys, and others having public money to pay to the United States, and all patentees wishing to make payment for patents to be issued, may pay all such moneys to the treasurer of the United States, to the treasurer of either of the mints in Philadelphia, or New Orleans, to either of the other assistant treasurers, or to such other depository constituted by this Act as shall be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury in other parts of the United States to receive such payments, and give receipts or certificates of deposit therefor."

Under this provision, for the local convenience of making payments, except for accruing duties and land sold, which are otherwise provided for, you will receive and place any such money to the credit of the treasurer of the United States, and will give receipts therefor, briefly stating therein, as well as in your returns, the character of each payment, whether for patents, fines, judgments, &c

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

GENERAL CUSTOM HOUSE INFORMATION.

On the arrival of a vessel from a Foreign Port, the Captain must within twenty-four hours come to the Custom House and report his vessel to the Collector, and within forty-eight hours after his arrival must enter his vessel.

The Master of any vessel having merchandise on board, is required to have a manifest made out in writing, signed by him, containing a specification of all the goods on board, the marks and numbers, to whom consigned, the names of all the passengers with their baggage, the age, sex, and occupation of each, the countries to which they belong, and where going, together with all the remaining sea stores.

Beer, ale, or porter, cannot be imported in casks of less capacity than forty gallons beer measure, or if in bottles, in packages containing less than six dozen, under the penalty of forfeiting the same, together with the ship or vessel in which they were imported.—Act of March 2, 1779, sec. 103.

No distilled spirits excepting arrack, brandy in casks of not less capacity than 15 gallons, and sweet cordial, can be imported in casks or vessels of less capacity than 90 gallons wine measure, nor in casks which have been marked pursuant to any law of the United States, on pain of forfeiture of the same, together with the ship or vessel in which they were imported.—Act of March 2, 1779, sec. 103.

No goods, wares, or merchandise, subject to duty, can be imported into the United States on the seaboard, in vessels of less than 30 tons burthen, under the penalty of the forfeiture of vessel and cargo. Nor can a drawback of any duties be obtained on exportation except by sea, and in vessels of not less than 30 tons burthen.—Act of 22d March, 1799, 92d section.

Invoice to contain the weight, quantity or measure of goods, or the same to be weighed, gauged, or measured at the expense of importer. Act 30th July, 1840, Sec. 4.

An allowance of 2 per cent. is made for leakage on any liquor in casks subject to duty by the gallon, and 10 per cent. on all beer, ale, and porter in bottles, and 5 per cent. on all other liquors in bottles, to be deducted from the invoice quantity, in lieu of breakage; or it shall be lawful to compute the duties on the actual quantity, to be ascertained by tale, at the option of the importer, to be made at the time of entry.—Act of March 2, 1779, sec. 59.

To be entitled to drawback, the duties on the importation of the goods exported, must have been at least 50 dollars by one vessel, at the same time, and by the same person, and the merchandise must be, at the time of exportation, in the same package, and condition, including wrapper and original mark and number, as when imported. Act of 22d May, 1824.

Drawback not allowed on goods exported to any place immediately adjoining the United States, except to places westward and southward of Louisiana, and to the north-west coast of America.

All goods on examination by the appraisers, not corresponding with the entry made of them, are liable to forfeiture.

Goods in order to receive the benefit of drawback, must be exported within three years from the date of importation.

Two and one-half per cent. is retained on the amount of all drawbacks allowed, except on foreign refined sugars for the use of the United States; and in the case of foreign refined sugars, ten per centum shall be so retained.

No allowance or drawback is made on the additional duties paid on merchandise imported in foreign and unequalized vessels.

No allowance of drawback on the exportation of iron cables or parts thereof, butter, fish oil, playing cards, cordage (if less than five tons), foreign dried or pickled fish, or other salted provisions, nor on sail-duck if less than fifty bolts.

Within twenty days after the clearance of a vessel, the exporter of goods by said vessel must swear to the export entry, and give a bond that they shall not be landed in any place or port within the limits of the United States; or forfeit the drawback.

In all cases where the value of goods are appraised by the appraisers at a value exceeding 10 per cent. of the invoice, in addition to the duty imposed by law on the same, there shall be collected on the same goods fifty per centum of the duty imposed on the same when fairly invoiced.

All indecent and obscene prints, paintings, &c., subject the whole invoice or package wherein such articles shall compose a part, to forfeiture.

Any person knowingly and wilfully engaged in smuggling any goods subject to duty into the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be fined in any sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or imprisoned for any term of time not exceeding two years, or both, at the discretion of the Court.

Persons residing out of the United States, and interested in any shipment to the United States, must have their invoices authenticated before a Consul or Vice Consul of the United States; and in case there is none in the country in which they reside, the invoices must be authenticated before some magistrate of that country.

Invoices must always be made out in the currency of the country where the goods are purchased; and if the value of that currency is not fixed by law, they must always be accompanied by a Consul's certificate, stating the value of the same in dollars and cents.

Persons residing abroad must have their invoices authenticated, although they may have partners interested in these purchases residing in the United States.

In making entries or reports of cargoes or merchandise, specify the number of packages in writing, and not in figures; and the numbers of each description of package state distinctly and separately.

Interest is charged at the rate of six per cent. on the amount of all duties exceeding fifty dollars, if not paid within twenty days from the time of entering the vessel.

Goods should always be accompanied by an invoice. Where there is none, and the value of the goods exceed fifty dollars, the law requires that a Bond shall be given to produce an invoice; but the goods can be appraised, and if they are valued below the actual cost, the difference between the appraisement and invoice, when received, must be ascertained, and the duty paid on the same. If the appraisement exceeds the invoice, there is nothing returned.

Merchandise is liable to be sold for the duties, if not entered in sixty days from the arrival of the vessel.

Passengers arriving in this country should, previous to sailing, have all their baggage put upon the manifest; and if any of the packages contain merchandise, a bill of lading, specifying the marks and numbers, should be obtained, signed by the Captain. Tools of trade should be accompanied by an invoice or memorandum, so that an entry can be made and sworn to, without being sent up for examination.

No refined lump or loaf sugar can be imported into the United States, except in ships or vessels of at least 120 tons burthen, and in packages containing at least 600 lbs., under the penalty of forfeiting the same, together with the ship or vessel.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 103.

Bounty is allowed on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, cured and packed solely with foreign salt, on which the duty shall have been paid.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 83.

The number of bushels of wheat is to be ascertained by actual measurement by the standard bushel, and not by weight.

Every owner of a vessel, residing within the limits of the United States, to swear (or affirm) to the register within ninety days after it being granted, or it becomes void, and the vessel and cargo pays foreign tonnage and duty.

In all cases where there are more goods found on board a vessel than the master thereof has reported on his manifest, he shall, with the consent of the officers of the customs, make a post entry for the same, and pay two dollars therefor: and for every disagreement between his manifest and cargo, he is liable to a fine of five hundred dollars.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 57.

Goods belonging to a person not residing at the time in the United States, cannot be admitted to duty, unless accompanied by an invoice verified by the owner's oath, stating that the goods were actually purchased for his account, and that the invoice contains a true and faithful account of the cost of such goods.—Act of 1st March, 1823, Section 7.

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THE

NEW BRITISH TARIFF,

COMPRISING A CORRECT LIST OF THE CUSTOMS' DUTIES CHARGED UPON ALL ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES:

To which should be added a further charge of 5 per cent. upon the nett amount of the duties levied.

Principally compiled from the Official Copy furnished by the Board of Trade.

ARTICLES.	O for from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	O for from Foreign Countries.
Aceous Acid (see vinegar)		Baskets for every £100 value	£ s. d.
Agates or cornellans, set, for every £100 value.	10 pr. ct. free.	Rods, peeled and unpeeled	10 0 0
Alabaster (see marble)		Bast ropes, twines, and strands for every £100 value	0 5 0
Ale	1 0 0	Beads, coral, jet, arrango, not enumerated or described	10 pr. ct.
Alganobilla	free.	and bugles of glass lb	0 0 2
Alkali	free.	Beans, kidney and French bushel	0 0 10
Alkanet root	free.	Beef, salted, not being corned beef cwt	free.
Almonds, bitter	1 5 0	Beer or mumm	1 0 0
not Jordan cwt	0 10 0	Spruce	1 0 0
Paste of	10 pr. ct.	Barries, bay	free.
Aloes	free.	Juniper	free.
Alum	free.	Yellow	free.
Roeh	free.	unenumerated	free.
Amber, manufactures of not enumerated	10 pr. ct.	Birds, singing	10 pr. ct.
rough	free.	Blacking	free.
Ambergria	free.	Black wood	free.
Amygna Wood	free.	Bladders	free.
Angelica	free.	Blubber (see oil)	
Animals, living	free.	Bones of cattle and other animals, and of fish (except whale fins), whether burnt or not, or as animal charcoal	free.
Annatto	free.	Bonnets (see hats)	
Roll	free.	Books printed prior to 1801, bound or unbound	1 0 6
Antimony, ore of	free.	Printed in or since 1801 cwt	5 0 0
Crude	free.	In the foreign living languages, printed in or since 1801 cwt	2 10 0
Regains of	0 0 6	[Books of which the copyright exists in this country, are, by the regulations of the Act for securing Copyright, prohibited.]	
Apples, raw bushel	0 2 0	Boots, shoes, and calashes, viz.—	
Dried bushel	0 2 0	Women's boots and calashes, dox pair	0 12 0
Aquafortis cwt	0 5 0	If lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming dox. pair	0 15 0
Argol	free.	Shoes, with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs, dox. pair	0 10 0
Aristolochia	free.	If trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming dox. pair	0 12 0
Arrowroot cwt	0 2 6	Women's shoes of silk, satin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather dox. pair	0 9 0
Arsenic	free.	Women's shoes, if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming dox. pair	0 10 0
Ashes, pearl and pot	free.	Girls' boots shoes, and calashes, not not ex. 7 inch. in length, $\frac{1}{2}$ of the above duties.	
Soap, weed, and wood unenumerated	free.	Men's boots dox. pair	1 8 0
Asphaltum or bitumen Judaioum	free.	Shoes dox. pair	0 14 0
Asses each	free.	Boys boots and shoes, not ex. 7 in. in length, $\frac{1}{2}$ of the above duties.	
Bacon cwt	free.	Boot fronts, not exceeding 9 in. high	0 3 6
Balsam, Canada	free.	ex. 9 in. high	0 5 6
Capivi	free.	Boracic acid	free.
Peru	free.	Borax, refined	free.
Tolu	free.	or (finca), unrefined	free.
Riga lb	0 0 1	Bottles, earth or stone dox	free.
Balm of Gilead and other balsams	free.	Do. of Glass (see glass bottles)	
Bandstring Twist, per doz. Knots of 22 yds. for every £100 value	0 5 0		
10 0 0	free.		
Barilla	free.		
Bar wood	free.		
Bark, extract of, or of other vegetable substances, to be used only for tanning leather	free.		
for tanners or dyers' use	free.		
Cascarilla	free.		
Peruvian	free.		
of other sorts	free.		
Barley, pearled cwt	0 1 0		

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
Box wood.....	free.	China or porcelain ware, plain.....£100	£ s. d. 10 0 0
Boxes of all sorts, except wholly or partly of glass, on which the glass duty will be levied... for every £100 value	10 0 0	Gilt, painted, or ornamented...do	5 5 0
Brass, manufactures of..... lb	0 0 6	China root.....	free.
Powder of..... lb	free.	Chip, or willow, for plating.....	free.
Brazil wood.....	free.	Chier..... tun	0 5 5
Braziletto wood.....	0 10 0	Cinnabaris India..... lb	0 0 6
Bricks or Clinkers, Dutch..... 1000	0 15 0	Citrate of lime..... cwt	0 5 0
Others sorts..... 1000	0 15 0	Claric Acid..... lb	0 0 2
Brimstone, refined in Kolls.....	free.	Citron preserved with salt..... £100	5 0 0
In flour.....	free.	Civet.....	free.
Not refined.....	free.	Clocks..... £100	10 0 0
Bristles, rough or in any way sorted.....	free.	or watches, purporting by any mark to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom.....	prohib'd
Brocads of gold or silver.....	10 pr. ct.	Cloves..... lb	0 0 6
Bronze, manufactures of.....	10 pr. ct.	Coats, Guim, and Cinders.....	free.
Powder of.....	free.	Cubalt.....	free.
Works of art.....	free.	Ore of.....	free.
Buck wheat meal..... cwt	0 0 4	Cochineal..... lb	free.
Bugles..... lb	0 0 2	Dust.....	free.
Bullion, coins, medals, &c.....	free.	Granilla.....	free.
Bulls and oxen..... each	1 0 0	Cocoa..... lb	0 0 2
Burushes.....	free.	Husks and shells..... lb	0 0 1
Butter, colonial..... cwt	0 10 0	Paste or Chocolate..... lb	0 0 6
Butter, European..... cwt	0 2 6	Coculus Indicus..... cwt	0 7 6
Buttons..... for every £100 value	15 pr. ct.	Coffee..... lb	0 0 6
Buttons, metal..... for every £100 value	10 0 0	Colic rope and junk, old and new, cut into lengths not exceeding three feet each	free.
Cables, not iron..... cwt	0 6 0	Colocyath.....	free.
not iron cables, in actual use of a British ship.....	free.	each	free.
If, and when otherwise disposed of..... every £100 value	10 0 0	Colombo root..... lb	0 0 6
Calves..... each	free.	Comfits, dry.....	0 0 6
Cambrio (see linen)	5 0 0	Confectionary..... lb	0 0 6
Cameos..... for every £100 value	free.	Copper, ore, containing not more than 15 parts of copper... per ton	3 0 0
Camphor, refined..... cwt	0 5 0	Contg not more than 30 ditto	4 10 6
Unrefined.....	free.	Contg more than 30 ditto...	6 0 0
Cam Wood.....	free.	Old..... cwt	0 7 6
Candles, spermaceti..... lb	0 0 3	Unwrought, in bricks or pigs, rose copper and all cast copper..... cwt	0 6 6
Stearine..... lb	0 0 1	In part wrought, bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raked..... cwt	0 10 0
Tallow..... cwt	0 5 0	In plates and copper coin..... cwt	0 10 0
Wax..... lb	0 0 2	Manufacture of copper not otherwise enumerated, or described, and plates engraved... £100 value	10 0 0
Candlewick.....	free.	or brass wire.....	12 1/2 pr. ct.
Canella Alba.....	free.	Copper or brass wire, for every £100 value.....	10 0 0
Cane, bamboo.....	free.	Copperas, blue.....	free.
Reed.....	free.	Green.....	free.
Bastans, not ground.....	free.	White.....	free.
or sticks, unenumerated.....	free.	Coral whole, polished.....	free.
Walking, or sticks, mounted, painted or ornamented... £100 v.	10 0 0	unpolished.....	free.
Cantharides..... lb	0 0 3	in fragments.....	free.
Caoutchouc.....	free.	Cordage, tared or untarred, standing or running rigging excepted... cwt	0 6 0
Capers, including the pickle..... lb	0 0 6	In use of a British ship.....	free.
Cardamoms.....	free.	If, and when otherwise disposed of..... every £100 value	5 0 0
Cards, playing..... the dozen packs	4 0 0	Cordial Waters (see spirits)	free.
Carriages of all sorts..... £100 value	10 0 0	Corks, ready made..... lb	0 0 8
Carmines..... on	0 0 6	Squared for rounding..... cwt	0 16 0
Casks, empty..... £100 value	10 0 0	Fisherman's.....	0 2 0
Cassava powder..... cwt	0 2 6	Manufactures of.....	0 10 0
Cassava powder... for every £100 value	0 2 6	Articles, or Manufactures of Cotton wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty..... £100 value	10 0 0
Cassia lignea..... lb	0 0 3	Cotton Yarn.....	free.
Cassia buds.....	free.	Cows..... each	free.
Flatula.....	free.	Cranberries..... gallon	10 0 0
Castor.....	free.	Crayons..... £100 value	10 0 0
Casts of busts, Statues, and figures, cwt	free.	Cream of Tartar.....	free.
Castings..... £100	10 0 0	Crystals, rough..... per 1000	0 5 6
Cavins..... cwt	free.	Beads.....	10 0 0
Cedar Wood.....	free.	Cut or manufao, except beads... £100 v	10 0 0
Chalk unmanufactured.....	free.		
Prepared or manufactured not enumerated.....	10 pr. ct.		
Cheese..... cwt	0 5 0		
Cheese, colonial..... cwt	0 1 6		
Cherries, raw.....	5 pr. ct.		
Dried..... lb	0 0 6		
Cherry wood, being furniture wood.....	free.		
Chesnuts.....	free.		
Chesory, or other vegetable matter used as Chasory or Coffee, roasted or ground..... lb	0 0 6		
Raw, kiln dried..... cwt	1 0 0		

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
£ s. d.			£ s. d.
Glass, painted or ornamented, superficial foot.....	0 3 0	tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, dry or wet.....	free.
White Flint Glass Bottles, not cut, engraved or ornamented, and beads and bugles of glass.....	0 0 2	Tails, buffalo, bull, cow, or ox.....	free.
Wine Glasses, tumblers, and all white flint glass goods, not cut, engraved or ornamented.....	0 0 4	Tanned, not otherwise dressed.....	free.
Flint Cut Glass, flint colored glass, and fancy ornamental glass of whatever kind.....	0 0 8	Honey..... each	0 10 0
Bottles of glass covered with wicker, (not flint or cut glass) or of green or common glass.....	0 3 0	Honey..... the 100	free.
Glass, not enumerated or described, and old glass, fit only to be re-manufactured.....	0 14 0	Hoofs of cattle.....	free.
From and after the 10th day of October, 1846, until the 5th of April, 1848, one-half of the said duties, and from and after the 5th day of April, 1848, one-fourth of the said duties.		Hoops of wood.....	free.
Gloves of leather, habit mits.....	0 2 4	Hops..... cwt	2 5 0
habit gloves dos pair	0 3 6	Horns, horn tips, and pieces of horn.....	1 0 0
men's..... dos pair	0 3 6	Horses..... each	1 0 0
women's or mits..... do	0 4 6	Horse grease (see oil animal).....	
Glue..... cwt	free.	Indigo.....	free.
Glue clippings, or waste, fit only for making glue.....	free.	Ink for printing.....	free.
Goats..... each	0 3 0	Inkle.....	free.
Gold leaves..... the 100	0 15 0	Iron, bloom, cast, crumate of, in bars, unwrought, hoops, ore, pig, old broken and cast, slit or hammered into rods	free.
Grains, Guinea, and of Paradise..... cwt	5 per ct.	Iron and steel not otherwise enumerated.....	10 0 0
Grapes.....	5 per ct.	Isinglass..... cwt	0 5 6
Greaves.....	free.	Jalap.....	free.
Greaves for dogs, and tallow greaves.....	free.	Japaned or Lacquered ware, for every £100 value.....	10 pr. ct.
Guano.....	free.	Jet.....	free.
Gum, Animi, Arabic, Assafetida, Ammoniacum, Benjamin, Copal, Eupherblum, Guleum, Kino, Lac Dye, Mastic, Seed Lac, Senegal, Shell Lac, Storax, Tragacanth, unenumerated.....	1 0 0	Jewels, emeralds, rubies, and all other precious stones (except diamonds and pearls) set.....	10 pr. ct.
Gunpowder..... cwt	free.	Emeralds and all other precious stones, unset.....	free.
Gun Stocks, in the rough; of wood.....	free.	Juice of lime, lemon, or orange... gal	0 0 0 1/2
Gypsum.....	free.	Kide..... each	0 1 0
Hair, camel hair, or wool, cow, ox, bull, or elk, horse, human, unenumerated.....	free.	King Wood.....	free.
Manufactures of hair or goat's wool, or of hair, or goat's wool, and any other material for every £100 value	15 0 0	Lac, viz. Sticklac.....	free.
Flame of all kinds..... cwt	0 7 0	Lace, viz. thread, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct.
Harp or lute strings, silvered..... £100 v.	10 0 0	Made by the hand, commonly called cushion or pillow lace, whether of linen, cotton, or silken thread..... for every £100 value	10 pr. ct.
Hats or bonnets, viz.—Chip..... lb	0 3 6	Laacquered Ware (see Japaned Ware)	10 pr. ct.
Bast, cane, or horse-hair, not ex. 22 in. in diameter..... dozen	0 7 6	Lamb..... each	0 2
exceed. 22 in. in diameter..... dozen	0 10 0	Lamp black.....	free.
Straw hats or bonnets..... lb	0 5 0	Lapis Calamintaris.....	free.
Felt, hair, wool, beaver..... each	0 2 0	Lard.....	free.
Silk, or silk shag, laid upon felt, linen, or other materials..... each	0 2 0	Latten.....	free.
Hay..... load	free.	Wire..... for every £100 value	10 pr. ct.
Holebone.....	free.	Shaven.....	free.
Hemp, dressed.....	free.	Lavender Flowers.....	free.
rough or undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes.....	free.	Lead, manufactures for every £100 val.	10 pr. ct.
Hides, tanned, but not otherwise dressed.....	0 0 2	Pig and sheet..... ton	1 0 0
Tawed, curried, or dressed, varnished, japaned or enamelled..... lb	free.	Lead, ore, red, white, black, chromate of	free.
Leah hides.....	free.	Leather, manufacturers of, viz.—	
Muscovy or Russian hides, tanned, colored, shaved or dressed..... lb	free.	Lenther Boots, shoes and calashes, viz.	
Tanned, tawed, curried, or dressed, not enumd. for every £100 val.	10 0 0	Women's boots and calashes, viz.	
Or pieces of ditto, not tanned,		Women's boots and calashes, if lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming.....	0 6 0
		Women's shoes with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs, the dozen pair	0 7 6
		Women's shoes, if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming, the dozen pair	0 5 0
		Women's shoes of silk, antin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather, the dozen pair	0 6 0
		Girls' boots, shoes and calashes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two-thirds of the above duties	0 4 6
		Men's boots..... the dozen pair	0 14 0
		Men's shoes..... the dozen pair	0 7 0
		Boy's boots and shoes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two-thirds of the above duties.	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
Oranges and lemons, viz:—In chest and boxes, not ex. 5000 cubic in.	£ s. d.	Preserved in sugar.....	£ s. d.
Over 5000 cubic inches and not exceeding 7300	0 2 6	Pomatum.....	0 0 6
Over 7300 cubic inches and not exceeding 14,000.....	0 3 9	Pomegranates.....	10 0 0
For every 1000 cubic inches exceeding 14,000.....	0 7 6	Peel of.....	0 5 0
Loose..... the 1000	0 0 7½	Porcelain (see china)	free.
Entered at value, at the option of the importer	0 15 0	Pork, fresh or salted (not hame).....cwt	free.
for every £100 value	75 0 0	Pots, mending pots for goldsmiths.....100	0 3 2
Orchal.....	free.	Of stone.....	10 0 0
Ore, unenumerated.....	free.	Poultry.....	5 pr. ct.
Orpiment.....	free.	Powder, hair powder.....cwt	1 0 0
Orris root.....	free.	Perfumed.....cwt	1 0 0
Oresley.....cwt	0 10 0	As starch.....cwt	0 10 0
Otto of roses (see oils essential, &c.)		Prints and drawings, single.....each	0 0 1
Painters' colors, manufactured.....	10 0 0	Bound or sewn.....doz	0 0 3
unenum. numanufctd.....	free.	Prunes.....cwt	0 7 0
Palmetto thatch.....	free.	Prussiate of potash.....	free.
Burgundy.....	free.	Quassaia.....cwt	0 10 0
Manufactures of...£100 value	free.	Quicksilver.....	free.
Paper, viz:—		Quills, goose.....	free.
Brown, made of rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials.....lb	0 0 3	Swan.....	free.
Printed, paluted or stained paper, or flock paper.....the square yard	0 0 2	Quincea.....	0 1 0
Waste, unless printed on in the English language, or paper of any sort not enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty.....lb	0 0 4	Quinine.....	0 0 6
Printed on in the English language.	prohibid	Radix Contrayerva.....	free.
Parchments.....dozen sheets	2 10 0	Enula Campana.....	free.
Paste boards.....cwt	free.	Eringil.....	free.
Patterns of silks, woollen and cotton... ..	free.	Ipecachuanne.....	free.
Pearls.....	0 0 6	Rhastenia.....	free.
Pears, raw.....bushel	0 2 0	Seneca.....	free.
Dried.....bushel	10 0 0	Serpentaria, or snake root.....	free.
Pencils.....£100	10 0 0	Rage, old rags, old ropes, or junk or old fishing-nets, fit only for making paper pasteboard... ..	free.
Of slate.....£100	free.	Fulp of.....	free.
Pena.....	0 0 6	Woolen.....	0 15 0
Pepper of all sorts.....lb	0 0 4	Ralsins.....cwt	free.
Percussion caps.....1000	10 0 0	Rape of Grapes.....	free.
Perfumery, not otherwise charged.£100	5 5 0	Red wood, or Guinea wood.....	free.
Perry.....tun	10 0 0	Rhubarb.....	free.
Pewter, manufactures of.....£100	10 0 0	Rice, not rough nor in the husk.....cwt	0 6 0
Phosphorus.....	10 0 0	Rough and in the husk.....quarter	0 7 0
Pickles of all sorts, including the vinegar, and not otherwise enumerated.....gallon	0 1 6	Ropes (see cordage)	free.
Preserved in salt.....gallon	0 0 6	Rose wood.....	free.
Printures.....each	0 1 0	Rosin.....	free.
And further...the square foot	0 1 0	Saccharum Saturni.....cwt	0 10 0
Above 200 square feet.....each	10 0 0	Sago.....	0 0 6
Flgs, smoking.....each	free.	Safflower.....	free.
Pluinto.....cwt	0 5 0	Saffron.....	free.
Pink root.....	free.	Sal Ammoniac.....cwt	0 1 C
Pitch.....	free.	Almonia.....cwt	0 1 0
Plantains.....	free.	Trinellia.....cwt	0 1 0
Plaster of Paris.....	free.	Salep or salop.....	free.
Plate of gold and silver.....	10 0 0	Salt.....	free.
[Together with the stamp duty.]		Saltpetre.....	free.
Bartered.....	free.	Sanguis Draconis.....	free.
Wire, gilt or plated.....	12½ 0 0	Santa Maria wood.....	free.
Silver.....	free.	Sapan.....	free.
Platina, and ore of platina.....	free.	Sarsaparilla.....	free.
Plating or other manufactures to be used in or proper for making hats or bonnets, viz:—		Sassafras.....	free.
Of straw.....	0 5 0	Satin wood.....	free.
Of chip.....	free.	Sander's red.....	free.
To be used in making hats or bonnets, of bast, cane or horse hair.....	free.	White or yellow.....	free.
Plums, called French plums and pruneloes.....cwt	1 0 0	Sassafras and puddings.....lb	0 0 1
Dried or preserved.....cwt	1 7 0	Scaiboards.....	1 10 0
		Scammony.....	free.
		Sealing wax.....	15 0 0
		Seeds, viz:—	
		* Acorns.....	free.
		* Anniseed.....	free.
		* Beans, Kidney or French.....	free.
		* Baruel.....	free.
		* Canary.....bushel	0 4
		* Caraway, carrot, clover.....cwt	0 10
		* Colcholum.....	free.
		* Cole.....	free.
		* Coriander.....	free.
		* Croton, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom.....	free.
		* Cummin.....	free.

Of or from Foreign Countries

£ s. d.
0 0 0
10 0 0
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free.

free.

free.

10 0 0

5 pr. ct.

1 0 0

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free.

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free.

1000 0 1 0

0 0 6

free.

ARTICLES.

- * Fenugreek.....
- * Flax.....
- * Forest.....
- * Garden, unenumerated.....
- * Grass, unenumerated.....
- * Hemp.....
- * Leek.....
- * Lentils.....
- * Lettuce.....
- * Linseed and faxseed.....
- * Lucerne.....
- * Lupines.....
- * Maw.....
- * Millet.....
- * Mustard.....
- * Onion.....
- * Parsley.....
- * Poppy.....
- * Quines.....
- * Rape.....
- * Sesamum.....
- * Shrub or tree.....
- * Tares.....
- Trebil, worm.....
- * Worm.....
- * Unenumerated, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom. [Free on 1st June, 1845.]
Other seeds, not particularly enumerated or described....
- Segars (see tobacco).....
- Senna.....
- Sheep.....
- Ships to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture, except sails, viz.—
Foreign ships or vessels, £100 value
Foreign ships broken up, £100 value
British ships, or vessels, entitled to be registered as such, and not having been built in the United Kingdom.....
- Shrubs, trees, and plants.....
- Sumach.....
- Silk, thrown, dyed, viz.—
Singles, or train, organzine, & crape, lb
Silk manufactures.....
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with metal, or any other material, the produce of Europe, viz.—
Silk or satin, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded, viz.—
Broad stuffs, the lb.....
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb.....
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value....
Silk gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured or brocaded, viz.—
Broad stuffs the lb.....
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb.....
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value....
Velvet, plain or figured, viz.,
Broad stuffs, the lb.....
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb.....
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value..
Ribbons, plain silk, of one color only, the lb.....
plain satin, of one color only

Of or from Foreign Countries.

£ s. d.
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ARTICLES.

- silk or satin, striped, figured, or brocaded, or plain ribbons, of more than one color, the lb
gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded, the lb
gauze, mixed with silk, satin, or other materials, of less proportion than one half part of the fabric, the lb.....
velvet or silk embossed with velvet, the lb.....
- Artificial flowers, wholly or in part of silk, for every £100 value.....
- Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material called plush, commonly used for making hats, the lb.....
- Fancy silk net, or tulle, the lb.....
- Plain silk lace, or net called tulle, the lb
- Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other materials, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....
- Of or from a British Possession, for every £100 value.....
- Millinery of silk, or of which the greater part of the material is silk, viz:—
Turbans or caps..... each
Hats or bonnets..... each
Dresses..... each
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other materials, and articles of the same wholly or partially made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....
- Silk worm gut, for every £100 value
Raw.....
Knubs or Husks, and waste silk
Thrown, not dyed.....
- Skins or Furs, either tanned, tawed, dressed or undressed.....
- Skins, or articles manufactured of skins..... for every £100 value
- Smalls.....
- Snuff (see Tobacco).....
- Soap, hard.....
soft.....
Naples.....
Spermaceti, fine, until 1st Jan. 1849... [Afterwards free.]
- Spa Ware..... for every £100 value
- Speckled Wood.....
- Spelter or Zinc, rolled, but not otherwise manufactured.....
crude, in casks.....
Manufact. of, for every £100 value
- Spirits, or strong waters, of all sorts, viz.
For every gallon of such spirits or strong waters of any strength, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz:—
Spirits, not being spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession in America, or any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer..... gallon
- Spirits or strong waters, not the produce of any British Possessions, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength these

Of or from Foreign Countries

£ s. d.

0 10 0

0 14 0

0 12 6

0 10 0

25 0 0

0 2 0

0 8 0

0 8 0

15 0 0

0 0

0 3 6

0 7 0

1 10 0

15 0 0

10 0 0

free.

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
£ s. d.			£ s. d.
of cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer.....gallon	1 2 6	Succades, including all fruit and vegetables, preserved in sugar.....lb	0 0 0
Spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession in America, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid.....gallon	Sugar, the growth and produce of any British Possession in America, or of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited, and imported from thence, from the 5th day of September, 1846, viz:—
Rum, the produce of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled.....gallon	1. Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined.....cwt	1 1 0
Rum Shrub, however sweetened, the produce of and imported from such Possessions, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, or the produce of and imported from any British Possession in America.....gallon	Other refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt.....	0 18 8
Spirits, or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, except Rum, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, fulfilled, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid.....gallon	White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	0 16 4
Spirits, Cordials, or strong waters, not being the produce of any British Possession in America, nor of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, sweetened or mixed as aforesaid, and perfumed spirits to be used as perfumery only.....gallon	1 10 0	Brown sugar, being Muscovado, or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed, cwt	0 14 0
Cordials, or strong waters, (except Rum Shrub,) being the produce of any British Possession in America, or of any British Possession, qualified as aforesaid, sweetened or mixed with any article as aforesaid, gal	Candy, brown.....cwt	1 6 0
Cordials and Liqueurs, (except Rum Shrub,) being the produce of any Possession in America, or of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, sweetened or mixed as aforesaid, gallon	Candy, white.....cwt	1 16 0
Being of greater strength by Sykes's hydrometer (except Rum Shrub), gallon	Molasses.....cwt	0 5 3
Sponge.....barrel	free.	2. If the growth and produce of any other British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, from the 5th day of September, 1846, viz:
Spruce.....barrel	1 0 0	White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	1 1 9
Essence of, not otherwise described, dried and not dried.....cwt	10 pr. ct.	Brown sugar, being Muscovado, or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed, ed.....cwt	0 18 8
Of and from a British Possession, cwt	0 5 0	3. If of the growth and produce of any foreign country, and which shall be imported into the United Kingdom, either from the country of its growth, or from some British Possession, having first been imported into such British Possession from the country of its growth, from Sept. 5, 1846 to July 5, 1847—For duties after 1847, see table on p. 101:
From and after the 1st Feb. 1819, cwt	0 2 6	Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined.....cwt	1 11 8
Gum of, torrifed or calcined, commonly called British Gum, cwt	0 1 0	Other refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal thereto.....cwt	1 8 0
Of and from a British Possession, cwt	0 5 0	White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	1 4 8
Gum of, torrifed or calcined, commonly called British Gum, from and after 1st February, 1819.....cwt	0 2 6	Brown sugar, being Muscovado or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed, ed.....cwt	1 1 0
Stones, not exceeding 72 inches long, 7 inches broad, nor 8½ inches thickness	free.	Molasses.....cwt	0 7 10
Stavesacre.....cwt	free.	Candy, brown.....cwt	6 12 0
Steel, manufactures of.....cwt	10 pr. ct.	Candy, white.....cwt	8 8 0
unwrought.....cwt	free.	4. That the bounties or drawbacks following be paid and allowed upon the exportation of certain descriptions of refined sugar from the United Kingdom (that is to say):
scraps.....cwt	free.	Upon double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to Double refined.....cwt	1 0 0
Straw or Grass, for plaiting.....cwt	free.	Upon other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or lumps duly refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried, and being of an uniform whiteness throughout, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken.....cwt	0 17
Stone, viz:—	Upon bastard or refined sugar broken in pieces, or being ground, or powdered sugar pounded, or crushed, or broken.....cwt	0 14 0
In lumps, not in any manner hewn; limestone; slate and marble, in rough blocks or slabs; flintstone; felspar, and stones for potters' use; pebble stones; stones to be used for the purpose of lithography.....	free.	Sulphur impressions.....cwt	5 pr. ct.
In blocks, shaped or rough scaled.....	free.	Sweet wood.....cwt	free
Stone and Slate hewn.....ton	0 10 0		

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.	ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
£ s. d.		£ s. d.	
Timber or wood—not being deals, battens, boards, staves, handspikes, oars, latewood, or other timber or wood, sawn, split or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not being timber or wood, oth. charged with duty, load Deals battens, boards, or other timber or wood, sawn or split, and not otherwise charged with duty load	1 5 0	Of and from a British Possession, not otherwise charged, for every £100 val. Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated and not prohibited, for every £100 value.	5 0 0
Firewood per fathom of 216 feet	1 12 0	Yarn, worsted lb	0 0 8
Handspikes, not ex. 7 ft. in length. 120	0 10 0	Cable cwt	0 2 0
Exceeding 7 feet 120	1 0 0	Camel or Mohair	free
Knees under 6 inches square 120	2 0 0	Raw linen	free
5 inches and under 8 inches. 120	0 10 0	Zetreea	free
Lathwood, per fathom, of 216 cubic ft. 120	2 0 0	Zebra wood	free.
Oars	7 10 0	Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland	20 pr. ct.
Sparc or poles under 22 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter. 120	1 0 0	Goods, wares, and merchandise, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or not prohibited	5 per ct.
22 feet in length and upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter. 120	2 0 0	Goods unenumerated, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, not enumerated or prohibited	free.
All lengths 4 inches and under 6 inches	4 0 0		
Spokes for wheels, not exceeding 2 feet in length 1000	2 0 0		
Exceeding 2 feet in length 1000	4 0 0		
Billet or brushwood for stowage . . . £100	5 0 0		
Wood planed, or dressed, or prepared for use, not enumerated, and otherwise charged with duty, cubic foot)	0 0 7½		
Wood, for ship building	free.		
Birch, hewn, not exceeding three feet	free.		
Teak	free.		
Wool, Alpaca and the Llama tribe. cwt	0 2 6		
Beaver, out and combed, coney, hare, cotton	free.		
Goats', or hair lb	0 2 6		
Sheep, not being of the value of 1s. the lb. thereof lb	0 0 ½		
Being of the value of 1s. the lb., or upwards lb	0 0 1		
Woolens, articles and manufactures of wool not being goats' wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	10 0 0		
— the same, not wholly or in part made up	free.		

DUTIES TO CEASE.

Spermaceti after Jan. 1, 1849.
Sperm oil of foreign fishing . . . Ditto.
Train oil, or blubber of foreign fish-
ing after Jan. 1, 1847.
Whales' fins of foreign taking and not
prohibited after Jan. 1, 1847

EXPORT DUTIES.

The duties chargeable upon the goods, wares, and merchandises, hereafter mentioned, exported from the United Kingdom, shall cease and determine, viz:—
Cement, stone, and flint, ground or unground.
Clay and china stone.
Coals' culm, or cinders, exported in a British ship.

THE NEW SUGAR DUTIES.

The provision of the bill, which went into operation on the 5th of September, 1846, are all incorporated in the preceding list, except the duties to be levied after July 5, 1848, named in the following table.

On sugar, the growth and produce of any foreign country, and which shall be imported into the United Kingdom, either from the country of its growth, or from some British possession, having first been imported into such British possession from the country of its growth:—

	From Sept. 5, 1846, to July 5, 1847.	From July 5, 1847, to July 5, 1848.	From July 5, 1848, to July 5, 1849.	From July 5, 1849, to July 5, 1850.	From July 5, 1850, to July 5, 1851.	From July 5, 1851.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined, for every cwt.	1 11 6	1 10 0	1 7 0	1 5 6	1 3 1	The same duties as on sugar the produce of the British colonies
Other refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt.	1 8 0	1 6 8	1 4 6	1 2 8	1 0 8	
White clayed sugar, or sugar, rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, for every cwt.	1 4 6	1 3 4	1 1 7	0 19 10	0 18 1	
Brown sugar, being muscovado, or or clayed, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to white clayed, for every cwt.	1 1 0	1 0 0	0 18 6	0 17 0	0 15 6	
Candy, brown, for every cwt.	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0
Candy, white, for every cwt.	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0
Molassés, for every cwt.	0 7 10	0 7 6	0 6 11	0 6 4	0 5 9	The same duty as on molassés the produce of the British colonies.

12 silver piece.....	0.25				
Florin of Batavia.....	0.50 1-2				
Rix dollar, or 50 silver piece of the kingdom of Holland.....	1.03 1-4				
NETHERLANDS.					
GOLD.					
Gold Lion, or 14 florin piece.....	5.01				
Ten florin piece, 1820.....	3.98 1-2				
SILVER.					
Ducatoon, old.....	1.33 1-2				
Ducatoon of Maria Theresa.....	1.35 1-4				
Crown (½ in proportion).....	1.11				
5 silver piece.....	0.08 1-2				
Florin of 1730.....	0.34 1-2				
Florin of 1818.....	0.41 1-2				
Half florin (with divisions in proportion).....	0.30 3-4				
MODENA.					
SILVER.					
Scudo of 15 line, double, &c., of 1739, (½ in proportion).....	1.08 1-4				
Scudo of 5 line, 1732.....	0.34 5-8				
Scudo of 1796.....	0.50 1-4				
MILAN.					
GOLD.					
Seguin.....	2.26 3-4				
Doppia, or pistole.....	3.72 1-8				
40 line piece, of 1808.....	7.45				
SILVER.					
Scudo of six line, (½ in proportion).....	0.89 1-2				
Lira, new.....	0.24 1-2				
Lira, old.....	0.14 1-2				
Scudo of the Cisalpine Republic.....	0.90				
Piece of 30 soldi of do.....	0.21 1-2				
PARMA.					
GOLD.					
Quadruple pistole (double in proportion).....	14.50 1-2				
Pistole, or doppia, of 1787.....	4.17 1-2				
" of 1795.....	4.10				
Maria Theresa, 1818.....	3.82 1-2				
SILVER.					
Ducat of 1784.....	0.97 3-4				
Ducat of 1795 (½ in proportion).....	0.99 3-4				
Piece of 3 line.....	0.25				
HESSE CASTLE.					
SILVER.					
Rix dollar, convention.....	0.99 1-4				
Florin or piece ½ fine.....	0.25				
Half florin, or piece of ½ do.....	0.49 1-2				
Thaler of 1789.....	0.73				
Fen convention, 1815.....	0.08 1-4				
Bon Gros.....	0.02 3-4				
MALTA.					
GOLD.					
Double Louis.....	9.22 3-8				
Louis.....	4.63 1-2				
Demi Louis.....	2.33 1-4				
SILVER.					
Onnce of 50 tari Emmanuel Pinto.....	0.04 3-8				
2 tari piece.....	0.04 3-4				
LUBIC.					
SILVER.					
Rix dollar, specie.....	1.10 1-4				
Double mark.....	0.38 3-4				
Mark.....	0.39				
LUCCA.					
SILVER.					
Scudo.....	1.04 5-8				
Barbone.....	0.08 1-8				
NAPLES.					
GOLD.					
Six ducat piece, of 1783.....	5.21 1-2				
Two ducat piece, or Seguin, of 1762.....	1.50				
Three ditto, of 1718, or on octa.....	2.48 3-4				
SILVER.					
Ducat new (½ in proportion).....	0.82 3-4				
Piece of 12 carline, of 1791.....	0.08				
Do. of 1796.....	0.99				
Do. of 1815 (½ in proportion).....	0.99 7-8				
Do. of 10 carline, 1818.....	8.82 2-4				
PIEDMONT.					
GOLD.					
Pistole coined since 1785 (½, &c., in proportion).....				5.13 1-2	
Seguin (½ in proportion).....				2.36 5-8	
Carlino coined since 1785 (½, &c., in proportion).....				27.16 1-2	
Piece of 20 francs, called marango.....				3.53 3-4	
SILVER.					
Scudo of 1755 (1-2 in proportion).....				1.37 1-2	
Do. 1771 (1-2 and 3-4 in proportion).....				1.37 3-4	
Piece of 2 line, 1714.....				0.67 5-8	
5 franc piece, 1801.....				0.96 1-3	
POLAND.					
GOLD.					
Ducat.....				2.96 1-8	
SILVER.					
Rix dollar, old.....				1.01 3-8	
Rix dollar, new, 1794.....				0.71 1-4	
Florin or Gulden.....				0.23 1-4	
PORTUGAL.					
GOLD.					
Dobraon of 24,000 rees.....				32.44 3-8	
Dobra of 12,000 rees.....				16.05 3-8	
Moldors, or les bonnens, (half in proportion).....				6.51 3-8	
Piece of 16 Testoons, of 1,600 rees.....				2.11 1-8	
Old crusado, of 400 rees.....				0.05 3-8	
New crusado, of 400 rees.....				0.03	
Milree, coined for the African colonies, 1775.....				0.77 1-2	
SILVER.					
New crusado, 1690.....				0.67	
Do. 1718.....				0.56	
Do. 1795.....				0.56 1-2	
Dose Ventems, or piece of 240 rees, 1795.....				0.28	
New crusado, 1809.....				0.12	
Testoon, 1799.....				0.57 1-2	
Lola Ventems, or piece of 120 rees, 1812.....				0.13	
Testoon, 1832.....				0.11 8-10	
Trea Ventems, or piece of 60 rees, 1812.....				0.06 1-2	
Half testoon, 1812.....				0.05 5-8	
PORTUGUESE COLONIES.					
SILVER.					
Piece of 8 macutas, of Portuguese Africa.....				0.44 1-2	
Do. of 8 do.....				0.08 9-10	
Do. of 4 do.....				0.45 3-4	
PRUSSIA.					
GOLD.					
Ducat of 1748.....				2.26 3-4	
Ducat of 1747.....				2.25 1-3	
Frederic (double) 1776.....				7.92	
Do. (single) of 1778.....				2.97	
Do. (double) of 1800.....				7.90 7-8	
Do. (single) of 1800.....				3.03 3-4	
SILVER.					
[The Prussian coins having been debased at different periods, vary in their reports.]					
Rix dollar, Prussian currency (half in proportion).....				0.70 3-4	
Rix dollar, convention.....				1.01 3-4	
Florin, or piece ½ fine.....				0.25 1-2	
Florin of Sillesia.....				0.47 1-2	
Drittel, or piece of 8 groschen.....				0.23 3-4	
Piece of 6 groschen.....				0.17	
ROME.					
GOLD.					
Seguin coined since 1748.....				2.21 1-2	
Scudo of the republic.....				15.71	
SILVER.					
Scudo or crown coined since 1755.....				1.04 1-2	
Mezzo scudo, or half crown.....				0.56	
Testone, 1785.....				0.30 3-4	
Paolo, 1785.....				0.10 3-8	
Grosso or half Paolo, 1785.....				0.05	
Scudo of the Roman Republic, 1790.....				1.03 1-2	
RUSSIA.					
GOLD.					
Ducat of 1796.....				2.27 3-4	
Ducat of 1763.....				2.25 1-8	

.....	5.13 1-2
.....	2.90 5-8
.....	27.16 1-2
.....	3.33 3-4
.....	1.37 1-2
.....	1.37 3-4
.....	0.67 5-8
.....	0.90 1-2
.....	2.96 1-8
.....	1.01 3-8
.....	0.71 1-4
.....	0.23 1-4
.....	32.44 3-8
.....	10.95 3-8
.....	6.51 3-8
.....	2.11 1-8
.....	0.65 3-8
.....	0.03
.....	0.77 1-2
.....	0.67
.....	0.56
.....	0.50 1-2
.....	0.28
.....	0.19
.....	0.57 1-2
.....	0.13
.....	0.11 8-10
.....	0.00 1-2
.....	0.05 5-8
.....	0.44 1-2
.....	0.08 9-10
.....	0.45 3-4
.....	2.26 3-4
.....	2.25 1-3
.....	7.92
.....	3.97
.....	7.80 7-8
.....	3.93 3-4
.....	0.70 3-4
.....	1.01 3-4
.....	0.55 1-2
.....	0.47 1-2
.....	0.23 3-4
.....	0.17
.....	2.21 1-2
.....	15.71
.....	1.04 1-2
.....	0.56
.....	0.30 2-4
.....	0.10 3-8
.....	0.05
.....	1.03 1-2
.....	2.27 3-4
.....	2.25 1-8

Gold ruble of 1796.....	0.06
do. do. 1799.....	0.73
Gold pottin of 1777.....	0.34
Imperial of 1801.....	7.75 1-8
Half imperial of 1801.....	3.80 3-4
do. do. of 1803.....	3.90 06
Ruble of Peter the Great.....	0.87 1-2
do. of Catherine I., 1725.....	0.87
do. of Peter II., 1727.....	0.87 06
do. of Anne, 1731.....	0.80
do. of Elizabeth, 1730.....	0.90 1-4
do. of Peter III., 1702.....	0.78
do. of Catherine II., 1730.....	0.77 1-2
do. of Paul, 1799.....	0.78 7-8
do. of Alexander, 1803.....	0.78 1-4
do. do. 1805.....	0.77 1-8
50 Copeck piece of 1778.....	0.17 3-8
do. do. 1781.....	0.15 5-8
15 Copeck piece, 1778.....	0.11 1-4
10 do. do.	0.10 22
10 do. do. 1798.....	0.07 04
10 do. do. 1802.....	0.07 00
5 do. do. 1801.....	0.04 1-4
SARDINIA.	
GOLD.	
Carlino (half in proportion).....	7.42 1-5
SILVER.	
Scudo half crown (half and fourth in proportion).....	0.91 08
SAXONY.	
GOLD.	
Ducat of 1784.....	2.25 1-8
Ducat of 1797.....	2.23 1-2
Augustus of 1754.....	3.90 1-8
do. of 1834.....	3.94 5-8
SILVER.	
Rix dollar convention (half and fourth in proportion).....	1.00 3-4
Pieces of 16 groschens, of Leipzig.....	0.36
Rix dollar current of same.....	0.50
1-6 Thaler of 1804.....	0.12 5-8
do. of 1808.....	0.11 3-4
do. of Jerome Bonaparte, 1809.....	0.12 20
SICILY.	
GOLD.	
(Much variation is found in the fineness of the Sicilian gold coins.)	
Ounce of 1761.....	2.49 1-5
Double ounce of 1759.....	5.00 96
SILVER.	
Scudo (half in proportion).....	0.97 77
Piece of 40 grains.....	.28 3-4
SPAIN.	
GOLD.	
Doublem of 1772 (double and single in proportion).....	15.03 10
Quadruple pistole of 1801.....	15.43 54
Pistole of 1801.....	0.07 1-2
Caronilla gold dollar, or vintem of 1810.....	3.85
SILVER.	
(The American Spanish dollars, and inferior silver pieces of late coinage, vary in fineness from W 4 dwts. to W 9 1/2 dwts.)	
Dollar of late coinage.....	1.03 1-4
Half dollar do. (fourth in proportion).....	0.51 1-8
Mexican piece, 1774.....	0.25 7-8
Real of Mexico in plate, 1775.....	0.12 3-4
Picata provincial of 2 reals of new plate, 1775.....	0.20 1-8
Real of new plate of 1795.....	0.10 08
SWEDEN.	
GOLD.	
Ducat.....	2.22 1-2
SILVER.	
Rix dollar of 1762.....	1.11 1-8
Rix dollar of late coinage.....	1.09 1-4

SWITZERLAND.		9 c.
GOLD.		
Pistole of the Helvetic republic of 1800.....		4.54
SILVER.		
Eu, or Rix dollar of Luzerne (fourth in proportion).....		1.01 1-4
Old Gulden, or Florin of Luzerne, 1714.....		0.43
Eu of 40 batzen of Luzerne, 1798.....		1.15 3-4
Half do. do.		0.54 97
Florin or piece of 40 schillings of Luzerne, 1793.....		0.37
Eu of 40 batzen, of the Helvetic republic, 1798 (half in proportion).....		1.16
Eu of 4 franken of 1801.....		1.16
TREVES.		
GOLD.		
Ducat.....		2.25 1-8
TURKEY.		
GOLD.		
Segulin fondoull of Constantinople, 1773.....		1.85
Segulu fondoull of 1789.....		1.83 3-8
Half missier, 1818.....		0.51 1-4
Segulin fondoull.....		1.81 3-4
Yernseedheehlek.....		3.00 3-4
SILVER.		
Piastre of Selim of 1801.....		0.26 5-8
do. of Crim Tartary, 1778.....		0.27 3-8
do. of Tunis 1757.....		0.28 94
do. of 1818.....		0.18 90
TUSCANY.		
GOLD.		
Zechino or Segulin.....		2.28 3-4
Rupee of the kingdom of Etruria.....		6.89 1-8
SILVER.		
Piece of 10 Paoli of the kingdom of Etruria, 1801.....		1.04 1-2
Scudo of Pisa of do. 1803.....		1.05 1-4
Piece of 10 Lire do. 1803.....		1.62 1-2
Lira, 1803.....		0.14 5-8
VENICE.		
GOLD.		
Rechino or segulin (half to fourth in proportion).....		2.29 3-8
SILVER.		
Piece of 2 lire or 24 cruzers, 1800.....		0.09 1-4
do. of 2 lire called moneta, provincial, 1806.....		0.09 1-2
do. of 2 lire, 1802 (half in proportion).....		0.08 1-8
WURTEMBERG.		
GOLD.		
Carolin.....		4.66 3-4
Ducat.....		2.22 1-8
Ducat (double and half ducat in proportion).....		3.25 1-2
SILVER.		
Rix dollar, specie.....		1.05
Copfstuck.....		0.16 1-2
EAST INDIES.		
GOLD.		
Mohur of 1770.....		7.99 7-8
Mohur, half (1787) 1/2 in proportion.....		4.05 1-2
Mohur Sica of Bengal.....		7.28 3-4
Mohur of the Dutch East India Company, 1783.....		7.95 1-4
Mohur, half do., 1801.....		4.12 1-2
Rupee, Bombay, 1818.....		7.04 1-4
Rupee of Madras, 1818.....		7.05 1-2
Pagoda star.....		1.8 3-4
SILVER.		
Rupee sica, coined by the East India Company of Calcutta, 1818.....		0.40 1-4
do. Calcutta, 1818.....		0.49 3-8
do. Bombay, new, or Surat, 1818.....		0.46
Panam ouenmore.....		0.08
do. Bombay.....		0.09 3-4
do. Pondicherry.....		0.06 3-8
do. double.....		0.10 7-8

CANTON, CHINA.

The Spanish dollar and other foreign coins, circulate in Canton.

Accounts are kept in *taels, mace, cardarines, and cash.*

10 mace, 1 tael, equal to 100 cardarines, or 1000 cash, 6s. 8d.

Cash is of one kind only and cast, not coined. It is composed of 6 parts of copper and 4 of lead.

The value of the tael varies with the value of one ounce of Spanish dollars, in London, its standard.

The tables given for ascertaining its proportional value, may be calculated in pence sterling by the multiplier 1.208—thus, if the price of the Spanish dollar be 60d. per os, The value of the tael will be

$60 \times 1.208 = 72.48$ d. If a 66, the tael will be worth 79.728 d., and so on in the same proportion.

Gold Ingots are not considered as money but as

merchandise. The ingots are of determined weight called by the English shoes, the largest of which weighs 10 taels each, and is reckoned 93 to 94 tones (pence), and from 6 to 7 parts alloy.

Silver Ingots are used as money, and weigh from one half to 100 taels, and are composed of 94 parts pure silver and six of alloy.

Gold and silver are weighed by the catty of 16 taels. The tael is divided into 10 mace, 100 cardarines, or 1000 cash. 100 Taels weigh 120 or 15 dwts.

Troy, which makes the tael equal to 6798 English grains, or 37.566 grammes, F.

The following table of weights is applied to merchandise:

	lb. oz. dwts.	
1 Tael weighs, avoirdupois	1 5.333=	1 1/2 oz.
16 Taels, or catty	1 6 5.333=	1 1/2 lb.
100 Catties, or one picul	133 5 5.333=	133 1/2 lb.

NOTE BY THE COMPILER.

The Government valuation of \$4.84 cts. to the pound sterling has been adhered to throughout the compilation. This gives 24 4-20 cts. to the shilling sterling, or 12 2-20 cts. to the 6d. sterling. Odd pennies were estimated in the table as two cents to the penny. The basis of the compilation was found in assays of foreign coins carefully made at the mints of Paris and London, reduced to sterling money for their true standard value, and from thence into the currency of the United States.

Should the difference of exchange make the pound sterling less or more in value than \$4.84 cts., it will of course, to the same extent affect the value of foreign coins in federal money. Foreign exchanges at all times influence the value of all metallic currencies, foreign and domestic. As London is by common consent the chief centre and regulator of exchanges, the pound sterling at \$4.84 cts. has been adopted as the standard in forming the present compilation, or Cambist, by which the increase or decrease in the value of foreign coins, according to the varying rates of exchange can be ascertained. To make the compilation as practical as possible, many small fractions less than an eighth of a cent, have been dropped, except where smaller fractions have been introduced for discriminating between very slight differences between coins of different dates, &c., of the same country.

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH THE VALUE OF CERTAIN FOREIGN COINS AND MONEYS OF ACCOUNT, AND TO AMEND EXISTING LAWS.—PASSED 1846.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That in all computation at the Custom-house, the Foreign Coins and money of account herein specified, shall be estimated as follows, to wit:

The specie dollar of Sweden and Norway, at	\$1.060
The specie dollar of Denmark, at	1.030
The thaler of Prussia and of the northern States of Germany, at	0.630
The florin of the southern States of Germany, at	0.100
The florin of the Austrian empire and of the city of Augsburg, at	0.485
The Ducat of Naples, at	0.800
The ounce of Sicily, at	2.400
The lira of the Lombardo Venetian kingdom and the lira of Tuscany, at	0.160
The franc of France and Belgium, and the lira of Sardinia, at	0.180
The pound of the British provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Canada, at	4.000

And all laws inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

TABLE OF EXCHANGE,

Shewing the value of the Pound Sterling of Great Britain, in Dollars and Cents, from par value to 12 per cent. premium, according to the advance value in the standard of Gold made by act of Congress during Gen. Jackson's administration.

As the present rates of Sterling Exchange, from custom, continue to be calculated on the old par value standard of \$1.44 cents to the pound, it will be perceived that when it nominally reaches 9 per cent., it is only then at par—or \$1.814 to the pound, according to the new standard. Hence, when it is quoted at higher rates than 9 per cent., exchange is then above par, and when below 9 per cent., it is then under par to the same extent.

Old Par Ex.	\$1.444	3 1/2%	\$1.589	6 1/2%	\$1.722	9%	4.856
1/4	4.456	3 3/4%	4.600	6%	4.733	9 1/2%	4.867
1/2	4.467	3 3/8%	4.611	5 3/4%	4.744	9 3/4%	4.878
3/4	4.478	3 3/4%	4.622	7%	4.755	10%	4.889
1	4.489	4%	4.633	7 1/2%	4.767	10 1/2%	4.900
1 1/4	4.500	4 1/4%	4.644	7 3/4%	4.778	10 3/4%	4.911
1 1/2	4.511	4 1/2%	4.655	7 3/8%	4.789	10 3/8%	4.922
1 3/4	4.522	5%	4.667	8%	4.800	11%	4.933
2	4.533	5 1/4%	4.678	8 1/2%	4.811	11 1/2%	4.944
2 1/4	4.544	5 1/2%	4.689	8 3/4%	4.822	11 3/4%	4.955
2 1/2	4.555	5 3/4%	4.700	8 3/8%	4.833	11 3/8%	4.967
2 3/4	4.567	6%	4.711	9 New Par Ex.	4.844	2	4.978
3	4.578						

TABLE SHOWING THE VALUE OF STERLING MONEY, IN FEDERAL CURRENCY FROM 1 PENNY TO 1 POUND.

£	s.	d.	\$ cts.	£	s.	d.	\$ cts.
0	0	1	0.02	0	6	0	1.45 4-20
0	0	2	0.04	0	7	0	1.69 1-4
0	0	3	0.06 1-20	0	8	0	1.93 3-8
0	0	4	0.08 1-20	0	9	0	2.17 3-4
0	0	5	0.10 1-20	0	10	0	2.42
0	0	6	0.12 2-20	0	11	0	2.66 4-20
0	0	7	0.14 2-20	0	12	0	2.90 1-4
0	0	8	0.16 2-20	0	13	0	3.14 9-20
0	0	9	0.18 3-20	0	14	0	3.38 1-2
0	0	10	0.20 3-20	0	15	0	3.62 1-2
0	0	11	0.22 3-20	0	16	0	3.87 2-20
0	1	or 12	0.24 4-20	0	17	0	4.12
0	2	0	0.48 8-20	0	18	0	4.36 1-4
0	3	0	0.72 1-2	0	19	0	4.60
0	4	0	0.96 3-4	1	or 20	0	4.84 4-20
0	5	0	1.21				

A TABLE OF FOREIGN WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, REDUCED TO THE STANDARD OF THE UNITED STATES.

Ahm, in Amsterdam	41 gallons.	Last, in Flushing, of grain	92 3/4 do
Aimudo, in Portugal	4 1/2 do.	Last, in Hamburg, of grain	69.64 do
Aimude, in Madeira	4.69 do.	Last, in Lubec, of grain	over 91 do
Aliquere, in Madeira	over 1 1/2 pecks.	Last, in Portugal, of salt	70 do
Aliquere, in Portugal	1 1/2 to 1 3/4 pecks.	Last, in Rotterdam, of grain	55.136 do
Aliquere, in Bahia	1 bushel.	Last, in Sweden	75 do
Aliquere, in Maranham	1 1/2 do.	Last, in Utrecht, of grain	over 69 do
Aliquere, in Rio J. and Pernambuco	1 or 1 1/4 do.	Lis pound, in Hamburg	16 lbs. 6 oz.
Anna, of rice, in Ceylon	260 2-5 lb.	Lis pound, in Holland	18 lbs. 4 oz.
Arroba, in Portugal	83 lb. 12 or	Mark, in Holland	160
Arroba, in Spain	24 lb.	Mand, in Calcutta	75 a 84 lbs.
Arroba, in Spain (large)	4.246 galls.	Mina, in Genoa, of grain	3.43 bushels.
Arroba, in Spain (small)	4 do.	Mount, in France	1 ton.
Arroba, in Malaga, in wine	about 4 1/2 do.	Moy, in Lisbon	24 do.
Arsheen, in Russia	28 inches.	Moy, in Oporto	30 do.
Bahar in Batavia	3 a and 4 1/2 piculs.	Oke, in Smyrna	2.83 lbs.
Bale of cinnamon, in Ceylon net	10 1/2 lbs.	Orna, in Trieste, of wine	14.04 galls.
Barile, in Leghorn, of wine	12.04 gallons.	Orna, of oil	17 do.
Centar, in Levant contain	44 okeas. 118.80 lbs.	Picul, in Batavia and Madras	133 lbs.
Barile, in Leghorn, of oil	88 do.	Picul, in China and Japan	133 1/2 lbs.
Centar, in Malta	174 1/2 do.	Pipe, in Spain, of wine	160 a 164 galls.
Centar, in Naples	107 a 196 1/2 do.	Podd in Russia	36 lbs.
Centar in Sicily	175 a 192 1/2 do.	Quarter of grain, in England	3 bushels.
Carro, in Naples, of grain	52 1/2 bushels.	Quintal, of Portugal	69.95 do.
Carro, in Naples, of wine	264 gals.	Quintal, in Smyrna	129.48 do.
Catty, of tea, in China	1 1/2 lb.	Quintal, in Spain	96 do.
Cayang, in Batavia	3-551 do.	Quintal, in Turkey	167 lbs. 3 oz.
Chat wort, in Russia	5.95 bushels.	Rottoll, in Portugal	12 lbs. 4 oz.
Fanega, in Spain	over half a bushel.	Rottoll, in Genoa	24 lbs.
Hectolitre, in France	2.84 do.	Salma, in Malta, of grain	8.22 bushels.
Kilogramme, in France and Netherlands	2.21 lbs.	Salma, in Sicily, of grain	97 do.
Last, in Amsterdam, of grain	83 1/2 bushels.	Shippound, in Hamburg and Denmark	331 lbs.
Last, in Bremen, of grain	80 do.	Shippound, in Holland	368 lb. 4 oz.
Last, in Cadiz, of salt	76 4-5 do.	Sturo, in Trieste	7 1/2 bushels.
Last, in Dantzic, of grain	nearly 93 do.	Tale, in Chins.	14 oz.

FREIGHTS.—QUANTITY OF GOODS TO COMPOSE A TON.

Extract from the By-Laws of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

Resolved, That when vessels are freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made between the owner of the vessel and freighter of the goods, respecting the proportion of tonnage which each particular article shall be computed at, the following regulation shall be the standard of computation:—

That the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal a ton of heavy materials, shall be in weight as follows: 1568 lbs. of coffee in casks, 1330 lbs. in bags; 1130 lbs. of cocoa in casks, 1307 lbs. in bags.

932 lbs. pimento in casks, 1110 in bags.

Eight barrels of flour, 196 lbs. each.

Six barrels of beef, pork, tallow, pickled fish, pitch, tar and turpentine.

Twenty hundred weight of pig and bar iron, potashes, sugar, logwood, fustic, Nicaragua wood, and all heavy drygoods, rice, honey, copper ore, and all other heavy goods.

Sixteen hundred weight of coffee, cocoa, and dried

codfish, in bulk, and twelve hundred weight of dried codfish in casks of any size.

Six hundred weight of ship bread in casks, seven hundred in bags, and eight hundred in bulk.

Two hundred gallons (wine measure), reckoning the full contents of the casks, oil, wine, brandy, or any kind of liquors.

Twenty-two bushels of grain, peas, or beans, in casks.

Thirty-six bushels of grain in bulk.

Thirty-six bushels of European salt.

Thirty-one bushels of salt from the West Indies.

Twenty-nine bushels of sea-coal.

Forty feet (cubic measure) of mahogany, square timber, oak plank, pine, and other boards, heavers, furs, petty, beeswax, cotton, wool, and bale goods of all kinds.

One hoghead of tobacco, and ten hundred weight of dry hides.

Eight hundred weight of China raw silk, ten hundred weight of net bohea, and 800 green tea.

of determined weight
s, the largest of which
weighed 93 to 94 tons
as alloy.
money, and weigh from
composed of 94 parts
hed by the catty of 16
into 10 mace, 100 carats
weigh 120 oz. 16 dwts.
equal to 679.8 English
ights is applied to mer-
lb. oz. dwts.
1 5.333 = 1 1/2 oz.
1 5 5.333 = 1 1/2 lb.
133 5 5.333 = 133 1/2 lb.

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**INS AND MONEYS
ESSED 1846.**

of America, in Con
s and money of account
.....\$1.060
.....1.050
.....0.690
.....0.400
.....0.385
.....0.800
.....2.400
.....0.160
.....0.180
.....4.000

se, from par value to 12
ade by act of Congress

calculated on the old par
ominally reaches 9 per
new standard. Hence,
and when below 9 per

1/2.....4.856
1/4.....4.867
1/8.....4.878
1/16.....4.889
1/32.....4.900
1/64.....4.911
1/128.....4.922
1/256.....4.933
1/512.....4.944
1/1024.....4.955
1/2048.....4.967
1/4096.....4.978

TABLE OF DUTIES

ON IMPORTS INTO CANADA.

Compiled conformable to the Revenue Laws in force from the 6th April 1846

NOTE.—Articles from Foreign Countries pay the rates opposite to them, in both columns. Articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of the British Possessions, pay the PROVINCIAL Duty only. Foreign articles (except Sugar and Tea) from the Warehouse in the United Kingdom pay three-fourths of the Imperial Duty, and the Provincial Duty in full. British Goods imported into this Province from a foreign country are deemed foreign.

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVIN- CIAL.	ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVIN- CIAL.
Als and Heer.....	per ct. 4	3d gal*	Campine.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Do. in bottles.....	4	1s gal*	Candles, spern.....	15	3d lb
Almonds.....	4	1d pr lb	Wax.....	7	2d lb
Almonds, Bitter.....	4	1d "	Other.....	7	1d lb*
Ammunition, arms, &c., foreign...pro-		prohib	Canes.....	4	5 pr ct
hibited		5 pr ct	Carriages, all kinds.....	4	10 pr ct
Do. British...free		free	Carriages, of travellers.....	free	3se
Anatomical preparations.....	per ct. 4	10 pr ct	Cassia and cinnamon.....	4	2d lb
Anchovies, in oil.....	4	6d bush	Castings (see Hardware)		
Apples, fresh.....	free	1s "	Castor oil.....	free	10 pr ct
Apples, dried.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct	Cement.....	per ct. 4	5 "
Arrow root.....	4	5 "	Chairs.....	per cwt. 5s	5 "
Articles, all, not enumerated or in-		5 "	Cheese.....	per cwt. 5s	2s 6d cwt
cluded under any general head	4	5 "	Chocolates.....	per ct. 4	2d lb
Ashes.....	4	1 "	Cider.....	4	1d gal *
Bacon.....	per cwt 3s	5s cwt	Clay.....	2	5 pr ct
Baggage of travellers.....	free	free	Clocks.....	7	10 pr ct
Bark.....	per ct. 4	1 pr ct	Clothing,—according to materials		
Barley, beans, bere or bigg, buck-		3s pr qr	Cloves.....	4	2d lb
wheat.....	free	5 pr ct	Coals.....	4	1 pr ct
Beeswax.....	per ct. 4	1 "	Cochineal.....	per cwt. 1s	5 "
Berries, nuts, and vegetables, used		1 "	Cocoa.....	per cwt. 1s	8 pr lb
in dyeing.....	4	10 "	Coffee, green.....	5s	1d pr lb
Biscuit.....	free	5 "	Do. roasted.....	5s	2d "
Blacking.....	per ct. 4	5 "	Do. ground.....	5s	4d "
Blacklead pencils.....	4	5 "	Coin, base.....	prohibited	prohib
Bolting cloth.....	4	5 "	Coin and bullion.....	free	free
Bone and ivory, articles of.....	4	5 "	Combs, metal.....	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Boots and shoes, women's of leather	7	7s 6d dos	Combs, other.....	4	5 "
Boots and shoes, women's stuff,		7s 6d *	Copper (see Hardware).		
jean, kid or morocco.....	7	7s 6d *	Coriage.....	7	5 "
Do. of silk or satin.....	15	7s 6d *	Cordials.....	per gal. 1s	2s gal
Do. girls, of 7 inches and under,		2s 6d "	Corks.....	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Do. of leather.....	7	3s "	Cork.....	4	5 "
Do. do. of jean, stuff, morocco,		3s "	Cotton Wool.....	free	1 "
or kid.....	7	3s "	Cotton batts and wadding.....	per ct. 7	5 "
Do. do. of silk or satin.....	15	3s "	Cotton manufactures.....	7	5 pr ct
Boots, men's, leather.....	7	2s 6d pair	Crackers and biscuit.....	free	10 pr ct
Men's shoes, leather.....	7	1s "	Currants.....	per ct. 4	5s cwt
Boys, boys', under 8 in., of leather...	7	1s 3d "	Diamonds.....	free	5 pr ct
Boys' shoes, of leather.....	7	9d "	Drugs.....	free	5 "
Boots and shoes of india rubber, all...	4	6d "	Dyewoods.....	per ct. 4	5 "
Books.....	7	5 pr ct	Earthenware.....	4	5 "
Books, reprints of British works,		prohib	Eggs.....	4	10 "
the copyrights of which are in force		3d cwt	Engravings.....	7	5 "
(Prohibited)		5 pr ct	Extracts and essences (such as are		
Bran or shorts.....	free	5 pr ct	drugs).....	free	10 "
Bricks.....	per ct. 4	5 "	Do. (not classed as drugs).....	per ct. 4	10 "
Bristles.....	4	5 "	Feathers.....	4	5 "
Brooms.....	4	5 "	Flour of wheat.....	per bbl. 2s	6d bbl
Brushes.....	4	5 "	Flour and meal, other.....	free	2s 19s lb
Burr blocks.....	4	1 pr ct	Figs.....	per ct. 4	5s cwt
Butter.....	per cwt 2s	2s cwt	Fig, blue.....	4	5 pr ct
Cabinet furniture.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct	Fine and skins of sea animals.....	15	5 "

* The Provincial Duty on all goods marked (*) in the Table is 5 per cent. when imported by sea. Against the articles of Dyewoods and Indigo, I have placed the duties which are actually levied upon them. My own opinion, however, is, that they are entitled to entry at 4 per cent. Provincial Duty.

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVIN- CIAL.	ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVIN- CIAL.
Spirits of turpentine.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ot	Deals—Pine, per Quebec, Stand- ard 100.....	free	15s 100
Sponges.....	4	5 "	Spruces, per ditto.....	free	7s 6d "
Starch.....	4	5 "	Handspikes.....	free	3d dos
Straw goods.....	free	3s ton	Oars.....	free	3d pair
Straw candy.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct	Sawed lumber, board measure ..	free	7s 6d
Sugar, foreign refined, in bond, in the U. Kingdom and imported	20	2d lb	Wood, all manufactures of.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
direct.....	10	2d lb	Wood, mahogany and hard woods, for furniture.....	free	1 "
Sugar, refined.....	20	2d lb	Woolen manufactures.....	per ct. 7	5 "
Sugar, raw, or Muscovado, per owt.	5s	1d lb	Wool.....	per ct. 4	5 "
Sugar, bastard and all others.....	5s	1b lb	Yeast.....	4	5 "
Sumach.....	per ct. 4	1 pr ct			
Syrups.....	4	9 gall			
Tallow.....	free	1 pr ct			
Tar.....	per ct. 4	5 "			
Tea, from foreign countries, per lb.	1d	1d lb			
Tea, direct from China, the United Kingdom, or British Possessions, free		1d lb			
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	per ct. 4	1d lb			
Do. manufactured.....	7	1d lb			
Tortoise shell.....	free	5 pr ct			
Toys, according to materials.					
Trees, shrubs, plants, bulbs, and Roots.....	per ct. 4	free			
Turpentine.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ct			
Types—as Hardware.....	4	5 "			
Varnish.....	free	5 "			
Vegetables, fresh.....	free	10 "			
Veners.....	free	1 "			
Vinagar.....	per ct. 4	3d gall			
Wafers.....	4	5 pr ct			
Watches.....	7	10 "			
Wheat.....	per ct. 4	3s pr qr			
Whetstone.....	per ct. 4	5 pr ot			
Whips.....	7	5 "			
Woker work.....	4	5 "			
Wine, all kinds.....	7	10 pr ct & 8d gall			
Wood, vis:		{ 25s per 1000 ft			
Timber—White pine.....	free	35s do			
Red pine.....	free	55s do			
Oak.....	free	50s do			
Birch.....	free	25s do			
Other woods.....	free	25s pr M			
Staves—Standard per 32d Mille, free					
Punchoon, or W. I.					
White oak.....	free	10s "			
Do. red oak.....	free	7s 6d "			
Do. ash.....	free	4s "			
Barrel staves.....	free	4s "			

EXEMPTIONS.

The following exemptions refer to the Provincial duty only:

I. Copies of the Holy Scriptures, printed in the United Kingdom.

II. Donations of books or clothing, specially imported for the use of, or to be distributed gratuitously by any Charitable Society in the Province.

III. Philosophical apparatus, instruments, books, maps, statuary, busts and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, engravings, etchings, specimens of sculptures, cabinets of coins, medals, gems, all other collections of antiquities, provided the same be specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for Philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use of or by the order of any university, college, academy, school, or seminary of learning, within this Province.

IV. Arms or clothing which any contractor or contractors, commissaries, shall import or bring into the Province, for the use of Her Majesty's army or navy, or for the use of the Indian nations in this Province: Provided the duty otherwise payable would be delayed or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom or of this Province.

V. Specimens in natural history, mineralogy, and botany.

VI. Seeds of all kinds, farming utensils and implements of husbandry, animals for the improvement of stock,—when specially imported in good faith by any society incorporated or established for the encouragement of agriculture.

REMARKS.

I. The specific duties are levied according to the Imperial weights and measures, and in sterling money.—20s. stg.—24s. 4d. cy. or \$4 87. The Imperial Quarter of Grain is equal to 8¼ of our Winchester bushels.

II. In calculating the ad valorem Duties under the Imperial Act, one-tenth is first added to the amount of the invoices.

III. When the Tares cannot be ascertained from the Invoice, the following are allowed:—On Coffee, in bags, 3 per cent.; Coffee in casks, 12 per cent.; Raw Sugar and Molasses, 12 per cent.; Loaf Sugar in casks or boxes, 15 per cent.; Loaf Tobacco in casks, 12 per cent.

IV. Bonds, satisfactory to the Collector, will be taken for the Provincial Duties (except the Provincial Duties on live stock, grain, meal, provisions, and other agricultural produce), when the same shall exceed £50 currency, at 6 months' but all dated from 1st September till 1st April, are due on the 1st April. All other duties are payable in cash.

V. Goods imported, whether by sea or inland, may be entered for warehousing, and exported from the warehouse without payment of duty. American products may descend the St. Lawrence in bond, and be exported into the United States by way of Leprairie and St. John's.

UNITED STATES DRAWBACK BILL.

I insert the two clauses of this Bill which bear upon the trade with this Province:

Sec. 7. And be it further enacted, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburgh, in the district of Champlain; Burlington, in the District of Vermont; Sackett's Harbor, Oswego and Ogdensburg, in the districts of Oswego and Rochester; in the district of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the district of Niagara; Cleveland, in the district of Cuyahoga; Sandusky and Detroit, together with such ports on the seaboard, from which merchandise may now be exported for the benefit of drawback, are hereby declared ports from whence foreign goods, wares, and merchandise on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water, from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback: Provided, That such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American Provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

Sec. 8. And be it further enacted, That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties on goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this act, they shall produce to the collector of the port, from which such goods, wares and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining Province; which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the same manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom house, and that the duties imposed thereon at the said foreign port had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

Sec. 10—Provides, that in paying the drawback, 2½ per cent. of the duties be retained.

The undersigned, in again presenting to his friends and correspondents a Revised Tariff of Import Duties, avails himself of the occasion to express his gratitude for the encouragement which he has received from them during the past five seasons; and in regard to the present season, he is happy to say that he possesses increased facilities for forwarding, inwards or outwards, all property that may be consigned to him, with the greatest possible dispatch. In order to this, however, it is necessary that he should be furnished with Invoices, a fact which he particularly requests shippers to bear in mind.

It would facilitate the entry of goods and lessen the delay, if packages, containing assorted goods, were numbered and invoiced to correspond, so that the exact contents of each package could be known without its being opened and unpacked.

Any of the correspondents of the undersigned, who may not have received a copy of this table, may have one sent, by acquainting him with the omission. He will, at all times, be happy to furnish additional information regarding our trade through this port with the United States, to those who may favor him with their correspondence.

The moderate and uniform rate of charges which the undersigned has adopted, having always proved satisfactory to his employers, he shall strictly adhere to; and shall, in return, look for a prompt settlement of his accounts when presented.

WILLIAM COOTE,

Custom House and Forwarding Agent.

Railroad Wharf St. John's, C. E., 1845.

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