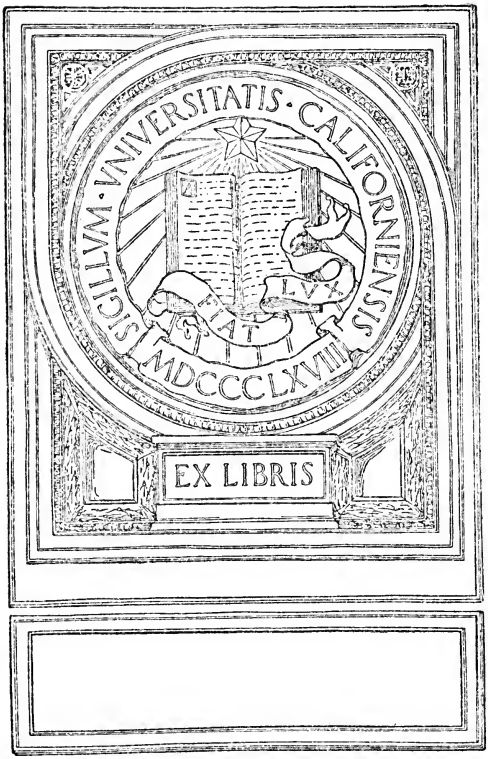
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FEW MONTHS IN AMERICA:

CONTAINING REMARKS ON SOME OF ITS

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS.

BY JAMES ROBERTSON.

The band of commerce was design'd
T' associate all the branches of mankind;
And if a boundless plenty be the robe,
Trade is the golden girdle, of the globe.

COWPER.

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PREFACE.

Having had occasion to pass a few months in the United States, during the winter of 1853-4, a considerable amount of information, upon various subjects, was brought under my notice, some of which, it occurred to me, would not be without interest to English readers.

But, as the subjects which most naturally come under the consideration of travellers have been well nigh exhausted by previous writers, I have, in the following pages, almost entirely confined my remarks to those which do not ordinarily engage their attention—to the material interests of the country—to those subjects with which it is the business of mercantile men, having commercial relations with the States, to make themselves more or less acquainted; and it has been my study to communicate these remarks with simplicity, with accuracy, and within a small compass. The subjects have been connected by a brief narrative, to lend variety to what might otherwise, by many readers, have been deemed tedious; at the same time, this arrangement has been convenient for the more natural introduction of the topics which are brought under review.

During the first few weeks I was in the States, I was much impressed with their apparent wealth. The solidity of the buildings in the cities, the immense quantities of produce brought

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to the sea-ports, the activity of the people, and their liberal, I might say, their profuse expenditure, led me to form a high opinion of the great natural resources of the country. With longer experience, and with more information, those opinions were much modified. The country is not so rich as it seems to be at first sight, though its wealth is more equally diffused than in England, and is much more freely expended.

I would here venture to make a remark which more properly should have formed a part of the text. The New Englanders—the Yankees, properly so called—are essentially a commercial people. Their natural inclinations lead them to trade—to manufacture—to drive a bargain—to speculate. To secure a field for the exercise of this their peculiar talent, they have encouraged, and succeeded in establishing, an illiberal commercial policy throughout the Union, under favour of which, undertakings of various kinds have thriven that otherwise would not have existed for many months. By means of protection, undertakings have been fostered that are a tax upon the community; and their profits have been made at the expense of the nation. Hence, capital has been diverted to unnatural channels, and the average rate of profit has been diminished throughout the Union.

On this account, the New England States, to some extent Pennsylvania, and part of Louisiana may be said to be burdens on the industry of the other states in the Union, and to prosper at their expense. Were the other states to inaugurate a more liberal policy, and to introduce the principles of Free Trade, I venture to believe that in a few years the population of the New England States would be considerably diminished, and that in the meantime, emigration would go on towards the West as actively as it has done in recent years from Ireland.

It was at one time my intention to make a few remarks on some of the interests of the Canadas, but to the applications

for information made at the local government offices, no reply was received. This I do not now regret, because the subjects which would have engaged my attention, have, in addition to others, been exhausted by Mr. Brown, in his able article "Canada," in the "Encyclopædia Britannica."

I take this opportunity of expressing the obligations under which I lie to numerous friends in the States, who provided me with information. Those friends were not merely in one or two cities, but in almost every one I visited. Where so many are entitled to my thanks, it would be impossible to name them all, and it would be invidious to name but a few.

JAMES ROBERTSON.

Manchester, March 17*th*, 1855.

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CHAPTER I.

LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK—NEW YORK CITY—ITS COMMERCE AND COMMUNICATIONS—AMUSEMENTS—JOHN MITCHELL.

On the 16th of November, 1853, I sailed from Liverpool for New York, in the Collins' Steamer the "Atlantic."

My fellow passengers, with the exception of about half-a-dozen, were all Americans, and being from various parts of the Union, I ventured to consider them a fair representation of the people. The general knowledge gained during twelve days from such a mixed assemblage, I afterwards found to be a valuable preparation for travelling through the States.

During the first four-and-twenty hours, the weather was unusually fine, and we progressed rapidly. The passengers, free from sea-sickness, were full of enjoyment, and the deck was a scene of the most active excitement. But a calm sea in the Atlantic is of rare occurrence, even in a favourable season of the year, and yet more so in November. As we passed Cape Clear, and came into the long swell of the Ocean, the motion of the ship became very disagreeable, and soon put an end to all amusements. The ladies soon disappeared, and shortly afterwards their example was followed by most of the gentlemen. On the second day, the attendance at the dinner table was thin, and at the hour of tea, the cabin was nearly deserted. Of those who thus vanished, many did not again appear for some days, and a few not till we approached our destination.

After the second day we had a succession of squalls, gales, and, in two instances, of rather severe storms. This rough weather continued for nine successive days, and during most of that time, we could scarcely get on deck.

However exhilarating it may be for a sailor to encounter a storm at sea, it is not at first a very agreeable adventure for a landsman, who entertains a secret feeling, that it would be quite as comfortable to view the storm from a safe position on land. And yet, there is an excitement in finding one's-self tossed in a ship on the wide ocean, and in seeing the boiling waters lashed into fury by the tempestuous winds. Still, a calm was a relief, and it was more grateful to have a glimpse of the sun, than to see the air thickened with spray, till it became difficult to distinguish the sea from the surrounding atmosphere.

In conformity with an annual custom in the New England States, at the conclusion of the harvest, the 24th was kept as a day of thanksgiving. In the evening one of the passengers delivered an address, in the course of which he alluded at considerable length to Great Britain, and to the friendly relations existing between the two countries. His remarks were warmly applauded, particularly when he referred to the Queen. Such sentiments I found to be pretty general in America, for, although on the surface there is some desire to under-estimate many things in England, yet under that, there is easily perceived a feeling of warm attachment to the mother country.

There was no library on board, and the passengers were therefore compelled to rely on their own resources, to enable them to pass the time agreeably. Various expedients were employed, to create excitement; but with rough weather, and the consequent violent motion of the vessel, none of them were very successful.

Some preparations were made to publish a newspaper, but even that could not be accomplished. This was a cause of

disappointment to the passengers, many of whom had information and other matters to communicate—of course excellent of their kind—but who were unable to get their ideas committed to paper.

Captain West, by his pleasant manners and kind attentions to all, did much to promote agreeable intercourse among the passengers. He told me that this would be the two hundred and twenty-sixth time he had crossed the Atlantic !

On the 27th, as we came under shelter of the American coast, the weather became moderate, and we were able to escape from the cabin. The deck again became a scene of great activity—the more joyous as almost all the passengers neared their homes. On the evening of the 28th, the lights along the coast were distinctly seen from deck, and on awaking on the morning of the 29th, I was delighted to find our ship safely moored at the quay of New York.

The city of New York is situated at the southern extremity of the island of Manhattan. Having no means of expansion except in one direction, it extends very rapidly to the northern side of the island, and at its present rate of increase, threatens at no very distant day to cover its entire surface.

The southern part of the city is by far the most important, and it is there that all its commercial operations are carried on. This has induced great numbers of the people to reside on the other side of the river, in the cities of Brooklyn, Williamsburg, and Jersey-city ; which, by steamboats running every five minutes, are found to be more accessible than the upper part of the city.

The population of the city

In 1800, was	60,489
1820	123,706
1840	312,710
1850	515,547

and at the present time, including the suburban cities I have named, it is estimated at 850,000.

The old part of the city is built somewhat irregularly, but in that more recently built, forming three-fourths of its extent, the streets are spacious, and laid out at right-angles to each other. The principal street and leading thoroughfare is Broadway. Commencing at the southern part of the island, it extends through its entire length, and the other streets being as it were its tributaries, it contains a throng of people and a crowd of vehicles of every description, which is not surpassed by any of the great thoroughfares in London. Great inconvenience has been felt from this accumulation of traffic, and various measures have been devised for relief, by diverting it into other streets; but the success of those measures has been very partial.

As New York may be said to represent America, so may Broadway be said to represent New York. At one end, it is the centre of the commerce of the city, and at the other, of its fashion. It contains the handsomest buildings in the city; all the large hotels, some of the large stores, and all the most fashionable and most expensive shops. At the south end its pavement is busied with mercantile men, in active pursuit of their business, and its centre is crowded with omnibuses freighted with passengers, and waggons loaded with goods. Beyond its commercial limits, the omnibuses still continue to ply, but largely interspersed with brilliant equipages; and its side walks are thronged with ladies, richly, I might almost say gaudily, dressed, whose chief occupation seems to be, to admire the tempting wares which are exhibited in the shop windows, and to spend the money, which their husbands or other relatives strive to make at the lower end of the street. Thus one end of Broadway may be said to represent the active commercial spirit of the city, and the other its extravagance and gaiety.

The other parts of the city proper, have no special attrac-

tions, except for their commerce; but in the northern end, many of the streets contain very handsome houses, the residences of the wealthier merchants.

A great drawback to the attractiveness of New York, arises from its excessive filthiness. Till I went there I had never seen such a dirty city. Although the weather was then fine, and it had been dry for some time previously, yet parts of some of the streets were almost impassable from mud, and pools of dirty water. Many of the streets had not been cleaned for years, and although the citizens complained bitterly of the nuisance, their remonstrances passed unheeded. Even Broadway, the resort of the beautiful, the gay, and the fashionable, in some places was not much better than others. Opposite to the hotel at which I lived, there was a large pool of water at least 200 feet in length, and of width sufficient to prevent any one from attempting to leap across it without the risk of going up to the ankles. In other parts of Broadway matters were not much better; and I have seen some of the inhabitants not hesitate to throw their ashes and dirty water into the middle of the street.

This state of the city arose from no scarcity of means at the command of the authorities to effect an improvement, for as I shall shew, the annual income of the city is unusually large. It arose from the neglect of those in office, if it did not, as was openly stated by the citizens, arise from something worse.

In 1853, the Tax levied in the city and county of New York (the city is co-extensive with the county), was $5,067,275,* of which sum $4,704,789 were collected.† Of this amount $3,311,741 were appropriated for the expenditure of the City Government, under which head was not included interest on City Debt and Public Schools.

* A Dollar is worth about 4s. 2d.

† The sum collected in 1854 was 4,845,346 dollars, and the amount demanded for 1855 is 5,918,593 dollars.

To gratify the curiosity of those who are familiar with municipal affairs in this country, I give some of the items of which this large sum was composed.

	Dollars.
Almshouses	385,000
Cleaning Streets	289,625
Fire Department	79,846
Lamps and Gas	295,063
Police	614,672
Salaries	234,917

This may serve as a specimen of the whole, for the other departments are conducted on an equally liberal scale of expenditure. Under what sort of management those large sums were expended I can form no opinion. The population of New York have the reputation of being shrewd men of business, and one would therefore imagine that they would take care to see their money applied in the manner best fitted to promote the interests of the city; and to produce efficiency in the different departments of the service. Whether those ends are attained is a different matter, for I believe that most men in New York will admit that thus far, the management of their municipal affairs has been a complete failure. To the state of the streets I have already adverted. The efficiency of the police force, and of the fire department, is far from being satisfactory; and in other departments I could not learn that there was anything of which to boast.

So intolerable had the state of Broadway become during the winter of 1853--4, so much damage had been done to the goods of merchants, from dust in dry weather, and from mud when it was wet, and so little prospect was there of any improvement's being effected, that the merchants at last took the matter into their own hands, and voluntarily subscribed money to pay for the performance of those duties which the authorities neglected. Men were employed to sweep the street at night, and one of the merchants superintended the

proceedings. On my return here in spring, Broadway was in the most beautiful order, and presented a striking contrast to what it had been six months before.

As a contrast to the expenditure of the city of New York, I may here mention that that of Manchester with a population of more than half that of New York, amounted in 1853, exclusive of poor rate, to £101,222 14s. And yet, I venture to affirm, that in respect of the efficiency of its police force, and its fire department, the cleanliness of its streets, its pavements, its general sanitary condition, and indeed the entire administration of its municipal affairs, Manchester is under far better management than New York.

Of one of the public works of their city, the people of New York have reason to be proud; that is, the Croton Water Works. By means of these, the city has an almost unlimited supply of pure water, and at a moderate cost to the inhabitants. The whole cost of the works was about $9,000,000.

When I arrived in New York, the Indian summer was drawing to a close, and the chillness of the mornings and evenings gave intimation of the approach of winter. Still, from the dryness of the atmosphere, the cold was less felt than it would have been in a more moist climate, with a temperature ten degrees higher. During the day the air was gratefully mild,—almost warm,—and with a clear lofty atmosphere, an elasticity of spirits was felt, to which one is a stranger in England I imagine that this in a large measure favours that activity of character, for which the Americans have obtained credit.

For that activity, and what they themselves denominate "smartness," the New York men of business claim pre-eminence in the Union, and I believe they do so with much justice. The extent and variety of the New York commerce, and the multitude of people with whom the merchants come in contact, favour confidence in themselves, quickness of apprehension, and promptitude in action, and these are the

qualities which form the character of a smart man. It may be questioned, however, whether these qualities form the character of a merchant, properly so called; or, whether the turmoil, and constant excitement in which New York business is carried on, is favourable to the prudent management of those operations which require much consideration and foresight. Hence, as is contended by some conversant with the business of New York, much of that more properly called mercantile—in contradistinction to that conducted by dealers and commission agents,—and extending to a distant period, is conducted by merchants in Boston and Philadelphia. Undoubtedly most of the trade of the port is carried on by merchants resident there, but as New York offers the best point for shipment of home produce, and for the distribution to the interior of foreign commodities, merchants of the other cities I have named, transact much of their business through this city, finding it to afford them the largest, and frequently the most advantageous market.

As a specimen of the smartness of New York men, I may repeat what was related to me by a German merchant, who had opportunities of knowing something of the nature of the commerce of the city.

A dealer has a quantity of goods which he is anxious to sell. A buyer presents himself, but his credit is not undoubted. Wishing, however, to secure the sale of his goods, and at the same time desirous of avoiding any undue risk with the buyer's long-dated acceptance, the dealer endeavours to find out at what rate this acceptance can be "sold on the street." If, though that should be at a high rate of discount, there still remain a profit on the sale, that is at once effected, and the transaction is closed. With the acceptance he has no further concern; for as selling a bill on the street means "without recourse," his liability ceases when the bill passes out of his possession.

The sudden rise, and wonderful progress of the commerce

of New York, has been unprecedented. At the end of last century, its foreign trade was surpassed by that of Philadelphia; and at no very distant date, it was of no great magnitude; but within the last few years it has advanced with rapid strides. The value of the foreign trade of the port amounted,

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
	Dollars.	Dollars.
In 1821 to . . .	26,020,012	12,124,645
1831 . .	57,291,727 . . .	26,142,719
1841 . . .	75,268,015	30,731,519
1851 . .	141,073,531 . . .	80,227,207
1854 . . .	191,074,504	107,575,050

or, in the latter year to an aggregate of 298,649,554$, an amount which I am not aware is exceeded by the trade of any other city in the world, with the single exception of Liverpool.*

It will be observed that there is a wide difference between the value of the exports and imports. This arises from the largest portion of the exports of the States being sent abroad from the southern ports; while of the imports, the largest portion is received at New York. The imports seem to have gradually increased with the wealth and population of the country; but the exports from this and the other northern ports, received a new impulse by the relaxation of the commercial restrictions of Great Britain, and since 1847 have more rapidly increased.

The imports consist of dry goods, or manufactured articles of cotton, wool, silk, and flax; of iron, raw and manufactured; and of sugar, tea, coffee, fruits, &c. From this point they are distributed to other parts of the States, either directly, or through other cities on the sea-board.

The exports are composed of gold, breadstuffs, provisions, &c.,

* The value of the exports alone, from Liverpool, in 1853, amounted to £47,152,194.—*Parliamentary Paper.*

by far the greater portion of which is sent to Great Britain. A few of the most important articles shipped in 1853, were

Specie	21,127,228	dollars.
Flour	2,309,702	barrels.
Wheat	8,184,249	bushels.
Indian Corn	1,134,223	do.
Cotton	290,446	bales.

The shipping belonging to the port has increased as rapidly as its commerce, and bears a larger proportion to the value of that commerce than in any other mercantile city of any magnitude. That arises from two causes. First, because the exports from New York are principally of raw produce, therefore bulky, and requiring a large amount of tonnage for their conveyance to foreign markets. Secondly, because much of the shipping that is employed in the southern ports, to convey their cotton and other produce to foreign markets, is owned by New York merchants.

The tonnage belonging to the city

In 1826 was	316,289	tons
1836	404,814	„
1842	459,474	„
1853	1,149,133	„

This amounts to more than a fourth part of the entire shipping of the States, and is more, I believe, than that belonging to any other port in the world.

In 1834 the proportion of tonnage built in New York, to that built in the whole country, was about one seventh, but in 1851 it had risen to about one-fourth. In 1853 the number of ships launched, and on the stocks, was 145, with a tonnage of 105,228. In the same year the number of arrivals at the city were

From foreign ports	4,105	vessels.
Coastwise	7,035	„
Total	11,140	„

The arrivals and clearances at the port have increased yet more strikingly than that of the tonnage owned. They were

	ENTERED	CLEARED.
In 1821 . . .	171,963 tons	. . . . 154,472 tons
1831 . . .	337,009 „	. . . . 294,235 „
1841 . . .	549,045 „	. . . . . 407,325 „
1851 . . .	1448,768 „	. . . . 1230,082 „
1853 . . .	1755,521 „	. . . . . 1384,009 „

This is more than a fourth of all the other ports taken together.

The proud position now occupied by New York as the first commercial city of the New World, insures it a still more rapid progress, and a yet higher pre-eminence. At an early period of its history, it had much to fear from the competition of its rivals, Boston and Philadelphia. Indeed, as I have already remarked, the latter surpassed it in the extent of its foreign commerce, at the end of the last century, and till 1810, was a-head of it in population. With a much richer State, and as convenient access to the west, it might, had its inhabitants been possessed of enterprise, have striven to maintain its superiority. But the favourable opportunity was allowed to slip, and never again presented itself. New York had taken the start, and has now so entirely outstripped it in population, wealth, enterprise, and foreign intercourse, that it can never hereafter fear any rival on the east coast.

That pre-eminence which New York now enjoys, it owes to several favourable circumstances,—to great natural advantages, and to those which it has derived from the enterprise of its inhabitants. It has a most magnificent harbour, twenty-five miles in circumference, and capable of containing the whole navies of the world. It lies close upon the sea; and by the Hudson river, it has convenient access to some distance in the interior. Those natural advantages alone, would have made it a port of much consequence, but they did not satisfy the inhabitants. A new world was

opening up in the north and west, and with those regions it was desirable that New York should be brought into communication. In 1825 the Erie Canal was opened, connecting Lake Erie with the Hudson river. By this means New York was brought into communication, not only with the fertile valleys of the western part of the state, but also with the whole coast of the western lakes; an inland navigation of hundreds of miles was opened up for the enterprise of its merchants, and the whole produce of the west was directed to its harbour for distribution to the markets of the world. The cost of transportation from Buffalo to New York previous to the opening of the canal, was about $100 per ton, and the length of passage was twenty days. Now the cost of carriage is from $2 to $3 per ton, and even that is being diminished.

The success which attended the opening of the Erie Canal led to the construction of that to Lake Champlain, and of branches from the former to points on Lake Ontario.

The importance of those canals will be seen by the following statement, shewing the quantity and value of the articles conveyed towards the east and west. They were

			Dollars.
In 1836	1,310,807 tons,	valued at	67,634,643
1846	2,268,662 „	„	115,612,109
1851	3,582,733 „	„	159,981,801

These figures represent the entire movement on all the canals in the state of New York.

In 1853 the value of the articles which came to the Hudson river by canals, was

	Dollars.
Productions of the forest	13,626,295
Agriculture	48,336,343
Manufactures	3,256,056
Merchandise	5,549,128
Other articles	3,675,244
	74,443,066

Or an increase of upwards of twenty million dollars compared with the year 1851.

Satisfactory as were those results, the New York people expected they could improve on them by other enterprises, and by the construction of railways to connect their harbour still farther with the north and west. The traffic on the canals was enormous in quantity, the time occupied in transmitting produce was considerable, much of the merchandise going westward could be sent more conveniently by railway, and from the severity of an American winter, the navigation of the canal was obstructed at the very time when farmers and others could most conveniently send their produce to market, and when it was most wanted for consumption. Influenced by these and other considerations, stupendous lines of railways have been constructed or are in progress, to join New York to Lakes Erie and Ontario, and the regions bordering on those lakes in the north and west. One of these lines, the Erie railway, spreads out into a number of lines at each end, forming at each terminus a sort of *delta*, to accommodate its large business. At the city end it has three outlets, and I believe it touches the western lakes at seven separate points.

From those points on the lakes, bordering on the state of New York, communications are carried on westward to all the other lakes, and thence by rivers, and by canals and railways in course of construction, to various points of the interior. By those channels, the foreign imports into the harbour of New York, and the manufactures of the eastern states reach the consumers of the west; and in return, the latter send by the same routes to the east coast their agricultural and forest productions.

By some of those new enterprises, the valleys of the Mississippi and the Ohio have been approached from New York; and produce, which a very few years ago found its natural outlet to the sea, by the Gulf of Mexico, is now diverted to

the east coast by this newly-opened inland navigation. In this way, the Indian corn of the state of Missouri above St. Louis, reaches Chicago, by the Illinois river and Chicago canal, and thence by lake and canal finds its way to New York; and by the Ohio river and canal, through Cleveland, the provisions from the regions on the Ohio above Louisville, are carried forward to the same destination. It has been even attempted to divert the cotton of Tennessee into this channel, and several cargoes have been brought to the east coast through those new inland routes.

But those advantages, natural and acquired, which New York now enjoys, have secured to it others which will contribute yet further to its prosperity.

It is now the largest—indeed *the* money market of the States; and, therefore, offers facilities to merchants in the transaction of their business, which cannot be afforded by any other city. It is the largest general market in the Union, and therefore commands a preference from buyers and sellers. The extent of its foreign trade ensures a speedy shipment of produce to any part of the world, at average rates of freight; and from its being the point of communication between Europe and America, it affords to merchants at all times, the fullest and latest information upon every subject affecting the commerce of the country.

The future of New York no one can even imagine, far less venture to predict. The position to which it has now attained, seems to have prepared it only for more gigantic strides. Not only is it now in direct communication with many of the most important points in the interior of the country, but it is daily striving to enlarge those communications, and to reduce their cost. The west, as it advances in population and wealth, will almost in the same degree administer to its greatness; for nearly all the surplus produce of those immense regions, will find its natural outlet to the markets of the world, through the ports on the east coast, and

through none so readily as New York; and through the same channel will be distributed to the interior, the merchandise which is imported into the Union from all parts of the world.

But New York is not merely a commercial city. She is largely engaged in manufactures of various kinds,—indeed more so than any other city in America. In 1850 she had 3,387 productive establishments, in which there was a capital invested amounting to $34,232,822. In those works there were employed 83,620 hands, and their produce in that year was valued at $105,218,308. Of those manufactures I was unable to procure details; but I apprehend they include branches of industry which in this country would scarcely be included in that class. The number of works which own this capital among them, shews that many of them must be on a very diminutive scale.

The value of real and personal estate in the city and county of New York has advanced more than in proportion to its population.

	Dollars.
In 1826 it amounted to	107,238,981
1843 ditto to	229,229,079
1854 ditto to	462,021,734

As may be expected, New York is the port at which arrives by far the largest portion of immigrants. In 1854 they numbered 307,639, being somewhat more than in the previous year. The largest number was from Germany, and next from Ireland. Till within the last two years the greatest number arrived from the latter country—indeed in 1851 more than from all other countries taken together, but recently the arrivals have diminished. It may therefore be presumed, that the exodus from Ireland is on the decline for a permanency, unless some new cause should arise to give it a renewed impulse.

All large cities have some difficulty in procuring plentiful supplies of perishable country produce, and in particular of

the article milk. True enough an article called milk can be had in abundance, but of a quality which is frequently far from being pure. From this drawback to the comfort of its inhabitants, New York suffers as much as any city, but I am not aware that in any other city, there has been so much light thrown upon the system by which its milk supplies are provided.

I do not know whether the quality of that furnished to the people of New York is inferior to what is sold in other cities, and therefore information afforded from America, may not be without some interest to those who are curious on such a subject.

The supply to the city, in 1841, was estimated at 16,405,000 quarts, of which a very small proportion was pure, the whole business being then in the hands of the *swill milk* manufacturers.

In 1852, the supply was estimated at 120,600,000 quarts, valued at $5,437,000. Of this there was

	QUARTS.
Of Country milk	36,500,000
Swill milk	58,500,000
Addition to country milk—of water, chalk, magnesia, &c.	11,000,000
Addition of ditto to swill milk	14,600,000
	120,600,000

The good milk amounted to 36,500,000 quarts only, while 84,100,000 quarts were bad.

In the *swill milk* establishments, which are in and around the city, it was estimated that, in 1852, there were 13,000 cows. In one establishment alone, there were 2,000. More than a half are connected with distilleries, from which the *swill* is received. This is a product of the distilleries, and is a highly stimulating liquid, on which the cows are almost entirely fed, and with which they are kept in a state of

perpetual semi-intoxication, never being allowed a breath of pure air or a moment's exercise.

It is believed that this mixture is fatal to infant life, and very injurious to the health of adults. I believe that were these details more generally known in New York, they would go far to diminish the consumption of milk in the city.

In New York a foreigner can more readily learn something of the character of the American people, than in any other city in the country. The activity of its people represents that of the nation, and here are to be met men from every part of the Union, and representatives of every great interest. Not only does this apply to commercial and industrial pursuits, but also to political and other associations. To this place there seems to tend all the unsettled spirits of the nation; men who have devised schemes of usefulness or of mischief, and who expect to reduce them here into some practical form. Though much, therefore, has been said of fillibusterism in the southern states, I venture to believe that in this city has had its origin the movement for the possession of Cuba, as well as that—thus far only partially developed—for the future annexation of Canada.

Of the private life of the citizens of New York I saw but little. I learned, however, that they lead a life of much gaiety, and by popular interpretation, of much enjoyment. In summer, those who have leisure and means, frequent watering and other places of amusement. In winter, there is no lack of public and private amusements in the city. In some private circles, where lavish expenditure would seem to be a virtue, extravagant entertainments are given, where each host or hostess tries to outshine his or her neighbour in expense and ostentation; and where the lady guests endeavour to outrival each other, in rich and gaudy dresses. Of those entertainments, much talk is frequently made in the city; and that would lead one to suppose they are of less frequent occurrence than they are reported to be, because

events which happen daily, or even often, cease to be matters of wonderment. While, therefore, the good citizens of New York may indulge freely in those enjoyments which proceed from excitement, it may be inferred that their entertainments are less vulgar, than they themselves would lead the world to believe.

Public amusements abound in the city. This is not merely a consequence of the love of such pastimes among the citizens, but arises also from the great number of strangers from other parts of the country, who frequent the city during a great part of the year. New York being the great market for the sale of the produce of the north and west, and also for the purchase of foreign commodities, farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and dealers in those various articles, come hither for longer or shorter periods nearly every year, and sometimes oftener, to make their needful purchases or sales. As the expense of travelling is small, and the charges at the hotels moderate for ladies, and as the Americans have, I might almost say, a mania for travelling, most of those who come to New York on business, bring some of their female relatives with them. The consequence may be easily foretold. The ladies must have new bonnets of the smartest shape and latest fashion, or new shawls or dresses, of the most brilliant colours; and after purchase, of course they must go into public to let them be seen. The gentlemen are busy all day, and can play the gallant only in the evening. Hence places of public amusement receive a large share of popular countenance, and thrive to a degree—in proportion to the city population—quite unknown in England.

The first in position, of those public places of amusement, is the Opera. The quality of the performances at this place is fair, and above the average; but I confess that I was less charmed with the music than with the brilliant dresses, the clear delicate complexions, and the sparkling eyes of the fair auditors. The entertainments at other public places were

very mediocre, and scarcely equal to what is to be found in a third rate town in England. Passing one of those places one evening, I enquired at the door what was being performed. The reply was "The Road to Ruin, and other splendid pieces." Not caring to find out that road, I did not take advantage of the polite invitation which was given me to "walk in."

After arriving in the city, my attention was early attracted to its large newspaper circulation. The daily publication in the city cannot be less than 200,000 copies. Of these, one paper, with the largest circulation, is sold at one cent. Three others, whose daily circulation together is upwards of 100,000 copies, are sold at two cents. Most of the others are sold at five cents and upwards. Of course almost every person purchases a paper: and I was told, so necessary a part of life have they become in the city, that no cabman will accept a fare in the morning, till he has read that morning's paper. This may be an exaggeration, but it nevertheless shews the universality of the practice.

During my stay in New York, the popularity of John Mitchell was at its height. He came there about the same time, and as the latest martyr to the cause of liberty, he was the man whom many of the New Yorkers delighted to honour. Some of the newspapers eulogised the great Irish patriot in leading articles,—the editors not knowing at that time that he designed to establish a paper of his own,—and public meetings were held to give him welcome. He was serenaded during the night; and even those in authority—who wanted to continue in office—hastened to vote addresses to him, and to congratulate him on his escape. As a grand climax, he was feasted at a great public banquet, where public men offered him their adulation, and public writers complimented him as one of the great champions of the cause of freedom!

Great must have been the gratification of John Mitchell

on that evening! What a recompense for years of sorrow and suffering, to be thus publicly identified with the cause of human progress and enlightenment, and to be proclaimed a leader of its forces among the most progressive people in the world!! But, ah! how fickle is public opinion. Here was re-enacted the scene which had taken place not long before at Washington, when President Fillmore invited Thomas Meagher to his table, and placed him at his right hand, as his most honoured guest. It was all done for "Buncombe." Mr. Fillmore did not care a snap of his fingers for Meagher, nor did the public writers and speakers for Mitchell. The one desired to be re-elected to the presidency, and he wanted to secure the Irish votes. Of the others—the newspaper proprietors wished to increase the circulation of their papers among the Irish; and the public men, who longed for the sweets of office, aimed at gaining popularity with the same class, that they might obtain their voices when it came to be their turn to solicit the suffrages of the public. The crowds who followed this impostor, and who applauded him in public, were all natives of the Green Isle. Of such, it is very well known that there is always a sufficient number in New York, who are ready, at all times and seasons, to attend any meeting where there is a chance of excitement, or of "getting up a row."

The American people were mere spectators—the masses looked on with indifference, the more intelligent with ill-concealed disdain.

In a very few months there was an entire change; and on my return here in spring, John Mitchell's popularity had vanished. His friends were ashamed of him. The public writers strove who could throw on him most contumely, and the indifference of the public was changed into utter disgust. This man, who, to gain popularity in Europe, had been an advocate of anarchy, under the specious name of freedom, now, from the same despicable motive, became the apologist and defender of the institution of slavery. Fortunately, he

mistook the American character. Southern men may defend those institutions, among which they have been brought up, and with which all their interests are identified, and many Northern men may do the same from a regard to the integrity of the Union, and from respect to the independence of each State; but both of them scorned to lend their countenance to a man utterly destitute of principle, and who shewed himself capable of prostituting his pen in behalf of any cause that would bring him notoriety and remuneration.

CHAPTER II.

PHILADELPHIA—ITS COMMERCE—COAL TRADE OF THE STATES.

On the evening of the 14th of December, I left New York for Philadelphia, by railway, and, after a few hours ride, reached the Quaker city. We travelled by night, but the intense brilliancy of the moonlight—never equalled in our moist climate—enabled us to see much of the country, which, from the "silver light" of the moon, seemed to be clothed in a mantle of snow.

Next morning, on presenting my letters of introduction, one of the gentlemen on whom I called, desiring to shew some civility to me as a *Britisher*, very kindly asked me to ride with him in his carriage through the city. By this means I saw as much of the city in a few hours, as I should otherwise have done in two or three days, and besides had the advantage of a highly intelligent guide, who pointed out as we passed along, the objects most likely to interest a stranger. We drove through some of the leading streets and squares, in which are the most handsome private dwellings of the citizens; and from these we rode to the Girard College, and the Fairmount waterworks.

The streets run at right angles to each other, as originally designed by William Penn. They are much cleaner than those of New York, but still retain many open sewers, the covering of which would be a very decided improvement. Many of the private houses are faced with white marble, and are entered by flights of steps of the same material. These,

with rows of trees along the sides of the pavements, give the city a very cheerful look in the bright sunshine.

Girard College was founded by a citizen of that name, who died in 1831, bequeathing $2,000,000 for the purpose of erecting suitable buildings for the education of orphans. He desired a plain building to be erected; but his trustees have departed from his instructions, and have erected a large handsome building, entirely composed of white marble. This building contains the class-rooms, library, &c. On each side there are two other moderately-sized buildings, four in all, which contain the sleeping apartments of the boys, the rooms in which they take their meals, kitchens, bakery, and other rooms. At the time of my visit, there were 304 boys in the establishment.

The Fairmount waterworks were constructed some few years ago at a cost of $450,000 dollars, and afford an abundant supply of water to the city. They are situated on the banks of the Schuylkill, about two miles above the city, and have reservoirs capable of containing 22,000,000 gallons. One of these is divided into three sections, for the purpose of filtrating the water. Being on a very beautiful part of the river, they are much frequented in summer by pleasure and pic-nic parties.

The State House is an object of much interest to visitors, for, from this place was issued the declaration of independence in 1776. Several objects belonging to that eventful period are still retained, and possess attractions for the curious.

Visitors to the city are always directed to the Mint, admission to the interior of which is granted to any one on application at the door. Guides are appointed to conduct them over the premises, and to explain the nature of the different processes through which the metal is passed, till it be brought out in coin. In one of the departments, a large bar of gold was put into my hands, the value of which was $10,000.

The deposits of specie at this mint in 1853, were $61,683,971, of which about a seventh was of silver, and the remainder of gold. There are three branches in other parts of the States, but their deposits together did not amount to more than $7,443,701.

From the city I proceeded to the River Delaware. At this point it makes a sudden bend, in the form of a crescent, on the convex side of which is situated the city. By standing on the upper deck of one of the steamers which projected farthest into the river, I obtained a view of the whole bay, along the side of which lay the shipping for a space of upwards of three miles.

A marked change is perceptible in the character of the people, in comparison with what is seen in New York. The streets are much less bustling, and the tone of the place altogether much more subdued, partaking, as one might almost suppose, somewhat of the quiet earnestness peculiar to its founders. In population, wealth, enterprise, and activity, it is inferior to New York; and its progress in recent years, though very striking, has been very much less rapid. However, as the port of a state, scarcely second to any in agricultural, as well as mineral wealth, it will, with the development of these resources, become a city of much importance.

Till about the year 1820, Philadelphia was the largest city in the States; but about that period it was outstripped by its great rival New York: and every year since that time, the disproportion between them has become more and more marked. Still its progress has been very striking; and in almost any other country in the world would have excited surprise. Its population

In 1800 was	70,287
1820	167,325
1840	258,037
1850	408,762

The condition of the population of Philadelphia, does not present the same extremes of wealth and poverty,—of luxury and misery,—that is to be found in New York. Though it has a smaller population, it has more houses,—an indication of the more comfortable circumstances of the masses; and in consequence, it may be, of the small immigration at this port.

The foreign commerce of the city does not show the same progress as its population, and is no indication of its wealth. Indeed, in comparison with the earlier years of the century, it would be difficult to say whether it has increased or diminished. Till very recently it had declined, but within the last three or four years a favourable change has taken place. The value of the foreign trade

	IMPORTS. Dollars.	EXPORTS. Dollars.
In 1821 was . . .	8,158,922 . . .	7,391,767
1841 . . .	10,342,206 . . .	5,152,501
1850 . . .	12,065,834 . . .	4,501,606
1853 . . .	21,165,026 . . .	6,171,581

There is much probability that in imports the trade will be fully sustained. By the recent extension of their communications with the West, the inhabitants are sanguine that their city will become a large market for the distribution of foreign merchandise. Indeed, it is that already, but its supplies are to a large extent received at second hand, in New York. The merchants are now striving to emancipate themselves from this dependance on their rival, and by the appointment of a line of screw ocean steamers, bringing them into direct intercourse with Europe, they expect to bring direct to their port, a large portion of those commodities which have heretofore reached them through other channels. These improvements in their internal communications, and foreign intercourse, will, at the same time, favour the increase of the export trade of the city.

The imports consist of dry goods, iron, cotton, sugar, and

other articles of general domestic consumption, most of which till recently was used within the State. By the improvement of the railways and canals, a considerable portion of the imports are now forwarded for distribution in the West.

The exports consist of wheat, flour, corn, provisions, coal, &c., nearly all of which are the productions of the State, for thus far a very small portion of the heavy products of the West find this route a convenient outlet to the sea. The exports of bread-stuffs alone, in 1853, were worth $3,736,098; and, in 1852, there were shipped from Richmond—which almost joins Philadelphia—1,236,649 tons of coal.

The foreign shipping in the Delaware has steadily increased of late years. The arrivals and departures were—

	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
In 1841 . . .	498 —	99,070 . . .	455 —	83,523
1850 . . .	537 —	132,370 . . .	479 —	111,618
1853 . . .	589 —	183,944 . . .	514 —	151,685

The coasting trade has made yet greater progress. The arrivals were—

In 1841 9,246
1853 29,456

and in addition to this, 7,284 vessels were loaded with coal, at Richmond, in the latter year. This will make the total number of arrivals in the river, in 1853, 37,329. This by no means represents a tonnage in proportion to the number of vessels, the same as would be the case at any other port, because with the exception of the ships engaged in foreign commerce, nearly all the others are small craft.

As Philadelphia has but limited direct intercourse with Europe, as is to be expected, the immigrants who arrive at her port are few in number, compared with those who arrive at New York and New Orleans. In 1853, only 19,175 arrived, nearly all of whom were from Ireland and Germany.

As a manufacturing city, Philadelphia occupies the second place in the Union. In 1850 she had $33,737,911 capital invested in manufactures. At the several establishments 59,106 people were employed, and the value of the produce of their labour amounted to $64,114,112. This information is derived from the Census, but, in the report of the Philadelphia Board of Trade, it has been shewn that the statements in the census are very imperfect and unreliable, and that, in reality, the manufactures of the city are greater than here shewn.

The value of real estate in Philadelphia in 1853 was estimated at $128,218,658, but that was considered to be a very low estimate. In 1851 the value of the real and personal estate was $140,391,780. The annual tax levied in the city, and the amount of its expenditure, I was unable to learn, and I have no means of estimating either in comparison with those of New York.

Several causes combined to injure the trade of Philadelphia, and to give the superiority to its great rival. These were, the opening of the Erie Canal, which brought New York into easy and cheap communication with the West, drawing the traffic of those immense regions to its harbour; the mineral wealth of the state of Pennsylvania, to the development of which, the attention and capital of its merchants were too largely directed, at an early period, and before other circumstances rendered it possible that the mines could be worked—the capital being diverted from the more legitimate trade of the city and port; and finally, the failure of the United States Bank, and the ruin in which it involved the capitalists of the State.

Philadelphia is in nearer communication with the West than New York, even with Lake Erie, and much more so with the Ohio and the far West; and therefore, had its citizens been attentive to their own interests, they would not have lost the opportunity of drawing to their harbour the products

of the West. While, however, New York pressed forward its great undertaking, the Erie Canal, the Philadelphians looked idly on, and were made sensible of the consequences of their neglect, only when too late to remedy their error. The bulky and heavy produce of the West,—the products of agriculture and of the forest—will seek the cheapest route to the sea-board, and that is obtained by the Erie Canal. For the conveyance of such articles other channels can be merely supplementary to that route.

The extensive introduction of railways into the States, led many to believe, that, as Philadelphia was at a less distance from the leading points of the West, than New York, she might be able by her railway connections, to recover much of the carrying trade, which rightly belonged to her situation, but which, by the opening of the Erie Canal, had slipped out of her hands. This expectation is more sanguine than reasonable. For the carriage of articles of country produce, of great bulk and weight, in proportion to their value, and which have to be conveyed a long distance, canals seem to offer the cheapest, though not the most expeditious route; and at the points of transhipment, either on the lakes, rivers, or on the sea board, they present greater facilities for the loading and unloading of cargoes, than can be offered at any railway terminus; and those facilities are obtained at a much smaller cost,—an important consideration, where cheapness alone can enable the trade to be pursued to advantage. To these add, that the quantities of produce coming forward annually, is much greater than can be readily conveyed by any ordinary channel.

When the New York Canal, and the railways which connect that city with Lake Erie, are completed, they will have the capacity of carrying to the east coast in a season 9,000,000 tons of produce, while the railways of the State of Pennsylvania, running to the same quarter, can carry only 1,700,000 tons. True enough, other works are in progress,

or in contemplation, which will enlarge her carrying power to between five and six million tons per annum, but they will not be in operation for some years to come.

The goods carried westward, are very much lighter in proportion to their value, than those brought to the east, and consequently, are of far less total weight. In that case, cost of carriage will not add nearly so much to their value. It is therefore highly probable, that from Philadelphia being nearer to the West, and indeed, in the line of direct communication between New York and the Ohio, she may supply that great valley with a large portion of the goods received from the east coast. Indeed, she now claims to be the great distributor of the West, but with more enterprise on the part of her merchants, she may hereafter make that claim with more solid pretensions.

The natural and acquired advantages of New York city, and the position she now occupies, will, for a long period, if not entirely, defeat any hopes that may be entertained in Philadelphia of competing with her with any success, even in the import trade. Still, the position Philadelphia holds in respect to the West, ought to encourage her merchants to make an effort to diminish the disparity, now existing between the commerce of the two cities.

The distance of Philadelphia from the ocean,—nearly one hundred miles—and the limited accommodation afforded by her harbour, are by many deemed insuperable obstacles to her ever becoming a great commercial city. Those obstacles are, however, only apparent, for the Delaware is at all times navigable to the largest merchantmen, and the wharves can be extended to double their present length. After the all but insurmountable obstructions which were removed in the improvement of the navigation of the Clyde, by the enterprise of the merchants of Glasgow, and after the triumphant success which has resulted from that undertaking, the citizens of Philadelphia have no need to fear for the prosperity of their city, if they be only true to themselves.

By the opening up, and extension of their western communications, by railways and canals; by the improvement and enlargement of their river and harbour; and by the encouragement of increased intercourse with Europe,—in all of which undertakings they are now embarked—they will go far to recover much of that commercial prosperity which was lost through neglect or mismanagement, and they will come near to realise some of those hopes, which they so generally, and so very sanguinely, entertain.

The states of New York and Pennsylvania, are the most populous and influential in the Union. In addition to their large commerce, they are second to none of the other states in agricultural productions—and Pennsylvania in her minerals. In the value of her coal and iron mines, Pennsylvania at the present moment claims precedence of all the states in the Union. The western states may have mines as rich, and more extensive, but they are at present inaccessible and unproductive, and, therefore, for practical purposes, they may be considered to have no existence.

The coal-fields of this state extend under more than one-third of its surface. The anthracite beds have an area of 975 square miles, while those of the bituminous coal extend under nearly 20,000 square miles, and run into other states. In 1820, the total quantity of native coal sent to market was 365 tons, and in 1853, it was,

In East Pennsylvania	5,490,146	Tons.
„ Maryland	406,000	„
„ Ohio Valley, in 1852, *(Wilson's Report)*..	2,205,000	„
	8,101,146	Tons.

In almost every year there has been an increase, in quantity, over its predecessor, and that increase is likely to be maintained.

On the import of coal into the states, there is a duty of 30 per cent., *ad val.* This, with the cost of freight, is a very large protection in favour of the home producer. In the "United

States' Economist," of a recent date, I observe it stated, that, since the opening of the coal mines in Pennsylvania, the consumers of the country had paid to that State, by way of protection, not less than $20,000,000!

And yet, with this protection, foreign coal is still imported into the States, from England, and from Nova Scotia. When at Halifax, I learned that the expense of freight to Boston, for coal, was more than its original cost in the colony; and yet, with this disadvantage, and with a heavy duty on its import, the owners can sell their coal in the States with a profit!

Though Pennsylvania is the state,—I might almost say the only one,—from which coal is sent to market, yet, in others, there are extensive fields of great value—bituminous and anthracite. There are in the States

	AREA OF STATE. Square miles.		COAL AREA. Square miles.		Proportion of Coal.
Of Alabama	50,875	„	3,400	„	1 14th.
Georgia	58,200	„	150	„	1-38
Tennessee	44,720	„	4,300	„	1-10
Kentucky	39,015	„	13,500	„	1-3
Virginia	64,000	„	21,195	„	1-3
Maryland	10,829	„	550	„	1-20
Ohio	38,850	„	11,900	„	1-3
Indiana	34,800	„	7,700	„	1-5
Illinois	59,130	„	44,000	„	3-4
Pennsylvania	43,960	„	15,437	„	1-3
Michigan	60,820	„	5,000	„	1-12
Wisconsin	60,384	„	6,000	„	1-10
	565,583		133,132		

The price of gas in some of the principal cities is—

	Dols.	Cts.	
In Philadelphia	2	0	per 1,000 feet.
Pittsburg	2	10	„
Boston	2	50	„
Cincinnati	3	0	„
New York	3	0	„
Baltimore	3	0	„

	Dols.	Cts.	
Chicago	3	50	per 1,000 feet.
Charleston	4	0	„
Washington	4	0	„
New Orleans	4	50	„

The extent of the coal-fields of Great Britain is about 12,000 square miles, from which nearly forty million tons are annually produced, and of which about four million tons are exported. In Manchester, the cost per 1,000 feet of gas is 5s., but the average of the kingdom is, from 6s. to 7s.

In the state of New York, the value of real and personal estate was, in 1853,

	Dollars.
Real estate	946,467,907
Personal	221,802,950
	1168,270,857

and in that year the taxes levied in the state were,

	Dollars.
For State and County purposes . . .	5,781,014
Townships	1,226,674
	7,007,688

In the accounts of this state it is very difficult to arrive at satisfactory information. The affairs of the State are mixed up with those which relate to public works, and hence the accounts are intricate—especially so to a stranger.

In the state of Pennsylvania, the value of real and personal estate, in 1853, was $531,370,454, and the amount of the public debt was $41,524,475. In the year 1852, the revenue collected in the state was $7,716,552, and the expenditure was $6,876,480. Of this amount, a very trifling sum was appropriated towards the expenses of the public schools, as a special fund is maintained for their support.

CHAPTER III.

BALTIMORE—ITS COMMERCE—WASHINGTON—THE PRESIDENT.

A few hours by railway brought me to Baltimore.

This city stands on ground of some unevenness: this favors its drainage, and general cleanliness, while it gives it a more picturesque appearance than any of the American cities I had yet seen. The streets are laid mostly at right angles to each other, and are open and regular. The houses are handsomely built, and substantial looking, giving evidence of a thriving city, and a prosperous population.

From the number of monuments this city contains, it is generally known in the States by the name of "the Monumental City." Conspicuous among these is that to the memory of Washington. Its base, which is 20 feet high, and 50 feet square, supports a Doric column 167 feet in height. This is again surmounted by a statue of Washington, 13 feet high. The shaft is ascended by an internal winding stair, and from its summit an extensive and beautiful view is obtained. The whole is composed of white marble, and cost $200,000.

The population of Baltimore

In 1800	was	26,114
„ 1820	„	62,738
„ 1840	„	102,313
„ 1850	„	169,054

The foreign commerce of this city is moderate indeed, when compared with New York, but the extent of the trade of the

city is not regulated by the amount of foreign imports and exports. The value of its commerce

	IMPORTS. Dollars.	EXPORTS. Dollars.
In 1841 was . .	6,109,101 . . . ,	4,997,633
1852	5,978,021	7,549,766
1854	7,750,387	11,306,010

The imports consist of tea, sugar, and dry goods; and the exports of wheat, flour, Indian corn, tobacco, and coal. At no very distant period this was the largest flour market in the States.

In 1853 the flour inspections were 1,181,603 barrels. In the same year 3,411,965 bushels of wheat were received at the port, and 3,906,494 bushels of corn. Of the wheat, about half was exported, and about three-fourths of the corn. Of the grain brought to this port, a considerable portion is received from the state of Virginia, and even some from North Carolina.

In the same year, the arrivals of Cumberland coal were 406,000 tons, against 16,000 tons in 1845; and of anthracite, 183,000 tons, against 90,000. From this port large quantities of lumber are shipped. In 1853 the receipts were 83,000,000 feet, against 38,000,000 in 1848.

The shipping of the port is considerable. In 1853, the clearances were

358	American Ships of	87,218	tons
220	Foreign „	56,378	„
578		143,596	„

In the same year the arrivals were 1,963 vessels of all sorts, foreign and coastwise, but exclusive of bay craft.

In 1853, the tonnage belonging to the port was 158,479, and in that year 71 vessels were built of 18,391 tons. Nor has the wealth of the inhabitants failed to increase even more rapidly than their commerce. In 1841, the value of real

and personal estate was $53,790,170, while in 1852 it had increased to $94,801,437.

Before the introduction of railways and canals, Baltimore was the nearest point to the navigable waters of the West, and at that time enjoyed much of the trade then in existence between the east coast and the western valleys. The opening of the Erie Canal, and subsequently of the railways connecting New York with Lake Erie, seriously affected the trade of Baltimore. To retain as much as possible of this traffic, the Baltimore and Ohio Railway was undertaken, and was completed in about twenty-five years. The difficulties in the way of its construction were most formidable, and it was only by the utmost resolution and perseverance that they were overcome. The length of the line is 380 miles, and its cost was $19,542,307. It crosses the Alleghany mountains, at an elevation of 2,620 feet above tide water. In ascending from the east side, grades of 116 feet to the mile, are encountered in one plane for about fifteen miles, and for about nine miles in an opposite direction. The success which has attended this undertaking, reflects the highest credit on the enterprise and sagacity of the inhabitants of Baltimore, and proves that their favourable position gave them no trade at a former time, for which they are not now prepared to compete by the most legitimate means, and against the natural advantages enjoyed by other and more highly favoured cities. Nor will the effort have been made in vain; for though it would now be impossible to compete with New York, even in a very remote degree, yet, out of the immense products of the West, seeking an outlet to the sea, enough will be attracted by this line, to afford ample reward to its promoters, and to contribute largely to the commerce of the city.

By this line, and by the waters of the Ohio, cotton has frequently been brought to the east coast, and, as is said, at a less cost, than if sent from Memphis, by New Orleans, and the Gulf of Mexico.

On the evening of the 17th I reached Washington—a distance of two hours' ride from Baltimore.

Washington, from its spacious streets, and the extent of ground it covers, compared with the number of its inhabitants, is called "the city of magnificent distances."

At first sight, its streets seem to be laid out without that regard to order, which characterises all the more recently built American cities; and yet, on examination, this irregularity is only in appearance. Its streets run at right angles to each other, but at intervals they are intersected diagonally, by broad avenues.

Those avenues not unfrequently mislead a stranger, and sometimes even perplex the citizens. Of this I heard two amusing anecdotes, one of which related to Kossuth, and the other, to a recent secretary to the treasury.

The houses are at present scattered over the city, often at some little intervals, giving the streets a straggling appearance. As the population becomes more dense, that will disappear.

In 1850, the population of the city was 40,001, but it is now considerably more. During the Sessions of Congress, the usual population is much increased, by the accession of the members, and their families; and of visitors who frequent the capital for amusement, or to have access to information. As its literary and scientific collections accumulate, it will become more and more the resort of the most learned and accomplished men of the country, and of persons of wealth and leisure, who will be attracted by the numerous advantages it will offer for the employment of their time.

The part of most interest to a visitor is the Capitol,—the seat of the National Legislature. This building is on an eminence, about sixty feet higher than the surrounding country, and commands a very fine view of the city. Its cost was $1,800,000, but with an extensive addition now in process of erection, that sum will be very much increased. On its eastern front is a colossal statue of Washington—

of him who was "first in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his country."

To the west, at a distance of about a mile, stands the President's house. This is a very handsome building of two stories, standing in an open space. On the vacant plot of ground in front of the house, stands a statue of Jefferson, and at a little further distance, an equestrian one of General Jackson. In other parts of the city are the Treasury Offices, the General Post-office, the Patent Office, and the Smithsonian Institute—all very imposing structures.

The latter was founded by an Englishman, who left $515,169 to the United States, "to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." The building cost nearly half that sum, but was erected out of the interest which had accumulated till 1846. The annual income is upwards of $30,000, and this is applied in conformity with the will of the founder.

Of this income, one part is to be devoted to the formation of a library, and collection of objects of nature and of art. The other is to be appropriated to the publication of reports on different branches of knowledge, and on subjects of general interest. Some works on ethnology, and antiquities, have already been published, under the learned superintendence of Professor Henry.

Near to this institution, it is proposed to erect a colossal national monument, to the memory of Washington. It is to consist of an immense shaft, seventy feet square, and 600 feet high. Already some progress has been made in its construction.

The third day I was in Washington happened to be reception day at the White House, and one of my friends kindly offered to present me to the President. This offer was too acceptable to be neglected, for it was very gratifying to have an opportunity of conversing with the first magistrate of the Union.

On entering the outer hall, we met one of the foreign ministers retiring, after having been introduced by the Secretary of State. In a few minutes we were shown into an inner room, where we found the President in conversation with other visitors, who had preceded us. On our approach, he came forward and shook hands. After a few general remarks, he asked leave to present us to the Lady President, who was standing a little behind, on his right hand, talking to a bevy of ladies. This over, and a few more general observations having been made, he again shook hands, and we made our salaam, and retreated, to give place to others.

A considerable number of people followed, evidently from every rank of society in the country. Some came in their carriages, and were dressed in the height of fashion. Others looked like respectable country people, and wore the most homely and uncourtly garb—indeed a very few were literally attired in "hoddin grey." And yet all were received with the same frankness and civility. The simplicity of this intercourse between the people and their first magistrate, is somewhat startling to a European, who has been accustomed to the distinctions which prevail in the old world, between class and class, to the deference which the rich exact from the poor, and to the wide gulf which separates royalty from the mass of the people.

The President seems to be about fifty years of age. His features are fine, his expression pleasant, and he looks and speaks like a gentleman. His countenance, however, does not indicate much character or capacity, and the most casual observer would at once admit, that in his own cabinet he is far from being likely to play the part of General Jackson.

From the White House, we proceeded to some of the public offices, where I had the pleasure of being introduced to some of the ministers. All of them were frank and communicative, presenting a striking contrast to the hauteur and assumption, too often found among those who hold official situations—high or low—in England.

Few things in America struck me with more surprise than the entire contrast between the position occupied by men in public office in the States, and in Great Britain. In the latter country, those who exercise "a little brief authority," seem to be elevated above the rest of the people, and the public are permitted to approach them only on sufferance, and in high places with deference, and sometimes servility. In America, men in office are the servants of "the sovereign people," and access can be obtained to any of the ministers at all times, and without ceremony. Such freedom of access has, however, a tendency to become irksome to those in office, for much of their time is wasted upon troublesome visitors, whose visits must be accepted as a favour, rather than as an inconvenience.

In the early part of 1853, General Pierce became President, under the most favourable auspices, and enjoying more of the public confidence than had been awarded to almost any of his predecessors. The people expected much from his administration, but in a few months all their hopes were disappointed. When I was at Washington, he had sunk much in public estimation, and since that time, almost every day has added to his unpopularity. His ministers are even more distrusted, because they are abler men, and capable of doing more mischief; and I do not exaggerate when I say, that now, they are suspected and despised by the great majority of the people. The power they exercise is greater than has been enjoyed by any government in England, and they have almost the entire control of the destinies of their country; but yet they can set public opinion at defiance, and retain office till the expiry of the four years for which they have been appointed. Such is the liberty enjoyed in America, and such is the force of the national will upon the conduct of the government!

CHAPTER IV.

RICHMOND—STATE OF VIRGINIA—TOBACCO TRADE OF THE STATES—TO WILMINGTON AND CHARLESTON.

On the morning of the 21st, I left Washington for the south. For the first sixty miles, we proceeded by a steam-boat, on the Potomac river. The morning was clear and frosty, and for the first mile the steamer had to make her way through a field of ice, which had been formed during the previous night. We had not gone far when we passed Mount Vernon, once the home, and now the resting-place of Washington. In a few hours we reached Acquia-Creek, and proceeding thence by railway, through a not very inviting country, we arrived towards evening in Richmond, the capital of the state of Virginia.

Richmond is situated on the north bank of the James river, about 150 miles from the Chesapeake, and 165 miles from the ocean. It is built upon several hills, which gives it an irregular but a very romantic appearance. The Capitol—the most conspicuous object in the city—is built on the highest hill, and stands in the centre of a public square. From the top of the Capitol I had an extensive view, not merely of the city which lay at my feet, but over the surrounding country, though unfortunately this was not a time of the year to see it to advantage.

I went to one of the largest tobacco manufactories, in expectation of seeing the leaf pass through its various stages of manufacture, to prepare it for the consumer, but in this I

was disappointed. At this time of the year the coloured population have their holidays, extending over two weeks, and during that period all the factories are at a stand. The owner, however, shewed me over his establishment, and explained the different processes by which the article is prepared for market.

Richmond is the largest city in Virginia, but still is of very moderate size compared with some of the northern cities. Recently, great efforts have been made to give an impulse to its prosperity, and to that of some other cities near it on the bay, but with what success remains to be seen.

Its population

In	1800 was	5,737
	1830	16,060
	1850	27,570

At no time has it been a city of much commercial importance; and even the position it at one time occupied, it seems to be gradually losing. The value of its trade

		IMPORTS. Dollars.	EXPORTS. Dollars.
In	1821 was . .	1,078,490	3,079,209
	1841	377,237	5,630,286
	1850	426,549	3,415,646

and even that trade, as its own friends admit, and lament, is carried on exclusively, on Northern capital, and by Northern enterprise,

With a rich backlying country, and with easy access to the ocean, this ought to have been the seat of a large and prosperous trade; whereas, the trade it had when its population was not half what it is now, has shown no symptoms of increase, but rather of decline.

For this decline various causes have been assigned. By some it is imputed to the difficult navigation of the James River, by others, to the want of means of internal communication; but it is probably as much owing to the want of enterprise among its people—the lethargy which more or less

exists in every slave state; to the dislike entertained by the "F. F.s"—the first families in the "Old Dominion"— to engage in the pursuits of commerce, and, as a consequence, to the slow progress of the state, in comparison with those of the North.

Within the last few years, considerable progress has been made towards the recovery of some of the lost ground, and railways and canals have been constructed, to open up communications from the city to the interior. The good effects of this movement are already perceptible, in the increased arrival of produce at the city. In 1852, the produce received weighed 256,987 tons, and was valued at $10,660,422.

Petersburg, a city on the Appomattox, about twenty-two miles from Richmond, has recently contended for a share of the trade of the state, and with growing success. That has been greatly aided by its being the point at which several railways meet.

Towards the north of the bay, stands Norfolk, which, from its large, safe harbour, and its proximity to the sea, is likely to become one of the most flourishing cities in the state. Its population in 1850, was 14,326, and now it is about 16,000. The tonnage belonging to the port in 1853, was 27,130. It is connected with the interior and west by railways, and its position otherwise, offers many advantages for foreign commerce.

From this point, many Southern men desire to run a line of steamers, direct to Europe, and also along the south and north coasts,—in other words, to make this city, in some measure, a rival to New York! Those lines of steamers, if established, would undoubtedly give an impulse to the commerce of the state; but if introduced, they could be maintained successfully, only by the previous existence of an extensive and prosperous commerce. At present, the project is quite visionary.

Virginia is the oldest settlement in the States, and for many years it was one of the most influential in the Union.

Since the Republic was established, it has also produced more eminent public men, than any other state. In recent years, however, it has been outstripped by other and younger states, and it now occupies a comparatively subordinate position. Its population increases very slowly, and every ten years its influence diminishes in the country, and in the National Legislature.

In travelling through this state, a painful sense of depression was created by observing the apathy of the people, their want of public spirit, or of enterprise, and by seeing large tracts of country, once cultivated, now permitted to go to waste, and to relapse into forest. It seemed like premature decay, and old age coming upon a young country, whose birth was but of yesterday. This decay is as observable to the Virginians as to strangers, and no one laments it more. I travelled through part of the state with one of the planters, and for some little way with its Governor. Both admitted the the lowered position of the state, but with regret. The former attributed it entirely to slavery, which, to employ his own words, uttered voluntarily, "is the curse of the state, and hangs like a loadstone, about the necks of its inhabitants."

Virginia is one of the richest agricultural states in the Union, and possesses a soil capable of producing the most abundant crops; but a proper system of cultivation has been entirely neglected, and thousands of acres of land have been cropped till exhausted, and have then been permitted to go to waste. Within the last few years, much of the land has been sold at very low prices, and has come into the possession of immigrants from the north, who are cultivating it with free labour, and I was told, with much success.

Virginia has hitherto been a larger producer of tobacco, than any other state in the Union. The growth of the United States—

In	1840	was	219,163,319 lbs.
	1850	„	199,952,655 „

In the former year there was

	Exported.	Retained at home.
	184,965,797 lbs.	34,197,522 lbs.
In 1850	122,406,780	77,345,875

This would shew a very large increase in the home consumption, a statement which is open to be questioned, as it is generally believed that the use of tobacco is not nearly so general nor so excessive as it was some years ago.

The quantity and value of the leaf tobacco exported was,

	Hogsheads.	Dollars.
In 1840	119,484	worth 9,883,957
1853	159,853	11,319,319

and the value of that shipped in the manufactured state and in snuff, was,

	Dollars
In 1840	813,672
1852	1,317,622

Of the whole production, about a fourth part was grown in Virginia. (*See Appendix.*)

On the afternoon of the 22nd, I took the railway for Wilmington, intending to go through to Charleston without stopping. This was expected to be done in a couple of days, of course without any stoppage during the night.

At an early hour next morning I was awakened from such sleep as is to be obtained in a railway car, by the violent shaking of the carriage. This disturbance proceeded from our engine coming into collision with another which was stationed on the line, but which, in the darkness, our engineer had not perceived till too late to prevent the accident. Fortunately, no harm was done, except to the engine, and to some of the carriages, and even that was but trifling. To repair that damage, however, we had to remain there three or four hours, on a dull disagreeable morning, and in a light drizzling rain. To this add, that we were in the middle of a North Carolina pine forest, at a considerable distance from

any town, and with no houses near except two or three uncomfortable-looking wooden cottages. One of these—a small shanty—was a small country store, where some of the passengers endeavoured to get something for breakfast, but all that could be obtained was a few dry biscuits with cheese, and a glass of water—the latter qualified by those who preferred it, with a few drops of brandy.

During the detention, one of the passengers proposed to hold "an indignation meeting." This I heartily seconded, expecting to hear some specimens of stump oratory. In this movement we were unsuccessful. The accident had not wakened all the passengers, and as the hour was early, and the morning cold and raw, we failed to get an attendance large enough to give importance to the proceedings.

At this part of the country the railway runs in a line, level and straight as an arrow flies, for about 40 miles. Being also through land of very little value, the owners of the line have had little to do except to lay the rails, and they have constructed it at a very small cost.

On arriving at Wilmington, I was somewhat disappointed to find that the through-ticket which I had taken at New York, would carry me on to Charleston, only by sea. The distance was nothing, but the weather was what was called dirty; and the wind, then blowing pretty stiffly, threatened to increase into a gale. Besides, pretty distinct recollections of a rough sea in the Atlantic, in a good ship, were not so very agreeable as to make me desire to run along the uninviting coast of South Carolina, in a steamer which, not long before, had been condemned as unseaworthy; and whose sailing qualities, if she ever had any, were well nigh worn out by many years' service.

As the steamer proceeded out of the river, the wind increased into a gale, the rain fell in torrents, and even in the firth the waves gave a severe shaking to the old hulk—a slight foretaste of what we might expect at sea. But we

were committed; and although in an old ship, in which not one of the passengers had any confidence, it was highly amusing to hear how valiantly every one spoke—certainly much more than any one felt.

After two or three hours' sail, we reached the bar at the mouth of the river; but as the gale continued to increase, the captain, fearing for the safety of his ship and passengers, decided upon putting back, and remaining at Wilmington till next morning. The passengers were relieved, and had no objections to find themselves again on land; but most were unwilling to repeat the experiment next day, perhaps to be attended with no better result. They preferred to take a longer and more expensive route by railway to reach their destination, though by that route they could not proceed till the following morning.

Wilmington is the largest and most commercial city in North Carolina, and is likely to become a place of some importance. It is the natural outlet for the productions of a large part of the state, and of a considerable portion of the northern part of South Carolina. The railways also, which now converge here, have added to its importance. As a port of refuge on the stormy coast of North and South Carolina, it has attracted the attention of the Federal Government, by whom it is proposed to remove the bar at the mouth of the river, and to improve the harbour.

The city is situated on Cape Fear River, about thirty-four miles from the sea, and has a population of about 10,000. Its exports consist of timber, naval stores, and cotton, the value of which, in 1852, was $4,540,668, and nearly all of which were shipped coastwise. The shipping belonging to the port in 1853, was 20,298 tons, and the arrivals of 1852, were 101,353 tons.

On the east coast of North Carolina, for about 60 miles from the sea, the country is level and marshy, and covered with pine forests. Towards the interior the land rises, and

is better adapted for agriculture. From the pine forests, large quantities of lumber and turpentine are exported to the Northern states.

From Wilmington, I went by railway to Manchester, South Carolina. During great part of the way, the line ran through swamps, and formed a very dreary, and as it seemed, rather an unsafe ride. In some places, and for considerable distances at a time, the rails were laid on piles raised several feet above the morass. Had any accident occurred in those never-ending forests, it would have been no easy matter to procure assistance, or to repair any damage which might have been sustained.

The line of railway was not quite completed, and for nine miles we had to travel by stage-coach. This was the most disagreeable mode of travelling I had seen in the States. The passengers were stowed into the carriages, and the baggage was strapped aloft. The road was as bad as can be conceived, being full of holes and ruts. In some places it was made of planks laid across the swamps, and supported by piles, but scarcely of more width than that of the carriage. What with the close wedging of the passengers, the jolting and shaking of the top-heavy coach, and the danger of being capsized into the swamp—no unusual event—the few hours occupied in travelling over this road formed an interval in my life by no means comfortable. Part of this journey was made in darkness, and the sensations then experienced were even less agreeable.

At the end of this ride we found ourselves on the banks of the great Pee Dee River, across which we were drawn by ropes, on an open raft—a somewhat primitive mode of conveying travellers.

At the next station we had to remain five or six hours—till after midnight—to form our connection with another line of railway. The accommodation provided was far from being comfortable in a cold winter's night; but that was somewhat excusable on a new line of railway. Seated around a large

log fire, with a number of Americans, some of whom entertained us with stories, anecdotes, and jests, the time passed rapidly, and without weariness.

Starting at an early hour next morning, we pursued our route, and were fortunate in having no other detention, even though the line was covered with snow. In the afternoon we were whirled into Charleston, in time to eat our Christmas dinner, for which a long ride in a bracing atmosphere had given us a right good appetite.

CHAPTER V.

CHARLESTON — ITS COMMERCE — SAVANNAH — COMMUNICATIONS WITH THE WEST — CONVENTION OF SOUTHERN STATES — TO MONTGOMERY AND MOBILE — GULF OF MEXICO.

CHARLESTON is situated on a point of land between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, which unite immediately below the city, forming a spacious harbour. In some respects its site and its harbour resemble those of New York. The streets of the city run mostly at right angles to each other, and are wide and open. Many of the houses are built of wood, with open verandahs, the benefits of which can be appreciated only in a warm climate. In the suburbs, many of the houses are covered with creeping plants, some of which in this mild winter climate, scarcely lose any of their freshness, or drop their blossoms. Gardens are generally attached, containing evergreens and other shrubs, and plants of various kinds, not a few of which at the time I was there, were studded with flowers.

Towards the end of last century, this city was one of the most populous and most influential in the States. During the first forty years of this century, it made little advance; and indeed from 1810 to 1830, it seems to have been almost stationary. Recently it has made considerable progress, and is now striving to recover the ground which was lost twenty years ago.

The population of the city

In	1800 was	18,711
	1830	30,289
	1850	42,958

Of these about a third is coloured.

The people are frank and hospitable, and the general tone of society is more refined and intelligent, than is to be found in almost any other part of America. A considerable portion of the inhabitants are of French origin, the descendants of those who took refuge here at the time of the revocation of the edict of Nantes. But intercourse with England, the education of their children in that country, intermarriage with English families, and the more conservative tendency of Southern institutions, have created and maintained a warm attachment to the old country among all the citizens; and the same causes have served to counteract the influence which the democratical form of government of the country naturally exercises over the character of the people.

At this season of the year, the coloured population had their holidays, extending over two or three weeks, and during that time all labour was suspended. The streets were thronged with both sexes, in a state of much enjoyment. No people seem to have a greater love of dress than the negroes, and none indulge it more freely when an opportunity offers. Their showy dresses—hats and boots especially—and their jewellery, —watch chains, rings, and shirt buttons—are all displayed to full advantage; and the excessive politeness with which they take off their hats and salute each other in the street, is highly amusing, and sometimes very ludicrous. Nor is this extravagant mode of life confined to the cities, for, on the steamers on the rivers, and in other places where there is any opportunity for display, the same ostentation is shewn. The women are, if possible, still fonder of gaudy finery, and they indulge their tastes with the same profuse extravagance.

The trade of Charleston consists almost entirely of the raw

produce of the state—of cotton, rice, and lumber. Her exports in 1854 were

Of Cotton, (uplands)	408,278 Bales
Cotton, (Sea Island)	24,766 „
Rice	125,772 Tierces
Lumber	19,709,798 Feet

In 1853 the value of her exports was $14,031,402, and from this amount the value of those of 1854 would differ very little. Of these exports about two thirds in value were sent to Great Britain. Her imports were valued in 1852 at $1,767,343. The tonnage belonging to the port in 1853 was 42,654.

Of the Sea Island cotton, that which is shipped from this port is of the very best quality, and some of it is worth from seventy-five cents to a dollar per pound. To give some idea of the extreme fineness of the most superior quality, I may mention, that in the London Exhibition of 1851, Thomas Houldsworth and Co., of Manchester, exhibited a sample of yarn of No. 2150^s spun from this cotton. That No. means, that in a pound of yarn of that fineness, there is 2150 hanks each 840 yards long. In other words, a pound of this yarn would extend about a thousand miles! This is the finest yarn ever spun, and of this a very small portion was made, and that at much trouble and cost.

Charleston was for many years the cotton market of the States, but in recent years it has been far outstripped by its more favoured rivals on the Gulf of Mexico. Still, it struggles to maintain its position, and latterly has made, and is still making, efforts which will have an important influence on its future career. Those efforts have been directed to the improvement of its harbour, and to an extension of its internal communications.

Though possessed of a fine harbour, it has been placed at some disadvantage by the shallowness of the water on its bar, and that obstacle has been gradually becoming more

obstructive, from the continued deposits of the rivers. This has prevented the approach of the larger class of vessels, and to that extent hindered the commercial prosperity of the district. The rivers which here unite are of no magnitude, and favour no internal intercourse of any value. Measures have now been adopted to remove these drawbacks to the trade of the city; and it is confidently expected, that with better outward shipping facilities, and with enlarged and cheap inland communication, a new era will dawn upon the career of the comparatively ancient city of Charleston.

The only city which competes with Charleston for the trade of this part of the country, is Savannah. It is situated on the river of the same name, and is about ninety miles south-west from Charleston. In recent years it has made very rapid progress in population and in commerce, and is now the largest city in the state of Georgia. Its population

In 1840 was	11,214
1853	23,458

being an increase of 109 per cent in 13 years. It owes its sudden prosperity entirely to the public spirit of its own population, who have shewn the greatest enterprise and energy, in extending their communications with the interior by railways, and by this means drawing to their port for shipment, large quantities of produce, which a few years ago it would have been impossible to bring to the sea coast.

In 1853 there were shipped from this port 39,929 casks of rice, and 30,000,000 feet of lumber; and in 1854, 300,200 bales of cotton were exported, of which 14,138 were of Sea Island.

These cities—Charleston and Savannah—for though separated and rivals, I shall class them together—are the natural outlets for the produce of the states of South Carolina and Georgia, and for considerable portions of North Carolina Alabama, and Florida. With such an extensive back-lying

country, and with consequent advantages, one is surprised at their slow progress, and the smallness of their commerce, and very naturally is led to enquire into the causes of the contrast they present to the cities of the north. With capital—of which they have no scarcity—and with intelligence among their merchants quite equal to what is possessed by those in any other mercantile community in the States, how came the natural advantages of those cities to have been so entirely neglected? A prominent cause, if not *the one*,—till recently—has been the lack of enterprise among their own people. Planters have produced crops, which they have almost been too proud to sell. The position of a gentleman farmer has been one of respectability; that of a merchant has, till recently, been questionable. The trading spirit has been at a discount, and almost nothing has been done to foster that commercial enterprise, which has produced such wonderful results in the north.

Meanwhile the northern cities have opened up new channels of trade, not merely in their own states, but with the whole of the West, and have diverted to their ports the produce of those immense regions. During the same period, the natural facilities for reaching the interior of the south-west, by the rivers which run into the Gulf, have raised up new states, which produce in larger quantity, of better quality, and at a cheaper cost, the very article of which the South Atlantic States were supposed to enjoy a monoply.

The merchants and planters, therefore, of Georgia and the Carolinas, who not many years ago took so little interest in developing the resources of their respective states, now find all their energy required to maintain the position they have heretofore occupied; and to this is owing the efforts they have recently been making to improve their harbours, and to provide easy and cheap access by railway to the interior of their own states, and to the West.

In no part of the States could railways be of greater service, than on the South Atlantic coast. There there are no rivers

of any magnitude, by which the interior can be approached. Hence, in those states, there are boundless tracts of country still in the hands of Government, because useless and unproductive, from their being inaccessible from the sea. Those regions being now intersected by railways, are opened up to the markets of the world, and, instead of being permitted to lie waste, they can be cultivated profitably, from the facilities now afforded for sending their produce to the sea coast.

All of this trade will be concentrated at the cities under review; and when they come, in the course of a few years, to have direct steam communication with Europe, they will have made some progress towards becoming the most influential cities of the South.

But those lines of railway are not to be limited, in their operation, to the states named. They are carried westward to touch the Mississippi Valley, and are intended to attract to the south-east coast, a portion of the produce of the West—of the states of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Missouri. Charleston offers a nearer outlet to the ocean from the great cities of the West, than any of the Northern cities; and brings them into nearer communication with Europe by 1,000 miles, than they are brought by the Mississippi river and by the Gulf of Mexico. Again, in the winter months, the severity of the climate in the north, offers partial obstacles to the transmission of goods to the coast by railway, while for months the canals are entirely obstructed by ice. And yet, this occurs at the very time that it is most desirable for consumers, and most convenient to producers, to forward the Western products to market. In the summer months, New Orleans provides no market, because the heat of the climate is injurious to much of the Northern products, and because of the unhealthiness of the city, and the consequent absence of its mercantile men. None of those obstacles exist at Charleston or Savannah. Their markets are open all the year round, and their communications are at all times safe and reliable. With these

advantages, with cheap and extensive internal communications, with good harbours, and with ready means of shipment, nothing but lack of public spirit among their merchants, can prevent those cities from becoming places of much commercial importance.

Within the last few years, the Southern and Western states, have organized an association which meets annually at some one of the large Southern cities, to take into consideration matters which affect the welfare of the states represented. Delegates are sent from each state to attend the convention, and there the affairs of the South are reviewed by the various speakers; measures are devised to promote the interests of the South, and resolutions are passed in accordance with those measures, and with the opinions of those present.

These annual meetings are a means of disseminating much information throughout the South: they enlighten the South as to its own interests, and its strength, and they favour its union, and any combined movement which may be deemed advisable for the general welfare. In all these respects they have been in a high degree successful, and hence much of the pertinacity with which southern objects have been urged in the National Legislature, and much of the success with which they have been attended.

The most important subjects which have been brought under consideration at the annual meetings are:—the development of the resources of the Southern states; an extension of their railway, canal, and river communications; steam communication with Europe, from Charleston, Norfolk, or some other Southern port; a direct import trade with Europe; a railway to the Pacific; an extension of their manufactures, particularly in cotton; and the removal, or at all events the diminution of the custom duties levied on imports, particularly on iron and other articles of large consumption in the South.

That proposition recommending an extension of internal

communication is the most practicable, and that which, if followed up, will most benefit the South. With an extensive system of railways, running over those states, their agriculture and commerce would rapidly increase, and the extension of their foreign trade to Europe, and to the Pacific, direct and through secondary channels, would inevitably follow. In view of such improvements, an important end would be gained, by the abolition of the duties on iron, for by this means the cost of all their public works would be very much cheapened.

The principal products of the states of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, are cotton, rice, and Indian corn. South Carolina is the principal rice-growing state in the Union. In 1850 the entire quantity grown was 215,313,497 pounds, of which South Carolina produced 159,930,613 pounds. The total quantity exported from the States in 1854 was 105,121 tierces, valued at $2,634,127.

After a few day's rest in Charleston, I proceeded westward through Georgia and Alabama. We left Charleston on the morning of January 1st, 1854, and as we passed through the outskirts of the city, we were charmed with the beauty of the weather—a contrast to that at home at the same time of the year—and the profusion of the suburban vegetation. The brilliant sunshine, the clear atmosphere, the mild temperature of the air, with just tone enough to render it exhilarating, and the foliage of the forest gardens, still half in leaf, through which we were hurried along, reminded me of one of our finest autumnal mornings, rather than as the first day of a New Year.

About the middle of the second day, we had a detention of some hours in one of the Western districts. An engine which preceded us, had met with an accident, and was lying across the line obstructing our progress. To remove this was no easy matter, but it required to be accomplished before we could pass. Meanwhile, our train had to return with the mail, and so

after the baggage of the passengers had been turned out on the bank, we were left, with some assistance, to make the best we could of the broken-down engine. After some hours' delay, we managed to move forward, and, after a few hours' staging over a most villainous country road, we had the good fortune to reach West Point towards evening. Here, shortly after our arrival, there appeared another crowd of passengers, who had been detained on another line, and were like ourselves, unexpectedly thrown at this place for the night. With such a large arrival, and without any preparations, the accommodations were not of the best. Beds, of course, could not be obtained at an instant's notice, for nearly 100 people; and therefore, most of us had to lie on the floor, and make the best of our hard couches. At an early hour next morning we proceeded forward, and towards evening arrived at Montgomery. This is one of the largest cotton depôts in the interior, and from this point large quantities are shipped to Mobile, and New Orleans.

From this point we had the choice of two routes to Mobile, one by stage for about 200 miles, and the other by steam-boat on the Alabama River, for about twice the distance. By one way, we had the certainty of being thoroughly shaken; by the other, we ran the risk of being blown up. The latter route was generally preferred by the passengers who had come by railway, and who were going forward. On the same evening, therefore, between thirty and forty of us, pretty well known to each other by this time, found ourselves on board one of the river steamers, bound for Mobile.

The distance from Montgomery to Mobile by river, is about 400 miles, and that distance in one of the boats, with a high pressure engine, can be accomplished in a day and a half. But in going downwards, the owners take in cargoes of cotton —here, the staple article of trade—at the numerous landings on the river; and hence, as in the present instance, the trip is not accomplished in less than three days or more.

Though our trip was of more than an average length, no one complained of the delay. The weather was deliciously mild, enabling the passengers to spend most of their time on the upper deck. The windings of the river are very varied, and with occasional bluffs covered with timber and thick underwood, here and there dipping their branches into the unruffled surface of the water, the green foliage of summer was alone wanting to render them perfectly beautiful. The accommodations on the steamer were as good as at an hotel, and the passengers strove to render themselves agreeable, and readily contributed to every amusement which helped to pass the hours pleasantly.

The passengers were from many parts. Half-a-dozen were from the Old Country, some were from the Northern states, others from the South, and a few were from Texas and California. Nor less varied were their professions. We had military men and civilians; merchants and manufacturers; planters, lawyers, and others. Nor did we lack variety among the fair sex, though that variety related to their age and personal appearance. Among them were no less than three brides, who had just left the paternal roof, to enter upon the duties and cares, and it may be the happiness of the matrimonial state.

For amusements we had to resort to books, conversation, music, and dancing. In the latter pastime, the negroes gave us specimens of their performance, and shewed how heartily they enjoyed the excitement.

But one of our most valuable sources of entertainment we owed to one of the lady passengers, who favoured us with two lectures—one on "Phrenology," and the other on the "Rights of Women." Both were very discursive. Indeed it would be difficult to say to what subjects she did not advert, and therefore, it would seem that she had less desire to expound the ostensible subjects of her discourses, than to employ them as starting points, from which she might shew the extent and variety of her acquirements. In one point I never heard the lectures surpassed. That was in the rapidity with

which they were delivered. All ladies are said to be fluent in speech, but this one spoke with unwonted volubility.

At nearly all the landings below Montgomery we had an accession made to our numbers. The new arrivals were mostly of planters, who were attended by negroes, and who, I learned were proceeding westward to the Mississippi States, and to Texas. In those states, land is much more fertile and productive, than on the Atlantic coast. The quality of the cotton grown there is finer, and therefore more valuable. The Gulf markets are accessible by river, and for produce, at small cost. These are irresistible temptations, to men who have no special attachment to any particular locality, and hence there is a constant stream of emigration running from the Atlantic States westward; and to an extent that, if continued, will, if it do not diminish the actual population on the east coast, at all events prevent its natural increase. This movement is not confined to the cotton regions on the east coast, but extends north, to Virginia, if not also to Maryland. It was therefore high time for the capitalists and merchants of those states to bestir themselves in the march of improvement, and by opening up cheaper and more direct communications with the interior, offer facilities for commercial operations, sufficient to counteract the influence of the temptations held out in the West.

In due time we arrived at Mobile, and our agreeable party broke up, not, however, without some regret. Many kind invitations and other courtesies were exchanged, and my countrymen—several of whom were present—were not overlooked. Civilities were shewn them by people to whom they had been entire strangers not more than three days before, and with such frankness and sincerity, as were a satisfactory proof of the readiness with which the Americans shew attention to every one from the Old Country.

Mobile is situated at the mouth of the river of the same

name, and is about thirty miles from the Gulf of Mexico. Its population

In 1840 was	12,672.
1850	20,515.

After New Orleans, it is the largest cotton market in the States. In 1852, it exported 545,920 bales of cotton, of which 345,930 bales were to foreign ports. The value of the exports in 1852, was $17,388,535, and that of the imports, only $702,918. In that year the tonnage entered and cleared at the port, was 250,424.

Mobile is the outlet for a large portion of the produce of the state of Alabama, and also for a part of that of East Mississippi, which is sent down the Alabama River. One drawback to her progress has arisen from a bar at the mouth of the river, which frequently obstructs the entrance of large ships. That however is in course of removal. To increase her internal operations, she is throwing out various lines of railways to different parts of the state, and to the north. One of these, joining her with the mouth of the Ohio, is the most important, and when completed, will be attended with beneficial results to the commerce of the city. The distance is about 600 miles, through a very level country, and in which therefore no great expenditure will be required. This will bring the Gulf into near communication with Kentucky—in about thirty hours—and will attract to this port a fair share of the produce of that and the neighbouring states.

On the 7th, I left Mobile for New Orleans. The steamer—low pressure—was crowded with passengers, of whom upwards of 300 were in the cabin alone. Most of them were emigrants proceeding to the West. As those steamers run daily along the Gulf, each time with numerous passengers, besides those proceeding by other channels, one can have some idea of the large number of emigrants striving to find out a home in the unexplored valleys of the West.

During the day the wind changed to the north, and the temperature fell to about the freezing point. This, with the moistness of the atmosphere, rendered the air bitterly cold—much more than could be expected in that southern latitude.

We ran rapidly along the Gulf, to the landing place on Lake Pontchartrain, and thence by rail for six or eight miles, and thus in a few hours we arrived in the "Crescent City."

CHAPTER VI.

NEW ORLEANS CITY—SUBURBS—CEMETERIES—CLIMATE—POPULATION—AMUSEMENTS—COMMERCE—YELLOW FEVER.

WHO has not heard of the attractions of New Orleans? its fine winter climate—its numberless amusements—its unceasing round of parties, public and private,—its concerts, balls, and lectures—and above all, its gigantic commerce?

The opinions current on those subjects are in some respects correct, and in others much exaggerated.

But first, let me say a few words about the city. It stands on the left bank of the Mississippi, and is about 100 miles from its mouth. The ground on which it is built has been formed by the deposits of the river; and even now, during the winter and spring months, the river when flooded, rises five to six feet above the level of the streets. The city, and the country above and below, are protected from annual inundations, by embankments extending along the river on both sides from two to three hundred miles.

The main streets run parallel to the river, and are crossed by others at right angles. Most of them are open and spacious, and many of them contain large solid buildings. The soil is, however, so soft, that no building of any weight can be erected except upon piles, which are driven deep into the ground, to form a secure foundation. Even then, the security is only comparative; for, though with proper precautions, there is no such sinking of the buildings as to endanger their safety, yet, with the utmost care, no foun-

dation can be formed, which with a heavy structure, does not yield; and hence, many of the most substantial buildings have rents in their walls, which, in any other place than this, would be deemed very unsafe.

The streets are the dirtiest I had ever seen. The sewers are all open, and though drained into Lake Pontchartrain, yet, as there is but little fall, they are generally half full of stagnant water, and mud, and the refuse of the streets. From the river, a current of water is directed nightly along the sewers (ditches?) of the streets running towards the lake, and this serves to carry off much of the loose refuse; but in those which run along the streets parallel to the river and lake, no arrangements have been made to keep them clean; and it is only when there happens to be a fall of rain, that they receive a thorough purification. In consequence of this neglect, the water in those sewers, in less than four-and-twenty hours after rain, becomes covered with a dirty green crust, and even at this season of the year—in winter—gives off a most offensive smell. In the evenings, when the air is moist, this is peculiarly disagreeable and unhealthy.

The streets are now and again raked, for the accumulation of rubbish is too great to be removed by sweeping, but the refuse thus collected is often permitted to remain in the middle of the streets for one or two days; and if, in the interval, there happen to be a heavy fall of rain, those heaps are washed down, and their contents again carried into the sewers.

In a large city with such defective sanitary regulations, is it wonderful that epidemics should be frequent, and that New Orleans should be proverbial for its unhealthiness? Is it not rather surprising, as was remarked to me by one of the medical men of the city, that in one form or other disease should ever be absent?

The country around the city is nearly one large swamp, but in the immediate suburbs, there are some districts which

have been drained, and are suitable for gardens and for country houses. Some parts are laid out with much care, and compared with the city, have considerable attractions, from their smart houses and ornamental gardens. Many of the houses are imbosomed amid roses and creeping plants, which scarcely ever lose their greenness, and the flowers on which are renewed nearly as fast as they decay. The gardens contain evergreens, among which as special favourites, prominence is given to the orange trees. At this time of the year, they were in full leaf, and had also clusters of ripe rich golden fruit peeping out most temptingly from amid the thick green foliage. The same trees bore fruit only half advanced to maturity. Two months later—in March—they were covered with blossom, the perfume of which, almost too rich, scented the air with its fragrance.

In this latitude, nature only partially unrobes herself in the winter months, and many trees and plants always retain their summer hue. Others again resume their verdure early in the spring, at a time when in a more northerly latitude, winter retains dominion over the earth.

The cemeteries of New Orleans are peculiar to the city, and are visited by all strangers. The soil in and around the city is very wet, so much so, that if a pit be dug three or four feet deep, in a short time it is half filled with water. This arises from the soil being below the level of the river. Underground burial is therefore very rarely attempted, and the tombs are all erected above the ground, from one to three stories high. The citizens seem to take a melancholy pleasure in decorating the resting places of the dead. A great many of the tombs are of white marble, with brief, but expressive inscriptions, indicative of the affection borne towards their tenants. Round many of them are planted rose bushes, and other flowering shrubs, some of which at this time were in full bearing, and here and there were cedar and orange trees, which always retain their greenness.

During my visit, on a Sunday afternoon, I saw groups of people, evidently family circles, collected here and there, and I imagined that their conversation related to dear ones now no more. Some of the previous visitors had brought garlands of flowers, which were placed upon the tombs—touching memorials of love towards the dead. Some of the flowers had decayed, but no rude hand had dared to remove them. Others were fresh and beautiful, as if newly plucked. In some instances a handful was placed in small basins of water, that they might retain their freshness—emblematical of the undying affection of the mourners.

Those tokens of friendship and of love, were more numerous at this time than at any former period in the history of the city. This was in consequence of the terrific ravages of the fever—I might almost say the plague—which during the previous summer had carried off thousands of the inhabitants. Of those thus suddenly cut off, a large proportion were in the prime of life—the young, the gay, and the thoughtless—around whom the hopes and the affections of their families were intertwined, and whose untimely fate was the more deeply deplored.

It may be supposed, that, from the frequent recurrence of fever in this city, the people are familiarised with death, and able to look upon it with comparative composure, even when it enters into their own dwellings. This, however, can scarcely be the case, for it is peculiar to the character of no people to love their relatives with greater tenderness than others, although the manifestation of that love may in one case be more demonstrative, and in the other more suppressed, as the habits and character of the people may happen to differ. It is said and perhaps with some truth, that the people here are fickle and readily influenced by external circumstances, which render their emotions variable and transitory; and it is therefore argued that their sorrows are of no duration; but that very susceptibility to outward impressions, even when the

results are most evanescent, cannot fail to add at the moment to the intensity and bitterness of their grief.

The climate of New Orleans is frequently all that can be desired; but, as in all parts of America, it is liable to very sudden and extreme alternations of heat and cold. On my arrival, the wind was northerly and keen, and the temperature was very little above the freezing point. In a few days the wind veered to the south, and in less than twelve hours the temperature rose fully 40°. The air was loaded with moisture from the Gulf, and was warm and oppressive. This continued for about ten days, the thermometer ranging from 70° to 75° during the night, and from 80° to 85° in the shade at noon. At the end of that period, the change to cold weather was as sudden and extreme. These variations continued at intervals during my stay, and a constant warmth did not set in till the end of April. But all the weather we had was not such. Sometimes after a torrent of rain—such rain as is unknown in our latitude—we had weather the most delicious imaginable—weather which makes mere existence a source of enjoyment. With the thermometer at 70° in the shade, and with the atmosphere clear, dry, and lofty, the animal spirits were exhilarated almost to intoxication. During the day the streets were thronged with ladies enjoying the fresh air, and in the evenings, the open verandahs on the houses were full of occupants—the ladies cooling themselves in the evening breeze, and the gentlemen in addition, enjoying the soothing properties of their cigars, and enveloped in clouds of smoke of their own creation.

Of the inhabitants of the city, from November to May, a large number—I should think fully a fourth part—is migratory. Some are from Europe, particularly from Great Britain; a considerable number from the Northern states, and a still larger number from the states in the South. Those from Europe and the North, are merchants, who come hither

during the winter months, to purchase the produce of the South and West. Those from the neighbouring states, are planters, who frequent this market to sell the cotton, sugar, corn, and other products of their plantations. The stay of the merchants in the city, generally continues for about six or seven months, but that of the planters may not last longer than two or three weeks.

Of the ladies, a very few are from Europe, because of the distance, and the inconvenience of travelling so far. A good many are from the North, most of them accompanying their husbands and other relatives, and a few attracted by the mildness of a Southern winter, and the gaiety of the city. But the greatest number are from the South and West, the wives and daughters of the planters, who come hither to enjoy, for a short time, the amusements and excitement of a city life.

Of this unsettled population, a very large proportion live in hotels, or in boarding houses — residences agreeable enough for a short time, but forming rather indifferent homes. With a mixed assemblage of people thus situated, and among a large French population, proverbially excitable and fond of pleasure, how can the city be otherwise than gay? and who can resist its temptations? Even the most staid are hurried along with the others. Living among a crowd, without the repose of home, and unable from the excitement of business,—which from its very nature is irregular and speculative,—to follow with steadiness any domestic pursuit, they have scarcely any alternative, but to enter into the amusements and dissipation of the public.

Gentlemen, while here, may be as sedate as they please during business hours, and during the day they may give close application to their commercial pursuits, if so inclined; but in the evenings they are compelled to relax, and are soon hurried into the grand vortex of pleasure and excitement. Ladies come hither to enjoy themselves, and therefore all kinds of amusement come to them as a matter of course.

Preparations are carefully made for the parties to which they are invited; and while their husbands, fathers, or brothers, are engaged in the pursuit of wealth, they are not less actively employed in its expenditure, by making investments in dresses and jewellery, to be shewn off to advantage at the next evening assemblage.

With this fertile field, open to the ingenuity and industry of those who cater for the public enjoyment, and with a public able, as well as willing, to pay for their gratification, it would be surprising if there were lack of effort to meet public expectation. Hence lectures, theatricals, concerts, and other amusements, abound to satiety.

The lectures are of very moderate ability, and so are the performances at the theatres and concerts. The balls, again, are most brilliant; and when given in public, are frequently unrivalled in their attendance, and in the richness of the dresses and decorations. At the principal hotels, there is dancing one night each week; and during the season, there are always two or three unusually splendid balls, and at least one in mask or fancy dress. At one of those mask balls, I have seen from five to six hundred people, with every variety of costume; and at a public one, which was given by a few bachelors, upwards of a thousand were in attendance. The extravagance of such entertainments may be imagined, when it is stated that the latter cost $10,000. Of this sum $3,000 was for wine alone, and $2,500 for music, (for Jullien's Band).

Private balls are of nightly occurrence, particularly among the Creoles, or the inhabitants of French descent. To these, strangers are readily admitted; and once introduced at one of them, they will have no lack of invitations to others. The evening parties given by the French inhabitants are the most elegant and agreeable in the city. The abundance of flowers here, even in winter, leads to their being used on such occasions, profusely and with taste; and at these parties,

and indeed wherever opportunity offers, gentlemen shew their gallantry by presenting them in *bouquets* to the ladies.

The lectures and concerts are well attended, and receive a full share of public applause. Indeed, not only do the public applaud, but the press is forward to shew its approval, and frequently descends to a minuteness and particularity of criticism, that pleases only those who love to indulge in gossip, and gratifies the vanity of those who desire notoriety.

When I say criticism, I do not mean what is understood by that term in England. In New Orleans, to criticise, always means to commend; but in England, it frequently means to censure, if not to condemn.

Let me give a specimen of the criticisms on some of the lectures :—

"The lecture (by Dr. ——) as a whole, must have been an extremely interesting and beautiful intellectual effort. The peroration was a chaste and eloquent piece of composition, and its delivery marked by a manly and vigorous elocution. The audience was a highly refined and intelligent one. Popular lectures seem to be all the rage."

"Professor —— will resume his magnificent theme this evening, and will treat it magnificently. The history of Greece, so attractive to the student, so interesting to the general reader, so glorious in many of its aspects, will sparkle and glow in his magic hands, with unwonted brilliancy. The opening lecture, last Thursday evening, was surpassingly beautiful and instructive—full of splendid periods, noble thoughts nobly expressed, and valuable information."

Again—

"The lecture was replete with gorgeous imagery, glorious classical gems, and profound, yet instructive erudition."

Again—

"It was replete with classical knowledge, glowing periods, and eloquent thoughts eloquently expressed."

Now for an example of what can be said on music :—

"That Jullien was a great musician, we knew. That he was a still greater organiser of musicians we saw no reason to doubt. That he was the most accomplished conductor of his day we believed. And yet,

perfectly aware of the magnificent reunion of talent which he has effected—aware too of his great reputation in Europe, and of the celebrity of his principal supporters, we confess that we were not prepared for the grand Festival of the Soul, which we enjoyed last night at his second concert in this city. It was the true sublime of music.

"We do not pretend to the professional coldness of critics. We prefer to give our involuntary enthusiasm its full sweep and swing, and honestly to declare the impressions made by the Grand Maestro. He has triumphed here as everywhere else. He has aroused patriotic feelings which seemed to slumber amongst us. He has done more by fifteen minutes of his weird enchantment, to awaken the American idea —somewhat too latent in modern days—to place us face to face with the grandeur of our country, to recall our military glory, and at the same time define our military genius, than all the orators, or writers, or artists of the world could effect, even if different ages lent their united strength—if Demosthenes joined with Raphael, and Shakspeare with Henry Clay—after years of ceaseless labour and combined effort!

"This may appear sad rant. But the enthusiasm created by M. Jullien, is too deep-felt and genuine not to be expressed. When his grand American piece was played, the passion of the audience broke forth into a wild cheer, and during the battle scene, the crashing of the cannon, the roll of the drums, the thunder of the conflict, and the clear notes of Kœnig's cornet ringing above all like an angel's voice proclaiming victory to the Americans, all, finally, settling down into the triumphant National Air—men and women leaped to their feet, every face glowed with passionate delight—tears of pride and pleasure ran down many an aged cheek; an electric pulse beat through the whole assemblage—and as the upraised finger of Jullien pointed to the final swell of the anthem, there was not a heart which did not throb with ecstasy, as each remembered at last that these victorious sounds were heard in the city of the great battle, where the foreign foe went down before the headlong charge of America! It is a noble custom that of rising to salute our country's fighting tune—and to Jullien is due the honour of establishing it amongst us. The oldest lady in the room rose to her feet, from the same impulse that inspired the boys, and in the entire audience there was but one idea—the martial glory of our nation."

The population of New Orleans

In 1820 was	27,176
1840	102,193
1850	116,375

and a recent local census is said to shew a still larger increase. Of these, the larger portion are of French descent, and of the others many are Irish and German immigrants. Here, as in other parts of the Union, the immigrants perform the lowest kinds of labour.

New Orleans owes its commercial importance to its situation at the mouth of the Mississippi river, and to its unrivalled advantages for inland trade. This river, navigable for thousands of miles, conveys to this point the produce of the interior, and from this again it is shipped to foreign markets. The quantity of produce brought here is quite prodigious, and cannot be imagined by any one who has not seen it. The quay is piled up every morning with heaps of cotton, corn, flour, provisions, and all sorts of agricultural produce, and before night all is cleared off, on shipboard or elsewhere to give place to other supplies on the following day. This produce arrives from the interior by steamers, several of which arrive daily, and when inspected and sold, it is at once removed for shipment.

The amount of business transacted in this city, is, in proportion to its population, larger than in any other city in the world. It amounts to nearly $150,000,000 per annum; but as nearly all of it is done in from six to eight months of the year, the activity of the merchants, the extent of their operations, and the bulk and weight of produce passed through the port in that time are quite wonderful.

The total value of the exports from the port was, in 1853, $98,983,326, and in 1854, $83,651,383. In 1853, a few of the articles were:—

Cotton	1,644,981 bales
Tobacco	64,075 hhds
Sugar	93,732 „
„	4,212 barrels
Flour	520,415 „
Indian Corn	868,117 sacks
Pork	200,226 barrels
Lard	723,996 kegs

The value of the receipts from the interior

	Dollars.
In 1842-3 was	45,716,045
1852-3	134,233,735
1853-4	155,336,798

The receipts in 1852-3, compared with 1842-3, were

1852-3.		Dollars.	1842-3
Cotton . 1,664,864 bales,	value	68,259,424	1,089,642 bales
Sugar . 321,934 hhds.	„	15,452,688	140,000 hhds.
Molasses 25,700,000 galls.			5,140,000 galls.
Flour . 808,672 barls.	value	3,639,024	
Corn . 1,225,031 sacks	„	1,592,540	
Pork . 316,592 barls. „ . 12,985,810 lbs.	value . .	5,276,365	
Lard . . 118,243 trcs. & bls. „ . . 159,672 kegs	value	3,952,514	

All the cotton is exported; but of the other articles much is retained in the country; and of sugar and molasses the largest part is sent to the interior by the river. Of the exports of those two articles from this port, scarcely any is sent out of the States.

In the year 1853, the number of arrivals and clearances at the port was—

	Ships	Tons.
Arrivals	1093	511,878
Clearances	1216	630,820

and the entire arrivals coastwise (including the river) and foreign, were—

Ships	782
Barques	447
Brigs	295
Schooners	596
Steam Ships	244
Steam Boats	3253
	5,617

The arrivals of breadstuffs and provisions have not in-

creased of late years. This has arisen from the facilities now offered to producers for shipping them to New York and to the east coast, instead of sending them to the Gulf. These new channels are likely to extend, and to be more largely used by Western merchants; and though they may not absolutely diminish the quantities of articles sent down the river, they will prevent their natural increase with the increase of the population. Of the products of the country below the junction of the Ohio and the Mississippi, nearly all will continue to be exported by the Gulf, unless from cheap carriages by railway, and ready and moderate freights to Europe, the cities of Charleston, Savannah, and Mobile, draw a portion to their ports. That, however, will be small compared with the natural growth of the adjoining states, in population, wealth, and agricultural productions; and if therefore New Orleans in addition to the natural advantages she now has, offers others, by opening up lines of railway, she will continue to retain the largest share of that traffic which she now enjoys.

One obstacle, almost fatal to the prosperity of the city, has been the periodical recurrence of that scourge, the yellow fever. This has at intervals decimated the population of the city, and prevented thousands from settling there who would otherwise have done so. It has also contributed largely to diminish the trade of the city. Merchants who have an interest in the trade of the interior, and who are dealers in the articles imported or exported, but who are unwilling to run the risk of suffering from any of the diseases peculiar to the locality, contrive measures to draw the trade into new channels, and to new ports on the east coast, and in the Gulf. Hence the innumerable lines of railways now joining the Ohio valley to the east coast, and hence the success which has attended those undertakings.

With constant evidence of the truth of these remarks

brought before the authorities in the city of New Orleans, it is surprising that they adopt no measures to try to improve its healthiness. For such improvements there is ample room, and much necessity. With a system of complete drainage, with the sewers well scoured out at regular and frequent intervals, and with the streets well swept, there is much reason to believe that if fever were not entirely got rid of, it would at all events be much less frequent in its visitations, and much less virulent in its attacks.

That it may not be considered that I over-estimate the value of cleanliness to the city, let me mention, that, on the recommendation of the medical faculty, there has been proposed as preventatives of fever.

1st.—A system of underground drainage.

2nd.—A plentiful supply of water.

3rd.—Good pavements to provide good streets.

4th.—Cheap bathing establishments.

5th.—Drainage of the swamp round the city.

Of the necessity for those reforms no one can have any conception, who has not seen the present condition of the city. Bad as the streets are in winter, in summer they are very much worse. In support of this statement, extracts from medical reports could be given almost without end; but it will be enough to quote the words of a physician which were addressed to myself.

"During the summer months of 1853, we had an unusual quantity of rain, and the streets were scarcely ever dry. The open sewers were full of water, and being seldom cleaned, they were obstructed with vegetables and other rubbish. These vegetables decaying, tainted the atmosphere. As if this were not enough, the authorities gave orders for the distribution of poison in the streets, to destroy the numerous dogs which frequented them, and their carcases were often allowed to remain till quite putrid. To this add, that sometimes dead horses were found lying in the streets where they had

fallen, overcome with heat, and oppressed with work. The stench from this disgusting accumulation became so offensive, that even the acclimated inhabitants were unable to pass through some of the leading streets, without holding their handkerchiefs to their nose."

To remove those accumulations of impurity, various attempts were made by the respectable inhabitants who remained in the city during the pestilence, but their efforts met with but little success. The government of the city was in the hands of a class of people who cared more for the sweets of office, than for the health of the city, or for the welfare of the citizens. In 1853, they expended about $1,750,000; but in the spring of 1854, no improvement had been effected on the condition of the city, and no precaution whatever had been taken to prevent a recurrence of the scourge by which the city had been afflicted in the previous year. A very large out-of-door meeting was held to urge measures of improvement, but the result of that agitation has yet to be seen.

The affairs of the city are administered by men selected from among the most ignorant and unscrupulous of the inhabitants. The leading newspapers ascribe the influence enjoyed by these men to the laxity allowed at the general elections, and to corruption among the voters. One of them says, "No honest man can vote more than once. The persons we have soiled our columns by even referring to, can vote ten, fifteen, or twenty times; and have, and will, if they be paid for so doing."

The number of those who fell victims to the fever in 1853, were estimated at about 10,000. Most of them were people who had not been acclimated, though it is stated that some of the Creoles were carried off, who had been born in the city, and lived there all their lives. Many negroes also died, who had been brought hither from the slave states.

Of those most subject to the attacks of fever, it is remarked in a report drawn up by one of the city physicians.

"The first in all cities, and in all ages, to acknowledge the presence of epidemics, and who suffer most from all other diseases, are the exposed, the improvident, and the intemperate.

"Rain and sunshine, heat and cold, unwholesome food and drink, adulterated and impoisoned liquors, irregularity in eating, drinking, and sleeping, as well as the most insalubrious style of clothing and dwelling, all these, &c."

This is quite in accordance with the experience acquired in in our own country during the prevalence of epidemics.

CHAPTER VII.

THE COTTON TRADE—ITS PROGRESS—EXPORTS—VARIATIONS IN PRICE—FUTURE SUPPLY—PRODUCTION PER ACRE—SURFACE UNDER CROP—EXTENT OF SUITABLE LANDS—COST OF PRODUCTION—GROWING SCARCITY OF LABOUR—CHINESE LABOUR—SUGAR TRADE—EXTENT AND VALUE OF CROP—LOSS TO THE UNION BY PROTECTION OF SUGAR.

THE staple interest of the South is that of cotton, and New Orleans is its greatest market. The annual value of that exported from the States is equal to that of all other articles taken together.

The rapid rise of this branch of industry, and its progress to the present time, are quite unprecedented in the annals of commerce. About seventy years ago the first bale was produced in the States. Its growth continued to increase steadily, and the crops

In 1822—3 were	495,000	bales
1832—3	1070,438	„
1842—3	2,378,875	„
1852—3*	3,262.882	„

*The crop of 1853-4 amounted to 2,927,608 bales. This deficiency, compared with the previous year, was owing to a partial failure in the crop, and to the lowness of the rivers throughout the season, whereby it is believed a good deal of cotton could not be brought to market.

The following observations on the cotton trade were written before the extent of the crop of 1853-4 was known, and hence reference is always made in the text to the crop of 1852-3, instead of to that of the latter year. The figures relating to 1852-3 I have retained, because the crop of that year was the largest ever grown.

In the latter year, the receipts at different ports were—

At New Orleans	1,580,875	bales
Mobile	545,029	„
Georgia	349,490	„
South Carolina	463,203	„
Texas	85,790	„
Florida	179,476	„
North Carolina	23,496	„
Virginia	25,783	„
Northern Ports	9,740	„
	3,262,882	„

in addition to which, it is estimated that there were consumed in the growing states, and of course not included in the amount said to represent the crop.

In North Carolina	20,000	bales
South Carolina	10,000	„
Georgia	20,000	„
Alabama	5,000	„
Tennessee	5,000	„
On the Ohio	30,000	„
	90,000	„

In the same year the exports were—

To Great Britain *	1,737,860	bales
France	426,728	„
North of Europe	171,176	„
Other Parts	193,636	„
United States	671,009	„
	3,200,409	„

The total exports were—

	lbs.	Dollars.
In 1823	173,723,270 valued at	20,445,520
1833	324,698,604	36,191,105
1843	792,297,106	49,119,806
1853	1,111,570,370	109,456,404

* The consumption of cotton in Great Britain and Ireland is estimated at near 40,000 bales per week, of which upwards of eighty per cent. is of American growth.

With a large increase of production, there was a constant decline in price, until the year 1845, when it attained a lower average than in any preceding or subsequent year. The average price of that year was 5.92 cents per lb.

The average for five years ending

1825 was	16.2	cents per lb.
1833	10.0	„ „
1843	9.6	„ „
1848	8.0	„ „
1853	9.5	„ „

The average price for the year ending June 30th, 1849, was 6.4 cents. This low price was in consequence, partly, of the large crop of that year, and partly of the commercial disasters of 1847, and the political events in Europe in 1848. In the five years ending 1853, the average price was $10\frac{1}{3}$ cents per pound.

It will therefore be seen that the lowest point to which the price of cotton has come, was in the year 1845, and that since that time, it has had a steady tendency to advance. Nor has that advance been trifling; but coupled with the high rates of freight which have been current during the last few years, it has entered largely into the calculation of consumers, and must have exercised a considerable influence on the progress of the cotton trade.

The cause of this enhanced price seems to have been the general prosperity of the cotton trade—undoubtedly the fruits of the liberal commercial policy of Great Britain—and the consequent largely extended consumption of the raw material. In other words, the demand has been greater than the supply, and higher prices have been the consequence. If no other element has entered into the circumstances which have determined the average value during the last few years, then the benefits of this advance in price will have been entirely on the side of the producers, and will have gone to increase their profits. I believe that the effect of any new element

affecting its value has been moderate, and that therefore cotton-growing has in recent years been a highly profitable pursuit. The element to which I allude, as likely to diminish the profits of the planter, is that of increased cost of production, arising from the greater scarcity, and consequent dearness of labour.

The scarcity of labour has been much felt in the South, a result of the large demand for the productions of that region; and in consequence, the value of slave labour has advanced nearly 100 per cent. within the last few years. Still, with that increase of the cost of production, cotton growing at the present prices, is a very profitable occupation.

No people have so much interest in any question touching the supply of cotton, as the people of Great Britain; and the prosperity of no other nation would be so much affected by whatever would cut off, or largely diminish our supply, or enhance its value in the market. Nor do we look merely to a continuation of our present supply. The cotton trade is annually extending, and our consumers require an annually increasing quantity, to meet their increasing consumption. Three-fourths of our consumption is now drawn from America; and therefore, depending so largely upon that country, it may not be uninteresting to enquire into the prospects of our future supply.

With respect to an increasing future supply, there has frequently been some uncertainty, and some little anxiety; and it has not unfrequently been asserted that at no distant day, America would reach a point beyond which her cultivation of cotton could not be increased—at all events, not in proportion to the present rate. The correctness of this assertion is partly confirmed by the fact, that now, the demand is annually outrunning the supply, as evidenced by the higher average price we are now paying for what we consume.

The causes assigned for the future limitation of our supply are:—

The absorption into use of all the lands capable of growing cotton.

And the growing scarcity of labour.

To these, I do not add a third element, frequently adverted to here and in America—namely, that arising from the modification or change of the institution of slavery. On that point I am not prepared to offer an opinion. The other two arguments may be worth a little consideration.

The crop of 1852-3, as already stated, was 3,262,882 bales, and was grown in the states of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Arkansas, Texas, Kentucky, and Indiana. The proportion grown in those states cannot be given for that year; but in the appendix they are given for 1849; and it is probable that the proportion did not much vary in 1853.

An approximation to the quantity of land on which this crop was grown, can be arrived at only by estimate. In the Atlantic states the production per acre is less than in the West, and varies from 150 to 300 lbs. clean cotton. In the West and on the Gulf, it ranges from 250 to 400 lbs. If the average be taken at 250 lbs., which is about half a bale, and is quite within limits, then the whole land which was under crop in 1852-3, could not have exceeded 6,500,000 acres, or considerably less than double the area of the county of York.

Leaving out of consideration the states of Kentucky, Indiana, and Virginia,—the production in which is too little to affect our argument,—it will be found (*see appendix*) that in the other states named, 32,324,830 acres of land were in farms and improved in 1849. But the cotton crop of that year, in those states, was 2,469,093 bales of 400lbs. each, which is equal to 1,975,274 bales of 500lbs. each. If, therefore, the whole of the improved lands were under crop, then would it follow that only about one-eighth of their extent had been under cotton. Or to place the question in another

light, the growth of the states named, was under 2,000,000 bales of 500 lbs. each, but as it requires two acres to produce one bale of that weight, the quantity of land under cotton could not have been more than 4,000,000 acres, or an eighth of the extent of the improved lands.

But two of those states are less adapted for growing cotton than the others. These are Tennessee and North Carolina. In these, upwards of 10,000,000 acres of land were improved, in 1849, yet only 268,377 bales of 400lbs. each, were produced; whereas, in the other states, with only 21,695,682 acres of improved land, the cotton production was 2,195,997 bales of 400 lbs. each, or 1,756,798 bales of 500 lbs. This latter quantity, at the average of 250 lbs. to an acre, would represent 3,500,000 acres, or about a sixth of the improved lands in the states named.

But in the cotton states—properly so called—the states referred to at the end of the foregoing paragraph—the extent of their improved lands in farms, is only about six per cent of their entire area, and not much more than a third of the extent of the unimproved lands already enclosed in farms. Were these unimproved lands alone brought into cultivation, and were they growing cotton in the same proportion as the lands already improved, they would produce three times the quantity grown in 1849, or upwards of 5,000,000 bales.

But the improved and unimproved lands in those states—say in South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas,—do not amount to more than an eighth of their entire area; and therefore it may be said with safety, that the extent of cotton-growing land in those states, is practically without limits. I am aware that very large portions of those states are unproductive, from the poorness of the soil in some places, and from large tracts being constantly under water. Still, the quantity of land suitable for cultivation presents a surface much greater than is likely to be brought under crop for many years to come, and offers a

field for the employment of labour, that without any stretch of the imagination, may be denominated almost boundless.

At the present moment, the lands under crop in the Western states, are merely those which touch upon the water courses,—the Mississippi and its tributaries—by which access can be had to the Gulf, and by which the crops can be easily and cheaply conveyed to market. But when those immense regions are opened up by railways—particularly in Texas, and the states west of the Mississippi—the land brought under cultivation will be augmented as rapidly as labour can be procured for that purpose.

I have stated above, that only about a sixth part of the entire extent of improved lands in the cotton states, properly so called, was under cotton crop in 1849. Since that time, I believe that proportion has been diminished; and of the improved lands, a much larger share is now prepared for the growth of cotton. For some years previous to 1849, the prices of cotton were very low, indeed in some years unremunerative, and at the best far from being encouraging to planters. This drew their attention to other crops, which, if not more profitable, required at least less labour and less expense. Since that year, the average price of cotton has steadily increased, rendering that crop not merely profitable, but the most profitable produced in the South; and hence lands which in former years were growing corn and other crops, are now turned to cotton; and hence also, of the lands which were improved in 1849—even had no new lands been improved—a larger proportion has been devoted to the culture of cotton.

After considerable personal enquiry among planters in various parts of the cotton regions, I venture to estimate that the cost of producing cotton and bringing it to market is—on the eastern coast, 6½ cents per pound, and on the Gulf and in the West 6 cents. But as the average price paid for the crop of 1853 was 9.85 cents per pound, and that

of the four years ending 1853 was 10¼ cents, it follows that planters must recently have been making large profits upon their cotton crops, and receiving the best inducements to extend its culture, to the neglect of other crops which are less profitable. This, therefore, must have encouraged planters to give more attention to their cotton crop than to any other, and must have led to an increase of its growth all over the South, even were no new lands taken into cultivation.

If, therefore, the cultivation of cotton continues to be as profitable to the planters as it has been in recent years, they will cease to grow other crops, which are less profitable, except as much of them as is required for consumption on their own estates. It is understood, however, that on a plantation, a third of the land under cultivation will produce corn and other crops in sufficient quantity for the consumption of its own population. The remaining two-thirds, therefore, of the estate, can be turned to the cultivation of cotton.

In the second argument there seems to be more validity,—namely, that the growing scarcity of labour will, at some distant day, limit the supply of cotton, or rather check its increase. The increasing demand for cotton, creates an increased demand for labour, and enhances its value; adds to the cost of producing it, and will, perhaps, at no very distant day, check its rate of increase.

It is generally estimated, that a negro can pick in a season, from August 1st to December 31st, from six to ten bales, and in some cases considerably more. If the average quantity per labourer be taken at seven bales, then it would appear that the crop of 1852-3, the largest ever grown, must have been picked by about 460,000 negroes. That would be the number actually engaged in work. But, as out of the labourers on a plantation, about a third are unfit for work, from infancy, old age, and sickness, it follows, that to pick the crop named, no less than 700,000 labourers must have been required.

The coloured population is now estimated to amount to

about 3,500,000; or five times the number now employed on the cotton plantations. From this source, therefore, —scarcity of labour—it would seem that there is no probability of an early restriction to the growth of cotton. If, however, it be borne in mind, that a considerable number of the negroes are employed in the cities, and on the plantations as personal servants, and that in several slave states which do not grow cotton, they are required for the cultivation of other crops which are profitable—say rice, tobacco, corn, and sugar—it will be seen that the number employed on the cotton fields, is a large per centage of the entire population, and that to increase that per centage—to meet the growing demand for cotton—an increased inducement must be offered to abstract their labour from other branches of industry. That inducement can be nothing less than an increased price for labour, and that increased price can be given by the planter only, if he receive larger prices for his cotton. Indeed this has already been experienced in the Southern states, and the value of labour is now about double what it was not many years ago. In consequence of this demand for labour, great numbers of negroes are annually brought from the Northern slave states, where the planters find it less profitable to employ them.

To meet this enhanced cost of production, the average price of cotton will inevitably rise, although it may be very gradually, unless the supply from some other field be of a quantity and at a price sufficient to regulate or modify the general state of the market. That advanced price, is equivalent to a limitation of our supply.

Before, however, we reach that point in production, that labour will actually become scarce, it is not improbable that it may be augmented in the States by the introduction into the country of Chinese labour. The numbers of Chinese at California are already considerable; and it is not unlikely that many of them will, by and by, find their way into the cotton-

growing regions. Indeed, I learned while at New Orleans, that already some of them had been employed at an iron work, in Tennessee, and with much success.

From "Andrew's Report," published by the American Government in 1853, I copy the following table:—

Estimate of the Crop of 1852, *and of the Crop the Cotton zone may produce.*

States.	Bales of 400 lbs.	Hands Employed.	Acres in Cotton in 1852.	Area susceptible of Cultivtn. in Cotton.	Number of hands necessary therefor.	Probable productn. in Bales of 400lbs
Florida	80,000	20,000	160,000	6,000,000	750,000	3,000,000
Texas	100,000	25,000	200,000	10,000,000	1,250,000	5,000,000
Arkansas	100,000	25,000	200,000	3,000,000	375,000	1,500,000
Louisiana	200,000	50,000	400,000	3,000,000	375,000	1,500,000
Tennessee	220,000	55,000	440,000	2,000 000	250,000	1,000,000
South Carolina	310,000	77,500	620,000	200,000	25,000	100,000
Mississippi	650,000	162,500	1,300,000	6,000,000	750,000	3,000,000
Georgia	740,000	185,000	1,480,000	3,000,000	375,000	1,500,000
Alabama.....	750,000	187,500	1,500,000	6,000,000	750,000	3,000,000
Total.....	3,150,000	787,500	6,300,000	39,200,000	4,900,000	19,600,000

Of this statement it may be remarked, that, though the quantity of land suitable for growing cotton is as great as here given, yet, no one can imagine that the amount of labour necessary for its cultivation can be procured for generations to come, if that labour be confined to the coloured population.

New Orleans is not only the sugar market of the States, but Louisiana is the only state in which it is grown to any extent—indeed, almost at all—although attempts are being made to extend its culture in Texas and Florida. The crops produced in Louisiana are the best in quality, and the most profitable, though there, also, from occasional frosts, they

are sometimes very critical. The cane is grown on the river bank, for about two hundred miles above the city, and sixty below it. By improved methods of culture, it has, in recent years, been a profitable crop to the planter; and, in consequence, its growth has been considerably extended. The crops produced

In 1822-3 were	30,000	hhds.
1842-3	140,316	„
1852-3	321,934	„
1853-4	449,324	„

each hogshead weighing 1,000 lbs.

The crop of 1853-4 was grown on 1,437 estates. On 956 of these, steam power was used for working the sugar mills, and on 481 they were driven by horse power. On 1,384 estates, there is in use the old process, by open kettles, for granulation; and by vacuo, with its expensive apparatus, on 53. The latter system is by far the most profitable, but the apparatus is costly; and as the trade entirely depends for its success on being protected against foreign competition, by a considerable duty, and as the continuation of that protection is uncertain, planters hesitate to go to an expense in providing machinery, which unexpectedly, and at an early day, may be rendered useless.

To the crop of the South, there may be added that of the North, made of the juice of the maple tree. In 1850, it was upwards of 34,000,000 pounds.

The number of slaves employed on the sugar plantations in 1850, was 125,970. The average value of each is considered to be about $1,000.

In 1853, the estates were valued at $126,929,000, which must be considered a very low estimate, as it is not much more than the value of the slaves alone. The value of the sugar estates have nearly doubled within the last four years.

But the home growth of sugar does not nearly supply the

consumption of the Union. The imports from other countries were:

		Dollars.
In 1841 . .	184,196,662 lbs.	
1851 . .	369,324,298 „	value 13,478,709
1853 . .	449,366,400 „	„ 14,987,776

Of these imports, three-fourths were from Cuba. By adding the quantities imported, to those grown at home, it will be observed that the consumption has more than doubled since 1841.*

The home production of molasses in 1853, was 26,960,000 gallons, and the quantity imported was 28,576,821 gallons, valued at $3,684,888: giving 55,536,821 gallons as the quantity consumed. The home production in 1854 was 32,056,000 gallons.

I have stated that but for a protective duty, sugar could not be grown in the States with a profit to the planter, and therefore without that duty, nearly all the plantations would go out of cultivation. That duty is thirty per cent. *ad val.*

As a matter of curiosity, I have endeavoured to estimate the amount paid annually by the whole consumers in the Union to protect the interests of the 1,437 planters in Louisiana.

Cuba, and other sugar-growing countries, more favourably situated for the culture of the cane, now send into the American markets, about half the quantity required for consumption. And yet, that is done at a profit—otherwise the trade would not be continued—after the payment of a duty of 30 per cent. Were that duty repealed, those sugars could and would be sold at a proportionate reduction in price. But that reduction in price would apply to the home grown

* The quantity of sugar entered for home consumption in Great Britain and Ireland in 1854, was 8,696,481 cwts., about seventy per cent of which was the growth of the British possessions.—*Parliamentary Paper.*

sugar, as well as to that imported, because the price of every article is regulated by the cost of producing with a profit, that which is last brought to market. Therefore, the price at which Cuba sugars could be profitably sold in the American markets, would govern the price of that produced at home.

Taking, therefore, the whole quantities of sugar and molasses, of home growth, brought to market in 1854, and estimating them at a low average price, in New York, their value would be

		Dollars.
Sugar. . .	525,154,560 lbs. at 4 cents. . .	21,006,182
Molasses .	32,056,000 gals. at 20 cents . .	6,411,200
	Total	27,417,382

But the prices I have quoted, include the duty of 30 per cent. Now if that duty were abolished, the value of the above articles would fall in that proportion, otherwise they would be replaced by those of foreign growth. But 30 per cent. on their natural value, or the price at which they would be sold without that duty, is equivalent to about 23.08 per cent. on that price, duty included. This per centage, then, of 23.08 on the above value of the sugar and molasses, leaves $6,328,000 as the amount paid by the consumers of the States, for the benefit of the sugar planters.

This is a very handsome sum to pay annually to a few planters, and says much for the liberality of the American people. If the 1,437 estates are owned by as many proprietors, each may be considered to be a pensioner on the industry of the American people, to the amount of $4,370 per annum. I am afraid the taxpayers of England would not like to have as many pensioners dip their hands so deeply into the public purse.

It is rather surprising that any protection should be afforded to the sugar growers of the States, for the plea which is urged in the North, for the protection of the manufacturing interests of the country, does not hold good with respect

to sugar. It is urged that the protection to manufactures is to be continued only till they be well established, and in a position to compete with those of Europe. That applies not to sugar: for it is admitted by all who are conversant with the South, that no encouragement will ever bring the culture of the sugar cane to that degree of perfection, that will enable the planters of Louisiana to compete successfully with those of Cuba. The soil, but above all, the climate of the South, oppose insurmountable obstacles to the successful prosecution of this branch of industry in any part of the United States; and it is only by the introduction of improved methods of culture, by the use of excellent machinery, and above all, by that enterprise and energy which the Americans infuse into all their undertakings, that they are now, with a protection of 30 per cent., enabled to compete with the sugars of Cuba and Brazil. Withdraw that protection, and nearly all the sugar plantations would go out of cultivation, or be converted to the growth of cotton; or induce the planters of Cuba to improve their machinery, and adopt the general system which is now in use in Louisiana, and in spite of the present duty in favour of the home grower, they would be able to undersell the Americans in their own markets.

I learned that not a few Americans had purchased estates in Cuba, on which they were introducing the improved system now in use in the States. These, when extended and fully developed, will effect a considerable change in the sugar trade of the world.

CHAPTER VIII.

CUBA—ITS ANNEXATION, A GAIN OR LOSS TO THE UNITED STATES?—ITS PRODUCTIONS AND COMMERCE—SOUTHERN LOGIC.

From what has been stated in the previous pages it may be imagined that all southern men are not in favour of the annexation of Cuba, and are not members of the "Lone Star" Association. The sugar planters, and all connected with that interest, know well, that if Cuba were annexed to the Union, and its sugar brought into competition with their own, on equal terms, their prosperity would be at an end, and much of the capital invested in their properties would be lost. They will, therefore, oppose that undertaking with all the influence of which they are possessed.

While at New Orleans, I made some enquiry as to the popular opinion on the subject of the annexation of Cuba, and as to the attempts which have been made to secure its possession. In reference to the attempt which was made under Lopez, I was told that few of the inhabitants were aware that such an expedition was in contemplation, till it had actually sailed. It was composed mostly of young men from eighteen to twenty-four years of age, thirsting for adventure, and covetous of fame, rather than of spoil. Of such, there is always an abundance in an unsettled state of society, such as still prevails in this part of the Union. Among them were also a few who had been unsuccessful in their

career in life, and who were eager to embark in any enterprise which might afford them some chance of improving their condition. The inhabitants of New Orleans had little sympathy with the adventure, and took little interest in its progress. But when they heard of its failure, and were informed of the punishments inflicted on their countrymen by the Spanish authorities, many of them, without considering the provocation under which the Spaniards acted, were anxious to promote measures of retaliation; and not a few, under the first impulse, would have volunteered to join a second expedition, had such been proposed from any respectable quarter

As the expedition against Cuba was an act of piracy, it is unquestionable that those who engaged in it, exposed themselves, knowingly, to the punishment due to that crime, in the event of a failure in their undertaking. It is no less certain that the Spanish authorities were justified in treating with severity the authors of such an unjust aggression, and that very severity may have prevented other attempts of a like kind; for adventurers—it may be few in numbers and without organization or influence—would only have been incited to renewed attempts, by a moderation on the part of the Cuban government, which would have been attributed to fear. It may however be doubted, if, while by those measures of severity, they prevented small attacks from being made on the island, they did not the more certainly by that very severity—I may say cruelty—insure its final absorption into the American Union, by rousing a spirit of revenge throughout the country which will scarcely be allayed till that end has been accomplished. This spirit is not now confined to a few adventurers, but prevails among many people who till recently were quite opposed to any such movement.

I therefore venture to believe that the question of the annexation of Cuba will maintain its popularity, and that some efforts will yet be made to give it effect. The people of

the States are irritated at the cruelty of the Spaniards; they are disgusted at the incompetency of the Cuban Government; they know the value of the soil, which, in the hands of its present owners is almost entirely neglected; and lastly, the slave holding states desire to increase their power, to balance the increasing power of the North, and to counteract the effects which would result from any defalcation among the northern slave states, where the employment of slave labour is now found to be scarcely profitable. For all these reasons, a large portion of the southern population desire the possession of Cuba, and they only await the proper moment when they think they can act with union and vigour, and accomplish their object by treaty, or if necessary, by force.

If Cuba, then, were added to the Union, it could be only as a slave state, although of the Northern population, the large portion desire its admission as a free one. This would be a victory gained by the South, and would make an addition to its strength. But I think that addition would only be apparent.

In Cuba, slave labour, though cheap in comparison with that of the States, is insufficient—from the indolence of the planters—for the cultivation of the soil; but if the island were once occupied by the Americans, more land would be brought under tillage, and labour would be imported from the Southern states, because it could be more profitably employed in Cuba, than on the mainland. Cuba has a richer soil, and a climate more favourable to the cultivation of the sugar cane, and other tropical fruits, than any part of the States; and after the removal of the thirty per cent *ad val.* duty now levied on all foreign grown sugar imported into the Union, that produced in Cuba would supply the entire consumption of America.

This demand for labour in Cuba, would soon affect the labour markets of the States, and enhance the value of slave property. Already, in recent years, the increasing demand for cotton and sugar has caused great demand for labour,

and increased its value. That increase has made it almost unprofitable to employ slave trade in some of the Northern slave states, and has rendered it too costly to compete with white labour. Hence some of those Northern states are called "breeding states," because they retain the institution of slavery, not so much for the profit derived from the labour of the negroes, as for the profit made from "raising" them to be sold to the South. If, therefore, any circumstance should arise to increase the demand for labour in the South,—and that would assuredly follow the annexation of Cuba—that labour would become still more costly, its employment would become less profitable in the Northern slave states, and it would therefore be attracted to the South and to Cuba. The result of this would be, that the states of Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and perhaps those of North Carolina, Tennessee, and Missouri, having diminished their slave population, would have a tendency to become free, and would gradually identify their interests with those of the North.

The South, therefore, instead of strengthening their cause by the annexation of Cuba, would weaken it by the defection of the states I have named, and they would soon find that the moral force of their cause had lost more by the withdrawal from their ranks of Virginia and Maryland alone, than it could gain by the addition of double the number of states in the South. What might be the effects of this change on the political relations between the North and the South, it would be impossible to predict.

If Cuba were added to the Union, there would be a considerable emigration to the island of sugar planters, and others who might be dissatisfied with their present position in life. It would, however, be early found out that the field for the industrial employment of the Americans in Cuba is much more limited than is generally believed, and in a few years it would be seen that a very few would continue to reside in the much-coveted possession. In California, with

much greater attractions, the population in several years has not grown to more than 300,000; and in the state of Louisiana, one of the richest in the South, and forming a part of the Union for fifty years, the white population is now only about 250,000. It would be found, therefore, that in Cuba, with a climate unsuitable for white labour, and with its most valuable plantations already in the possession of the Spaniards, and other Europeans, the progress of the Americans would be comparatively trifling. Of those who would become planters, undoubtedly many from their great energy of character, compared with that of the Spaniards, would accumulate wealth, but scarcely, I fear, in sufficient quantity, to make their riches an object of national importance.

But in what relation to the other nations of the world would the States be placed by even the peaceable acquisition of Cuba?

In the event of a war with any European power possessed of a military and naval force, the Americans would soon find that Cuba was their most vulnerable point, and that its preservation could be secured only by the expenditure of much blood and treasure. The American portion of the inhabitants would not be more than sufficient to protect themselves against the attacks of the Spanish Creoles, or the yet more formidable danger of a servile war. The nation would find itself burdened with the defence of an additional coast line of nearly fifteen hundred miles, which would require to be secured, that its honour might be maintained, by troops and ships provided from the mainland, and at the expense of the other states. That the other states would long submit to such an imposition, is very questionable—the more so if those troops and ships were required for the defence of their own cities and sea coast.

Every one who is aware of the abundance of employment in the States, and of the liberal remuneration which labour in general commands, will readily believe that it would be a

difficult matter to enlist soldiers, unless for the defence of their own homes and country. In that case, every man would volunteer to serve, and as readily as in England; but whether many of them would do so for the defence of Cuba is quite another question. For a brief war, such as that recently carried on against Mexico, there are always plenty of unsettled spirits glad to become soldiers, from the mere novelty of the pursuit of a marauding war, but it may be very safely doubted whether the same adventurers, or any other class in the States, would continue a military life in a prolonged contest with the disciplined and steady troops of Europe.

I therefore think that the Americans will commit a great mistake, and act in entire opposition to their own interests, if, under the influence of demagogues, they be led to take measures which may, in the end, lead them into even the peaceable possession of Cuba. Instead of purchasing it with millions of dollars, as is proposed by moderate men, they would consult their interest by actually giving the purchase money to transfer the island past themselves to some other power.

If my arguments then on this subject possess any weight, it would appear that by the annexation of Cuba, the Northern states would commit themselves to responsibilities which, in the event of a war with any European power, would involve them in a large expenditure of money to maintain naval and military forces for the defence of the island, and would insure an immense sacrifice of human life. In the case of a protracted war, it would also necessitate the existence of a large standing army, and a powerful fleet, which would scarcely harmonise with the democratic institutions of the country. With either of those forces, under the command of a man of energy and will, with disunion among the different states, and the people without leaders, much danger to the liberties of the country could scarcely be avoided. On the other hand, the

Southern states, by the same event, would find their numbers diminished, and their influence weakened. How far honest and patriotic statesmen in the Union will encourage an agitation, and a consequent possible course of action, which may have such an unfavourable influence on its stability, remains yet to be seen.

Many of the people in the States think, and perhaps with some reason, that France and Great Britain would, at least, protest against the conquest of Cuba, from a fear of the increase of power thus acquired by America. If my views are correct, the possession of Cuba, far from being a source of strength to the States, would actually be a cause of weakness, and therefore, if the European governments desire to weaken the power of America, they would not only not oppose, but they would actually encourage the annexation of the island. The Americans, when they hold such a possession, will have given a "hostage to fortune" for the preservation of peace with the other nations of the earth.

The effects of annexation upon the island itself, would be favourable. The accursed slave trade would be abolished, the slaves would be under milder treatment than they are now—for it does not admit of a doubt, that the Americans are far more humane than the Spaniards—and the resources of the island would be speedily and largely developed.

The population of the island of Cuba in 1853, was

Of Whites	542,928
Free coloured	176,647
Slaves	330,425
	1,050,000

The value of its productions in 1849, was $59,791,462, of which about a third was of sugar, and in that year the amount of its revenue was $13,821,456.

In 1851, the value of its foreign commerce was

	Dollars.
Imports	32,311,430
Exports	31,341,683
	63,653,113

The sugar crop was estimated

in 1840 at	321,636,000 lbs.
and in 1852	743,713,569 „

and in the same year there was produced

Of Coffee	29,756,000 lbs.
Tobacco	45,292,080 „

The negro population is much smaller than is generally supposed. It is now upwards of 300 years since slavery was first introduced into the island, and since that time millions of slaves have been imported from Africa. And yet now, they are very little more than half a million. In the States, without any foreign importation, the increase from 1840 to 1850, was twenty-nine per cent., whereas in Cuba, with an annual addition from Africa, there seems to be a steady decrease. Can there be a more painful commentary on the system of Cuban slavery, and on the cruelty of the Spaniards?

As a specimen of some of the opinions which prevail in the States on the subject of Cuba, I venture to quote some extracts from an article which appeared in a Southern newspaper, and was afterwards transferred to the pages of other publications.

The writer, arguing that the productions of the valleys of the Mississippi, and the Amazon, would centre at Cuba, if in the hands of the Americans, remarks:

"It is not saying too much, to say that if we held Cuba, in the next fifty years, we will hold the destiny of the richest and most increased commerce that ever dazzled the cupidity of man, and with that commerce we can control the power of the world. Give us this, and we can make the opinion of the world."

Again, referring to the emancipation of the negroes in the West Indies, he says,

"Witness the miserable experiments made by the English and French in the West Indies. Twenty-five years ago, where we saw cultivation bringing forth wealth and refinement, with all the elegance of polished life, we see vagrant labour stalking through a desolate land with hungry and brutal ferocity." "England feels in its consequences her folly."

Again,

"A general rupture in Europe, would force upon us the undisputed sway of the Gulf of Mexico, and the West Indies, with all their rich and mighty productions. Guided by our genius and enterprise, a new world would rise there, as it did before under the genius of Columbus. With Cuba and St. Domingo, we could control the productions of the tropics, and with them the commerce of the world, and with that the power of the world."

Again on slavery.

"But England complains of the humanity of such a system! and this is that England, the iron heel of whose power has but recently crushed the Irishman into the dust of the earth, upon his native soil, and whose gigantic and bloody footsteps upon the plains of India, have made whole empires groan and travail under the most heartless and grinding slavery, that the indignation of man has ever painted. Such complaints, from such a quarter, is the most arrant hypocrisy, and sanctimonious impudence, the world has ever witnessed."

There are several pages of this trash, but the above is quite enough for my purpose.

That the commerce of the Amazon and the Mississippi would centre at Cuba, is a statement due entirely to the imagination of the writer. Already most of the produce of the valley of the latter above St. Louis, on the main stream, and above Louisville on the Ohio, is sent by railway and canal to the east coast, and every year the trade by that channel is increasing. Further, much of the produce of the country on the east side of the river, and to within 100 miles of its banks, and 500 miles of its mouth, will be sent to Charleston and other ports on the south-east coast. Only from the west

bank, and on the immediate east bank below Memphis, will the whole of the productions be sent to the Gulf.

Of the commerce of the Amazon—a commerce not in existence—it is impossible to predict anything, but how it should centre at Cuba it is impossible to conceive.

With respect to the British West Indies, the writer speaks without information and without regard to truth. A little enquiry would have shown him, that, notwithstanding the abolition of slavery in the West Indies, and the subsequent abolition of the differential duties on sugar, the exports of that article—the staple of the colonies—are nearly, if not quite as much, as they were previous to the first event.

The remarks on England are not worth noticing.

These quotations are given as specimens of the manner in which some writers in the South support their peculiar institution, and of the arguments by which their cause is defended. Let Southern men judge of their value.

The institution of slavery is not in good repute in any part of Europe, and not even in the Northern states. One would therefore suppose that the possession of the smallest degree of common sense would teach Southern writers to maintain their cause with moderation, and when practicable, pass it over in silence, instead of obtruding it before the public, supported by violence and falsehood.

New Orleans is not merely the leading city in the state of Louisiana, but may be said to be *the* city of the West—the metropolis of Mississippi, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Texas. To the New Orleans market the produce of all those states is sent, and through the same channel do their inhabitants receive their supplies of foreign commodities.

In those states, cotton is the staple article produced. In Tennessee, the quality is not of the finest, but the others produce the best that is grown in the Union.

All of them have great facilities afforded for forwarding

their produce to market, not merely by the main stream of the Mississippi, but by its tributaries, the Red River, the Ouachita, the Yazoo, the Tennessee, the Arkansas, and the White River. Texas is less favourably situated than the others; for, with agricultural resources second to none, she has not the same open water courses to give ready access to the interior. She has several rivers, some of them of considerable length, but smaller in size than those already named, and navigable to a shorter distance, and for a shorter period of the year. This will prove a hindrance to her prosperity, and will be remedied only by the introduction of numerous railways.

CHAPTER IX.

STEAMERS ON THE MISSISSIPPI — ACCIDENTS — NEW ORLEANS TO LOUISVILLE, BY RIVER — PACIFIC RAILWAY.

After some stay in New Orleans, I arranged to return to the North by one of the river steam-boats. Of such, there are several hundreds plying between New Orleans and the cities on the banks of the river and its tributaries. They convey to New Orleans the produce of the country, and carry back the various articles required for consumption in the interior. The number of arrivals at New Orleans in 1852-3, was 3,253. These, when at the wharf, lie opposite the centre of the city, where a large open space is reserved for their loading and unloading. In the busy season of the year there are never fewer than from twenty to thirty lying at this landing place at one time. Five o'clock in the afternoon is the hour at which they start to go up the river, and as frequently a dozen of them leave in close succession, the *levee* is at that time a scene of much animation.

All of them have high pressure engines, and their construction is alike, but they differ much in size. The largest are about 350 feet in length, by about 80 feet across the paddle boxes, and half that width on the beam end. Others are not more than half that size. All of them are flat bottomed, and when unloaded, may draw four to four and-a-half feet of water, and with cargo, six to seven feet.

They have two, and sometimes three decks. The lower, when the boat is loaded, is about a foot above the water, and the second is about fifteen feet higher. The boilers are placed upon the lower decks, pretty well forward, and are open on all sides. The fires, open to the front, and fanned by the current of air which is created by the rapid progress of the vessel, are kept at an intense heat. Behind the boilers, and about the middle of the lower deck, is placed the machinery by which the paddle wheels are driven; and towards the stern there are berths for the deck passengers, most of whom, when going up the river, are Irish and German immigrants, and negroes when descending. Those berths are very confined and unhealthy, and in consequence, there is frequently great mortality among the immigrants on board.

On the other parts of the lower deck is stored the cargo. The lower deck projects a little beyond the upper, and hence the cargo, when of cotton, is frequently piled up to some height, till the light is half excluded from the cabin berths. The largest of these boats carry in this way from 3 to 4,000 bales.

The second deck is occupied by the cabin, which runs from end to end of the boat. At about 70 feet from the stern, it is divided at will by a folding door—the smaller compartment forming the ladies' saloon. In the best boats the cabin is beautifully furnished. In the ladies' cabin, the furniture is as elegant as in a private drawing room. Most of the boats have a piano, sofas, easy chairs, books, and other articles for use or for amusement. State rooms run along both sides of the cabin, each room containing two berths, and all together accommodating from 100 to 150 passengers.

Above the cabin, and at some elevation, is the pilot house. This position enables the pilot to have a clear view all round, and to notice the banks of the river, and any obstruction which may be in the stream, even in the darkest night. Beside the pilot, there are six or eight small ropes, or wires,

which communicate with bells in the engine room, and by the use of which, the engineer is directed how to regulate the speed of the vessel. By pulling one, the boat is stopped in an instant: by another, its speed is only slackened, and so on, as the pilot may think necessary. I was surprised at the perfect control which the pilot exercised over the movements of our vessel, and at the ease with which he turned it about in the bends of the river,—to use the expression of a fellow traveller—"just like a teetotum."

The speed of these boats is from ten to twelve miles an hour, even against the current of the river. It is no unusual thing for them to race against each other, and then this rate is considerably increased. Last year there was a trial of speed between two new boats, from New Orleans to Louisville, a distance of 1,500 miles; and the time occupied, including stoppages for fuel, was four days and nine hours. Both claimed the victory. This created intense excitement all along the river, and at all the stations, information was telegraphed up and down the river, of the progress made by each boat.

A great many accidents occur on these boats every year, and they are frequently attended with much loss of life. These accidents arise from fire, from boiler explosions, and from snags in the river.

The boats are so light in their construction, and built of such inflammable material, that it is found almost impossible to overpower a fire when once kindled among the cargo, or when it has seized hold of any part of the vessel. On such occasions, after the fire has broken out, in less than ten minutes the whole boat is in flames, and unless the passengers be unusually fortunate in escaping by the life-boat, or by life-preservers, or unless the crew manage to secure the boat to the shore—a most difficult undertaking, from the rapidity with which the flames spread,—many of them meet an immediate death. About a month before this time, a fire broke

out on one of them, whilst lying at the landing place, at New Orleans. The flames spread rapidly to the others alongside, and before any of them could be towed out of the way, not less than nine were on fire, seven of which were burnt to the water's edge, and property lost to the value of $750,000. A good many lives were lost, all of them of passengers who had arrived by the boats during the night, and who were unable to effect their escape, from the rapidity with which the fire spread, and from the clouds of smoke which darkened the atmosphere. On the following week, a similar fire occurred at the wharf at Mobile, but only two boats were destroyed, and the loss of life was small in proportion. In one of them the captain was lying asleep, and escaped, only by leaping into the river. Other cases occurred during my stay in New Orleans, to which it is unnecessary to allude. When such accidents occur on the open river, particularly on boats loaded with cotton, the scene is heart-rending, and the escape of any of those on board is almost miraculous.

Accidents from boiler explosions are less frequent than in former years, and are generally less fatal. This greater security has arisen from the enacting of a law, whereby certain qualifications are required on the part of every engineer taking charge of a steam-boat, and whereby they are prohibited under a penalty, from having more than a certain pressure of steam to the square inch. Several accidents occurred from explosions this winter, but principally on old boats which had been built previous to the introduction of the new regulations, and which did not therefore come under their operation. Explosions, though always attended with loss of life, are less fatal than fires. The boilers, as already stated, are always in the forepart of the vessel, and being open around, when exploded, they are most destructive to the ship's crew, and to the deck passengers. Sometimes part of the cabin is destroyed, but almost always the passengers in that part of the boat, particularly if towards the stern or in the ladies' saloon, escape with little injury.

Snags are the stumps of trees, which, thrown into the stream by the falling in of the banks, have their roots fastened at the bottom, and projecting to within two or three feet of the surface, are very dangerous to boats running up the river. "Snagboats" are constantly employed on the rivers to remove them, but as soon as the river is again flooded, they are replaced by others. In summer when the rivers are low, the snags are most dangerous, and it is then that most accidents occur. When a boat running at the rate of twelve miles an hour, comes in contact with one of them, its bottom is at once torn open, and if it happen to be heavily loaded, it soon sinks in the river. These snags are always in water of moderate depth, and hence when a boat goes down, it is very seldom entirely submerged, and the danger to the passengers is thus diminished. The cabin is very slightly fixed to the lower part of the boat, and it has happened several times, that when boats have gone down, the upper decks or cabins have been detached, as soon as they came in contact with the river, and the passengers have in this way been floated six or eight miles down the river till rescued by other steamers.

The fear of these accidents deters many people from travelling on the Mississippi. That danger, however, diminishes every year. Most of the accidents, which now occur, are on old boats, with worn-out machinery, careless crews, and unskilful pilots; and some of them are the result of downright recklessness. On first-class boats, an accident is scarcely known to happen, and travellers by them have no reason to apprehend any danger, while they have every accommodation, comfort, and even luxury that can be obtained at a first class hotel.

In one of these first-class boats—the "Belle Sheridan"—I took my passage from New Orleans to Louisville, on the 22nd of March. She was a new boat, and this was her third trip on the river. Her machinery was new, and was made by the engineer who had her in charge. Her captain had been

nearly all his life on the river, and her pilots were men of much experience; all these circumstances were guarantees for a safe passage.

The incidents by the way were neither numerous nor very interesting. The banks of the river had a sameness, which became tiresome, and as we had no stoppages, except at intervals, for a few minutes, to land or to receive passengers, and to take in fuel, we were confined to the vessel during the whole journey, which lasted nearly a week. The passengers were thrown upon their own resources, and were compelled to resort to such amusements and pastimes, as suited their inclinations. With about a hundred passengers, many of them frank, agreeable people, there was no difficulty in making the time pass pleasantly.

Indeed I don't know how a week could be passed more agreeably, than with a nice lively party on board one of those steamers. With books, music, dancing, conversation. and other occupations, varied with the few incidents which occur by the way, the time passes rapidly, and a sort of subdued excitement is maintained, which is not unlike what I have seen at an out-of-door party in England. Indeed a week thus passed on the Western waters, can be compared only to a pic-nic party of greater length than usual,—extending over six or seven days instead of as many hours. Some occasional fear of an accident, and the absence of the soft green sward, alone prevent the passengers from being now and again as boisterous, as they would be on the hill-side, or in the open fields.

Among the passengers there was one general, three doctors, three captains, one judge and his lady, an author, two actors, several cotton planters, and numbers belonging to other trades and professions. This reminds me, that in the South and West, nearly all tall men are called generals, stout men judges, and men of middling proportions, captains or colonels!

The ladies were all agreeable as usual, talkative, and some of them were very intelligent. One of them, a young lady,

had several volumes of English writers, and on looking through them, I found a copy of Alexander Smith's poems, and of the "Lady of the Lake," with many passages carefully marked with pencil. When extracts from these were read aloud, another of the young ladies,—a true Mississippian as she called herself—hastened to tell us of her admiration of Byron, and, in opposition to the quietly expressed opinions of the owner of the books, entered into an animated argument upon his merits. After some little time I was called in to give judgment on the points under discussion. Remembering, however, the fate of Paris, I did not venture to give any opinion, but was content with complimenting both ladies on their erudition and good taste. One of the other young ladies was much admired for her beauty, and in that she had no compeer. Indeed in no part of America where beautiful women are so numerous, did I meet one more fair,

"And she was fair
* * * * *
* * and her sunny locks
Hung on her temples like a golden fleece."

As we proceeded up the river, we found it rapidly rising, till at last we had it in full flood. Except where restrained by artificial embankments, it overflowed its boundaries, giving the country a most desolate appearance. It was covered with drift wood, much of it being immense forest trees. During the day these were easily avoided, but not so during the night, when, to keep clear of snags and other obstructions, in the more shallow waters, we were compelled to keep in the middle of the stream. As these large logs came suddenly in contact with the paddle wheels in the dark nights, they made the boat quiver from stem to stern, and staggered the courage of the most timid passengers, but after the first night, finding they did no damage, all anxiety was dismissed.

The variations in the size of the river at different periods of

the year are very great. In the summer and autumn months, the banks rise high above the stream, and passengers at those times can see little of the country. Again in winter and spring, when in full tide, the river rises twenty and thirty feet, and sometimes, where no precautions are taken, overflows the surrounding country.

Much is said in England, as well as in America, of the size of the Mississippi, the length of its navigation, and the extent and richness of the valleys through which it flows. At first sight a spectator is disappointed at its apparent disproportion to its reputation. At New Orleans it is not more than from a quarter to half a mile broad, and in no part of its course is it more than a mile in width. The current, except when flooded, is slow and sullen-looking, but when in full flood it flows at the rate of six to eight miles an hour. This rate of speed, with a depth of water averaging from one to two hundred feet, will give some idea of the immense volume of water which it conveys to the ocean.

To a passenger on a river boat, particularly in the winter months, there are no indications of the unbounded fertility of the great western valley, nor of those great natural agricultural resources, which it is said will enable it to supply the wants of the whole population of Europe. He sees few symptoms of the inroads of civilisation, and still fewer traces of tillage on the banks of the river Here and there a plantation is to be seen extending along the banks of the stream, and at still wider intervals he approaches a city, or rather a large collection of houses, the foundation it may be of a future city. The far greater part of the coast, however, presents nothing but one never-ending forest. One day succeeds another, and still there are seen the same endless windings of the river, and the same succession of thick timber and underwood growing close down to the shore. Those scenes, if not so constantly repeated—repeated to satiety—would in many places be called beautiful, though at this

time of the year, when the country was bare, and the trees were without leaf, they were not seen to advantage.

As we moved up the river, we stopped frequently for fuel, though only for a very few minutes. At one or two of those places—cities in embryo—it was amusing to see the rush of the passengers to the newspaper offices, and the avidity with which the latest telegraphic news was received. At one place we had a curious instance of the progress of the usages of settled society among the scarcely formed villages of the West. There was pointed out to us on the river, a boat employed by travelling artists, who were sailing from place to place, taking daguerreotypes of the people of those villages, which are yet too small to be able to maintain fixed establishments of their own. The inhabitants having had their likenesses taken, the artists remove to the next village on the river.

At Memphis, a young lady came on board, who had eloped from home, and was now flying to be married to the youth of her choice. They had agreed to meet on a steamer which sailed the previous day, and to be married on board. Some accident detained the lady, and the boat had to sail with the husband-elect and the clergyman. Our boat was the first which came up afterwards, and by it the young lady took her passage in pursuit of her lover. As our boat was the fastest on the river, we were in hopes that in a voyage of six hundred miles, we should come up to the other steamer before it could reach its destination, and thus have the ceremony performed in our presence. The other steamer, however, reached her destination a few hours before us, and we were deprived of the promised *spectacle*. When the lady went ashore, all the cabin passengers hastened to the front of the vessel, to see the lovers meet. But to their disappointment, and to the distress of the lady, no bridegroom was there, and after some search, none could be found. The cheerful excitement on board was soon changed into a painful feeling, when the passengers witnessed the blank forlorn look of the bride, shewing

the sinking of the heart, on finding herself alone and unprotected six hundred miles from home, and among a crowd of strange faces. As the boat was again moving off, sadness seemed depicted on every countenance. In a twinkling all was changed. One of the passengers—the last to return on board—had found the lover, and seen the joyful meeting, and when he told his tidings in the cabin, there was a general exclamation of delight. It was difficult to say, whether one was more gratified to learn that the poor girl had been raised from the depths of despair to happiness, or to observe the kindly overflow of human nature, in the sympathy felt for her by her fellow passengers.

At the junction of the Ohio with the Mississippi, we passed the city of Cairo, in the state of Illinois. Some European capitalists expected that this city would become a great *entrepôt* for the trade of the West, and were in consequence led to make large investments in lands and buildings, By this time they are undeceived. The land here forms a triangle, having one side towards the Ohio, another towards the Mississippi, and the third towards the mainland. It is low and swampy, and has to be protected from inundation on the two sides next to the rivers, by embankments of sixteen to eighteen feet high, and of proportionate width. Even these are very incomplete defences, for from the nature of the soil, the water rises up beyond the barriers by transpiration. When we passed, the streets, such as they are, were flooded. The city is rarely free from some of those diseases, such as cholera, which are incidental to all cities lying in low and damp situations.

Curious names are given by the sailors to the different points along the river, generally indicating the nature of the navigation. A point below Cairo is called the "Devil's Hackling Machine," from the number of snags which are at that spot. Another place on the Ohio is called "The Hole in the Wall," from there being an under-current at

both sides of the river, creating a sort of whirlpool, which renders the passage somewhat dangerous for steamers. At this point, one of our paddle wheels came pretty smartly in contact with a snag—smart enough to give us a good shake, but not to do any damage.

When we left New Orleans, the weather was oppressively warm. Flowers were in great profusion, peas, potatoes, and other vegetables were plentiful, and even strawberries were no great rarity. As we went northward, vegetation diminished, and the foliage on the trees became thinner, till, when we reached the Ohio, the country had all the bareness and sterility of winter. During the last two nights we had snow-storms. Thus, in about four days, we passed from the genial warmth of summer into the freezing temperature of winter.

On the evening of Sunday, a panic arose among the ladies, who seemed to think we were in the midst of imminent danger. One lady discovered that the boat was going at an unusual speed, and her alarm was immediately communicated to the others. A deputation of gentlemen was at once despatched to the captain to request him to reduce the steam power, and to remove the danger which was apprehended from an explosion. The alarm was found to be quite groundless, and his assurances soon served to allay all fear. It is somewhat singular, though I think not less true, that if there be any night in the week more than another, on which travellers by land or water have fear for their safety, that night is Sunday. This I have observed on two recent occasions, and I am inclined to believe that others in similar circumstances, will observe the same thing. This alarm on that evening of the week, above any other, I should attribute to two causes—to the absence of the usual amusements, to divert and occupy the mind; and to the proneness of most people to be thoughtful, and perhaps desponding, on the Sabbath day, and therefore more liable to be affected by any alarm which may indicate danger.

In those steamers, there are frequently two or more professed gamblers, whose object is to plunder the country people—the planters, and others—at cards and other games of chance. These practices the owners of the boats cannot always prevent. I heard of a recent instance in which $80,000 changed hands in one trip, of course all going into the pockets of the gamblers.

As we came within sight of Louisville, the negroes assembled on the prow of the boat to sing. One of the number recited the line, and the others joined the chorus. Their voices seemed to be well attuned, and as they sang with considerable precision, the effect of from twelve to twenty male voices singing in unison was very agreeable.

The question of a Pacific Railway, has been in agitation in the States for some time, and is now very popular, but its promoters, have not yet decided upon that point on the Mississippi from which it would be most desirable to start; many southern men desire it to be at or near Memphis.

It is probable that for some years to come, this undertaking will excite nothing but talk. There are too many obstacles to be overcome before practical and monied men will engage in it, whatever may be said by politicians and newspaper writers.

The length of the line would be nearly 2,000 miles, and its cost, as already estimated, would be $100,000,000. In carrying the line over the Rocky Mountains, considerable height would, of necessity, be attained; and in those regions, obstacles would require to be overcome, greater than have yet been experienced in any part of the States, and the cost and labour which those difficulties would entail, would be enormous. As the construction of the line proceeded westward, everything necessary for the progress of the work—even the food and other articles for the workmen—would require to be carried over the completed part. The work once completed, it is highly probable that for many years to

come, the traffic on the line would be by far too small to enable the shareholders to receive any reasonable return as interest on their capital.

During the present year, the American people have acquired that experience on railway affairs which, I believe, will, for the present, and for some years to come, put an end to all serious proposals for this undertaking; for, by this time they must have discovered, that however desirable it may be to have extensive, convenient, and cheap channels for carriages to and from the interior, it is possible that more of those works may be constructed at one time, than it is quite convenient, or even possible to pay for out of the surplus capital of the country.

CHAPTER X.

LOUISVILLE—ST. LOUIS—CINCINNATI—RIVER TRAFFIC—PROVISION TRADE—VINE CULTURE—PITTSBURG—IRON TRADE OF THE STATES.

We reached Louisville on the 29th. This city is the largest in Kentucky, and is situated on an elevation of about sixty to seventy feet above the bed of the Ohio. Its progress, like that of many other western cities, has been rapid. Its population

In 1800 was	359
1820	4,012
1840	21,210
1853	51,726

Situated on a sand-bank, with an inclination to the river, it is naturally healthy. Its prosperity is in a large measure owing to its position at the falls on the Ohio. The river here descends twenty-four feet, in a series of rapids, extending over two-and-a-half miles. When the river is in flood, they can be passed by steamers, but not so when it is low. To insure constant communication, a canal has been carried round the falls, at a cost of $750,000. This has been of inestimable advantage to the navigation of the river, but as the canal is not capable of admitting the largest class of boats, a large portion of the goods, conveyed up and down the river, is here re-shipped. This, with the traffic created by the shipment of the productions of the state of Kentucky, for which Louisville

is the principal outlet, has raised the city to its present important position.

Of the value of the import and export trade of the port, no exact record has been kept, but I learned that it was estimated in 1850, at $50,000,000. That amount I think an exaggeration, unless it includes the value of the goods which merely pass through the canal, without re-shipment at the city. Upwards of half a million tons of goods,—mostly raw produce—pass through the canal annually.

The imports at the city consist of tea, coffee, sugar, dry goods, and other articles for domestic consumption. The exports consist of the agricultural produce of the country.

The opening up of the railways and canals between the valley of the Ohio and the east coast, has stimulated the enterprise of the merchants of Louisville, and they are now striving to divert through their port, as much as they can of the produce of the Ohio below the falls, and even of the Mississippi as far south as Memphis. They contend that the cotton of Tennessee can be conveyed by Louisville to Baltimore, and thence shipped to Liverpool, at a less cost than it can be carried to the same market, through the Gulf. The cost of its transmission from Louisville to Baltimore—about 850 miles—is ½ cent per lb.

The Kentuckians have long enjoyed the reputation of differing in many respects from the inhabitants of other states. They themselves contend that their ladies are the most beautiful in the Union, and that their gentlemen are the most gallant. Like most Southern men, they are naturally arrogant and irritable, but they are bold, frank, and generous. They excel in rifle shooting, and are unsurpassed as horsemen. Their state is one of the most fertile in the Union. It grows the best tobacco, produces the best bacon, and "raises" the most valuable mules and the swiftest horses in the country. In other matters it claims pre-eminence, but if the qualities I have enumerated do not give it a superiority to the other

states, then am I at a loss to know what constitutes a claim to distinction.

At one time it was my intention to visit St. Louis, on the Mississippi, but that purpose I was unable to accomplish. St. Louis is very favourably situated on the Mississippi, a little distance below its junction with the Missouri and the Illinois rivers. It was founded by the French in 1764, as a fur trading establishment. For many subsequent years its progress was slow and its population scanty. A new era was opened up in 1803, when it was transferred to the United States, and since that time its progress has been very marked. In 1804, there were only two American families in the city—the pioneers of future immigrants, and carrying with them the enterprise, habits, and tastes of the Anglo-American people. The population

In 1810 was only	1,600
1830 was	5,852
1840	16,469
1850	77,860

It may be here stated as a curious fact, that in 1849, there died in the city, the last of those who had been present at its foundation in 1764—no less than eighty-five years before. He was one of those who had explored the country to select a site for the future city. What a strange contrast must have been presented to him, between the open prairie of 1764, till then untrodden by civilised man, and the city of 1849, the home of a busy population of nearly 80,000 souls!

But the city has advanced in wealth as rapidly as in population. The taxable property was valued

	Dollars.
In 1833 at	2,000,000
and in 1853	39,397,186
The whole tax of 1833 was	2,745
and of 1853	420,000

In 1817, there arrived at the port, the first steam-boat ever seen on those waters, and in 1819, the first from New Orleans, after a passage of twenty-seven days. Now, the same distance is steamed in a week. The tonnage belonging to the port was,

In 1833, under . . . . . 2,000 tons
and in 1853, was . . . . . 36,714 „

and in the latter year, 3,307 steam-boats arrived at the city.

Her fees for wharfage, in 1853, were $60,000, against $600 in 1833, and the total value of the trade of the city was estimated

	Dollars.
In 1833, at	5,000,000
and in 1853, ...	100,000,000

Within the last few years, the city has been provided with an abundant supply of water, and considerable sums of money have been expended on the sewerage, and on the general improvement of the streets.

From Louisville, I proceeded to Cincinnati, by the river, in company with some English friends, whom I met at the former place. Our boat was a low pressure one, of a very large size, and provided with excellent accommodation. Boats run daily between the two cities, and carry numerous passengers. In this boat there were not less than 300 in the cabin alone. The fare was less than I had known in any part of America. For a dollar and a half, we were carried 133 miles, and had dinner—as good as at any hotel—tea, bed, and breakfast. There is only one route in Great Britain, on which I have been able to learn that the expense of travelling was at one period less. That was between Glasgow and Londonderry. At one time, though only for a few weeks, passengers were carried between those places without any charge whatever. I imagine that, at that time, the directors or shareholders must have been Irishmen.

Cincinnati, the principal city in the state of Ohio, is the largest, wealthiest, and most prosperous city of the West. It is situated on the right bank of the Ohio, at some elevation above the river, and is most substantially built. In that respect it surpasses any city in the South. From lying on a declivity, its streets are washed by the rain, and they are, therefore, kept clean and healthy.

Its population in 1800 was	750
1820	9,642
1840	46,338
1850	115,436
And in 1853, was estimated at	150,000

The largest portion of the trade of the port, is carried on by the river, but that by railways and canals to the east coast, increases rapidly. Its canals and railways now connect it with all the most important parts of the Union.

Its commerce consists almost entirely of the raw produce of the country—of breadstuffs and provisions. Its value

	Dollars.
In 1854, was, of Imports . . .	65,730,029
Exports . .	45,432,780

being an increase of fifty per cent. on that of the year 1852, and twenty-seven per cent. on 1853.

Of the chief articles of its trade, the value was :—

	Imported. Dollars.	Exported. Dollars.
Of Provisions . . .	9,829,816	9,414,375
Breadstuffs . . .	3,801,542	2,136,984
Groceries	4,411,159	3,270,547
Lumber	2,531,270	

Of the raw produce received, a large portion, as will be seen, is again exported to the east coast, after undergoing some slight process of manufacture, or after being merely packed. The groceries exported are to other cities in the Valley, and in the West.

In 1853, there arrived at the port 4,055 boats, with a tonnage of 1,390,541, and in the same year, the number of boats owned in the city was 298, with a tonnage of 76,647.

To give some idea of the extent of the passenger traffic on the western rivers, it may not be out of place to give the following summary for the year 1851—the latest I have been able to obtain—

	No. of Steamers.	Tonnage.	No. of Officers & Crew.	Passengers Conveyed.
On the Mississippi	253	67,957	6,414	882,593
„ Ohio	348	67,601	8,338	3,464,967
	601	135,558	14,752	4,347,560

Of the passengers, the number by steam-boats was . .	1,731,564
„ „ ferry-boats . . .	2,615,996
	4,347,560

In the same year, the value of property destroyed on the rivers was $1,144,858, and 628 passengers lost their lives. The accidents by which those losses were occasioned, occurred upon seventy-two boats.

In 1852, seventy-eight steamers were lost, by which 454 lives were sacrificed. Those disasters were,

By Snags	48
Explosions	16
Fire	4
Other mishaps	10
	78

In 1853, 138 accidents occurred, but most of them were of trifling importance.

From the time at which the first boats were introduced on the river, to the year 1848, there had been lost by fires, collisions, and snags, 618 boats of 109,088 tons. The original cost of those boats had been nearly $10,000,000, but from depreciation of value, previous to their destruction, the

final loss was not half that amount. This statement does not include the losses sustained by explosions, collapsing of flues, and bursting of steam pipes.

In 1817, there were on the river only twelve steam-boats, with a tonnage of 2,235.

In 1842, 475 boats	76,035 tons
1851, 601 „	135,558 „

Cincinnati has, for many years, been the principal provision market of the States, and that pre-eminence it still retains, although recently, Louisville has been making rapid approaches to that position. To give some idea of the extent of this trade in the West, I annex a statement of the number of hogs packed in the years 1852 and 1853 :—

	1852-3.	1853-4.
Ohio	617,342 . . .	734,300
Kentucky	369,600 . . .	505,225
Tennessee	26,500 . . .	58,880
Indiana	611,018 . . .	619,176
Illinois	361,132 . . .	365,784
Iowa	57,500 . . .	45,060
Missouri	112,500 . . .	149,845
Wisconsin	35,518 . . .	49,000
Detroit	10,000 . . .	7,500
	2,201,110 . . .	2,534,770

These, when reduced into pounds, give

	1852-3.	1853-4.
In Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky	316,415,880 lbs.	386,609,808 lbs
other States	119,423,700 „	147,383,042 „
	435,839,580 „	533,992,850 „

being an increase, in 1853-4, of fifteen per cent. in number, and twenty-two per cent. in weight.

The value of the entire export of provisions from the States, in 1853, was $6,203,324, and, including beef and tallow, was $8,417,878.

Many of the inhabitants of Cincinnati and its neighbourhood, are German immigrants, and by some of them the culture of the grape has been introduced. The result has been encouraging, and the manufacture of wine has been carried on for some years, and with growing success. In 1840, the entire produce of the States was 140,000 gallons; in 1850, it had increased to 221,249 gallons; and in 1853, it was estimated at nearly double that quantity.

In the country around Cincinnati, about 1,200 acres were planted with the vine in 1853, and about 1,000 acres in other parts of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys. The produce per acre is from 200 to 250 gallons.

In the immediate vicinity of the city, there was bottled

	Sparkling Wines.	Still Wines.
In 1853 . . .	234,000 bottles	205,000 bottles.
1854 . . .	280,000 „	100,000 „

The information respecting the still wines bottled in 1854, is incomplete, only two houses having made a return. These wines sell on an average at about $1 per gallon. They have acquired some reputation and are readily sold.

Cincinnati is also a large manufacturing city. The value of the articles produced, in 1851, was estimated at $55,000,000. The manufactures are mostly of iron, oil, furniture, and flour.

In the South and West, I observed that the feeling generally entertained towards England, was more cordial than in the North. This may be supposed to proceed from selfish motives, because we offer to the inhabitants the largest and best market for their productions of cotton, grain, and provisions; but I rather think it proceeds from natural attachment to the Old Country, undisturbed by the conflicting interests which are assumed to exist between Great Britain and the New England States.

Of the existence of this cordial feeling, I had a most gratifying instance in Cincinnati. Among the gentlemen whom I had the pleasure of meeting, was the president of the Chamber

of Commerce of the city. After he had made a variety of general remarks about the two countries, the numerous ties which bind them together, and their growing commercial relations, he continued, not without emotion, "English history is our history. Her traditions are ours. They are a gallant people the English, and I am proud of my fatherland."

Ohio is said to be the largest wheat producing State in the Union. In 1850, she produced less than Pennsylvania, but, in 1851, she is estimated to have grown considerably more. In that year her exports of wheat were 18,000,000 bushels, much of which was sent to foreign markets. This quantity is, however, more than the entire average exports of the Union, and, therefore, it is believed some portion was consumed in the New England and adjoining states, where the growth is insufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. The value of the entire exports of Ohio is said to be $40,000,000 a year.

The value of taxable property in the state, in 1852, was upwards of $500,000,000, and the amount of taxes levied was:—

	1852. Dollars.	1853. Dollars.
Taxes for State purposes . .	1,776,536 . . .	3,022,587
County, Township, and School	2,140,847 . . .	2,001,263
Roads	233,504 . . .	269,789
Corporations, Special, &c. .	1,310,860 . . .	2,507,627
	5,461,747	7,801,166

Ohio, with Indiana and Illinois, are the states towards which most immigrants have flocked in recent years. The great inducement has been the fertility of the soil—large tracts of which are prairie lands, ready for the plough. Those states have the additional advantages of possessing inexhaustible mines of coal and iron, and of being accessible by rivers on every side: on the east, by the Ohio; on the south, by the Ohio and Wabash; on the west, by the Illinois and Mississippi; and on the north, by the Lakes. By these channels, by canals, and by railways, the productions of

those states are conveyed to market expeditiously and at a cheap cost.

From Cincinnati to Pittsburg is only 365 miles, and that distance is accomplished in less than a day by railway.

Pittsburg is situated in a valley, at the junction of two rivers, which form the Ohio. It is surrounded by hills from 4 to 500 feet high. I was told that the scenery "presents one panorama of abundance and beauty," but that description I was unable to verify by personal observation. At one time it may have held true, but now, I fear much of its beauty must have faded. Manufactories are numerous in the valley, giving forth volumes of smoke. The air is quite thick, and objects at no great distance are rendered quite indistinct. The smoke discolours everything in the city, even to the faces of the passengers on the streets.

In other respects, Pittsburg is a fine city, and is believed to be unusually healthy. The population in 1850 was 46,601, and, with its suburbs, it is now estimated at upwards of 100,000.

The surrounding hills are composed of coal, iron, and limestone. Coal underlies all the hills, and being above the ordinary level of the country, it is reached by horizontal drifts. This makes the labour of bringing it to market very trifling, and it is therefore sold at the port at a price varying from 50 cents to $1.25 per ton.

The consumption of coal in the city

In 1853, was	22,305,000 bushels
And the Exports were . . .	14,403,921 „
Altogether, 36,708,921 bushels, or, 1,311,033 tons.	

No reliable statistical returns of the trade of Pittsburg have ever been collected, and therefore, the information to be obtained is merely an approximation to the truth. The manufactories are principally of iron, cotton, and glass, in which about $10,000,000 of capital are invested. The

value of their productions, with that of the coal, brought to market in 1853, was estimated at upwards of $25,000,000.

As a manufacturing city, Pittsburg is very favourably situated—much more so than any city in the States. By river, she has ready access to the South, and by railways and canals, to the West and East. By river, the supply of raw material for her cotton works is brought at a small cost; and iron and coal she has at command, and in unlimited quantity. With these natural advantages, it can scarcely be doubted, that as a manufacturing city, she is only yet in her infancy, and that at no distant day she will be the greatest manufacturing city in the States.

Iron ore is found all over the Union—in some states in deposits of great magnitude, and in others of rich quality.

Thus far, but small progress has been made in working the mines, and the quantity produced is insufficient to meet the requirements of the country. Pennsylvania is the state in which most progress has been made in this branch of industry, and, for a long time to come, she is likely to retain that position.

The production of pig iron

	Tons.
In 1840 was	286,903
1850	564,755
1853 (estimated in Prof. Wilson's report)	805,000

In 1850, the quantities produced in the different states, were

	Tons.
In Pennsylvania	285.702
Ohio	52,658
Maryland	43,641
Tennessee	30,420
Kentucky	24,245
New Jersey	24,031
New York	23,022
Virginia	22,163
Other States	58,873
	564,755

In 1853, the production, according to Prof. Wilson, was :—

	Tons.
In the Houseatonic River district	10,000
Hudson River	80,000
Lehigh and Delaware district	120,000
Schuylkill	100,000
Susquehanna	120,000
Potomac	125,000
Ohio and Tennessee	150,000
Other districts	100,000
	805,000

In 1853, the import of iron and its manufactures, was upwards of 600,000 tons, and its value was $27,015,364.

The total production of the iron mines of Great Britain in 1853, was estimated at upwards of 3,100,000 tons, of which 1,261,272 tons were exported in pig and manufactures.

The Census returns for 1850, give the following result of the iron manufactures in the States for that year.

	PIG IRON.	CAST IRON.	WROUGHT IRON.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Value of raw material	7,005,289	10,346,355	9,698,109
Value produced	12,748,777	25,108,155	16,747,074
Net product	5,743,488	14,761,800	7,048,965
	No.	No.	No.
Hands employed	20,448	23,589	13,257
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Capital invested	17,348,000	17,456,000	13,994,220

The iron interests of the States, have been in a flourishing condition of late.* This has been a consequence of the high prices current in Great Britain, of a heavy protective duty on foreign iron, and of the expensive charges for freightage of the latter from Europe. That duty, and those expenses, which are in favour of the home producers, are scarcely, on

* This refers to 1853-4. Recently the iron interests have suffered a reverse, in common with most interests in the Union.

an average of years, sufficient for their prosperity; for at a very recent date, when prices were low in Great Britain, the rates at which importers could afford to sell foreign iron, occasioned the ruin of many of the owners of works in the Union.

The duty on foreign iron is thirty per cent. *ad val.;* but with freightage, commissions, insurance and other charges, the difference in price between Liverpool and New York, is about eighty per cent.

The expenses incurred in importing iron into the States—say about fifty per cent.—are equivalent to a protection to the native producer, but it is one which is fair, and with which no legislative enactment has a right to interfere. The duty, however, of thirty per cent., is an additional charge levied on the consumer, entirely for the benefit of the producer, for foreign iron being sold at a profit, even at this enhanced price, native iron of course is sold at a proportionate advance. This duty on 800,000 tons—the quantity produced in the States—at $15 per ton—a low estimate of the Liverpool average price for 1853—would amount to $3,600,000. Say 800,000 tons at $15 is $12,000,000, on which thirty per cent. duty is $3,600,000.

This duty benefits the producer of pig iron alone, and is of no advantage to the manufacturers of castings and wrought iron, because they have to pay for their raw material a price enhanced by this duty, and they are therefore in the same position as those who pay duty on imported manufactured articles. Indeed they are in a worse position, because they do not pay duty merely upon their own manufactured articles, but upon the raw material consumed in their works, and of course on that part which goes to waste in the process of manufacture. To this add, that with a more costly raw material, they require a larger capital to carry on their business, and that is equivalent to a further tax on their industry, and places them in a less favourable position than their foreign competitors.

The effects of this protection of the iron interest, are, that all articles made of iron are very much dearer in America than in England, and that, that difference in price increases in proportion to the number of processes of manufacture through which each article has to pass.

Only a few days ago, I was assured by a Manchester machinist—the managing partner of a large establishment—who had travelled through the manufacturing districts of the States, in 1853, that all kinds of machinery used in cotton spinning, are fully 75 per cent. dearer there than in Lancashire. He shewed me lists of prices paid for separate parts of machines in America, and compared them with those current in England, and they quite confirmed his statement.

CHAPTER XI.

WASHINGTON — HOUSES OF CONGRESS — PUBLIC MEN — FREQUENT OFFICIAL CHANGES — NEWSPAPERS — POST OFFICE — NATIONAL EXPENDITURE.

From Pittsburg to Washington, by railway, is 379 miles, and that is accomplished in less than a day.

On my second visit to the capital, I took an early opportunity of being present at the debates in the Houses of Congress. In the House of Representatives, the subject under discussion was the "Nebraska Bill." During my stay in the House, I heard only one speaker. He spoke for about three hours, but I heard him for about fifteen minutes only. In that short time he touched upon a considerable variety of topics, but only one part of his discourse remains impressed upon my memory. Speaking of the greatness of the Republic, he said, "I am no supporter of the principles advocated by 'Young America'; but still, I am persuaded, that in a few years, the flag of the Union will wave over the whole continent, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from Cape Horn to the coast of Labrador."

The House was well filled with strangers as well as with members, and the subject was one which excited much interest. This speaker did not, however, seem to be successful in producing any effect upon his hearers. He stood in one of the open aisles, along which he continued to move a few paces, now advancing, and now retreating. He threw his arms around, passed his fingers through his hair, and

spoke with rapidity, almost with vehemence, but the audience showed no sympathy with his excitement. All listened quietly and attentively, because the subject was then in agitation throughout the "length and breadth of the land," but, with much apparent passion, the speaker moved no one. He spoke for effect, and not from the earnestness of conviction. He acted a part, but no one was deceived. He might easily, and with more effect, have compressed his speech into fifteen minutes. But that would not have suited his purpose, nor that of his constituents. He was a man of some mark in Congress; and therefore, on this important subject, it was necessary that he should make a long speech, and have it printed for distribution among his friends. He spoke for "Buncombe," and of course had to introduce into his speech a great variety of extraneous matter, and touch upon most of the questions that had come before the house during the session.

From the House of Representatives I passed into the Senate. Here there seemed to be less talk and more work. The members were all men of mature years, and experience, and who, sensible of the responsibility of their position, seemed to speak less for popularity, than from a sense of duty, and a desire to serve their country. Perhaps in no other assembly in the world, are there, in proportion to the number of its members, so many men of more than average capacity. All of them are men who have gained some reputation in their own states, and through that they have been elevated to the National Senate. But, for the due discharge of the duties of their new sphere, they are partly disqualified by those very efforts by which they have gained a local position, and by their close application to local politics to the partial exclusion of those which are national and foreign. I shall better explain my meaning, by quoting some remarks addressed by one of the senators to myself.

He said "Our senators are all self made men—Lawyers or of other professions. In early life we have to make a

living. We have then to establish ourselves, to make an independent position, and to gain a local reputation. These duties, and the study of our local affairs, of those of the State, and of the Union, occupy all our time, and when at the age of from fifty to sixty we enter the Senate, at Washington, though well informed upon the affairs of our own country, we frequently know very little of those beyond."

Other circumstances are however in their favour. On all questions which come under their consideration, they are supplied with voluminous information. Their previous habits of application and study have sharpened their perceptions, and strengthened their understandings, and having no interests apart from those of the people, their convictions on public affairs are generally formed with honesty, and with impartiality, and are expressed with fairness and moderation.

Undoubtedly there are exceptions to these remarks, for, among the Senators are men who are not merely well informed on their own political affairs but who are also conversant with those of other countries; and so are there among them, some, who, when occasion offers, speak to the popular ear, that their own schemes may be promoted. The latter are however soon known, and from that day forward public confidence in their integrity declines.

I was frequently told in the States, that undue influence was sometimes brought to bear upon the Senators, particularly when private Bills came under their consideration. Such statements I think exaggerated, and they generally proceed from disappointed suitors. Of such men there is no scarcity anywhere, but in the expression of their disappointment, greater license is permitted in America than in any other country, and therefore, it is not surprising that both in speech and writing, unworthy motives should frequently be imputed to the members of their highest deliberative assembly. The best test of the confidence which the people have in the fairness of the Senators, is shewn by the

ready acceptance of their decisions on all important public questions.

Of this license in speech a few of the senators do not fail to avail themselves when it suits their purpose; and they do not hesitate to indulge in violent harangues when they can thereby obtain popularity and make political capital. With such men, abuse of Great Britain is a fertile subject, and is always sure to conciliate and gratify a large portion of the Irish population, who possess much more influence than they are entitled to by their numbers.

The native Americans have generally been very equally divided into Whigs and Democrats, and therefore, when an election occurs, whichever candidate can secure the largest number of foreign votes, is the most likely to be returned. Hence the frequent appeals to the passions of the Irish population, by the lowest of all politicians, and hence their frequent success. The Democrats have done most to secure this influence, and therefore they have been more successful than the Whigs at the general elections.

As the Irish, as a party, diminish in influence by their amalgamation with the natives, and by the number of immigrants, having a smaller proportion to the entire population, the cause of this fast and loose policy will disappear, and the Americans, with that strong love of country, for which they are justly distinguished, will despise partisan clamour, and agitation, and study to promote the general welfare of the nation.

That this feeling is already gaining strength, is evident, from the frequent attempts which have been made to weaken if not to crush foreign influence, by the organisation of native parties, of which the most notable recent example is that party called the "Know Nothings." Onlookers, instead of fearing the success of this association, should give it encouragement, and see in it an effort to give strength to some of the best elements in the national character, and to put an end to

that system of political domination, which has of late years been exercised by politicians of the lowest class.

Northern senators generally retire from office at the expiry of the first term for which they have been elected, while those from the Southern states frequently retain their seats for long periods—in some cases almost for the whole of their political career. This gives them much experience of public affairs, and of course much influence in the Senate; and hence, a complaint is frequently heard in the North, that undue importance is attached in the Senate to Southern interests.

On the accession to office of a new President, there is an entire change of the public servants of the country, down even to the lowest appointments. This system holds good also in the state and municipal governments, unless those who are elected to office be of the same party as their predecessors. In that case, there may be less change. At New Orleans, I learned, that after the previous election, every one in office was dismissed, even to the lamplighters and street-sweepers, not for neglect of duty, but because they had been appointed by the party who had lost power.

This system of change, to be so general, must have its advocates. The only argument I heard in its favour, was, that by the introduction of new men into office, the old systems of conducting business are exploded, and improvements are introduced. On the other hand, as each one in office knows that his tenure will last but for a limited time, till the end of which he is secure, regardless of his competency or good behaviour, he begins to care less for the faithful discharge of his duty, than for the rewards of office, and is not always scrupulous as to the means he employs to make the most out of his present situation. I would not say that this is the actual result of the system, but I think it is its tendency, if public virtue be not strong enough to check any attempt at peculation, or the acceptance of presents.

The duties of no office can be discharged with efficiency,

except by some one having experience; but as changes in office in the States are very frequent, it follows that many of the duties of the public service are performed by men who are mere apprentices to their business,

In the higher departments of the service, this frequent change must be yet more injurious, for no man of first-rate ability and experience will give up his own occupation or pursuit, to accept an appointment for a limited period, whatever may be the renumeration attached to the office. A man having an annual income of 3,000 dollars will not readily give it up for a situation with a salary of 6,000 dollars, which is to be held with certainty for only four years, for he knows that at the expiry of that period, he may, and almost with certainty, will be thrown out of office, and require to begin a new career. Hence, in too many instances, men to whom a certain income for a few years is a consideration,—men, who in this country, would almost come under the name of adventurers,—are appointed to offices for which, by character and experience, they are quite unqualified, and hence, as is frequently observed by English and other travellers in the States, many of the public men, even sometimes in the national government, are far from representing the highest intelligence or respectability of the American people.

By the census, we learn that in 1850 there were 426,311,778 newspapers and periodicals published in the States. Of these, there were published

	No.	Copies.
Daily	254	235,119,966
Tri-Weekly	115	11,811,140
Semi-Weekly	31	5,565,176
Weekly	1,902	153,120,708
Semi-Monthly	95	11,703,480
Monthly	100	8,887,808
Quarterly	19	103,500
	2,516	426,311,778

Their character was

	No.	Copies.
Literary & Miscellaneous	568	77,877,276
Neutral & Independent	83	88,023,953
Political	1,621	221,871,133
Religious	191	33,645,484
Scientific	53	4,893,932
	2,516	426,311,778

This is a circulation of literature of which there is no example in any part of the world, and is an indication of the general desire for information, and of the intelligence and education of the people. This large circulation is much owing to the cheapness at which the newspapers are sold to the public, but yet more I think to the very large degree in which the political and commercial affairs of the country enter into the every-day life of the people.

For a considerable period, and till a recent date, the newspaper press at Washington took the lead in the country, on all political subjects, and at that time the "National Intelligencer" exercised a wide, and in general, a very beneficial influence. More recently, however, the press of New York has aspired to take the lead, and its efforts have been entirely successful. On all matters, political and commercial, it informs the people, and leads public opinion, and its tone is re-echoed throughout the Union.

Of the New York papers, there is none so well written as the "Herald," and none contains more general, or fuller information, or has such influence on public opinion. Of the same class is the "Tribune" and the "Times," but they have not such a large circulation, nor so wide an influence The "Tribune" has the largest circulation in the New England States, where its anti-slavery, protectionist, and temperance views are in high favour, but in all other parts of the country I was told that the "Herald" was more generally read. I am well aware that the influence I have attributed to the latter

is denied even by those who read it daily, but so also is the influence of the London "Times" denied, and yet I believe it does more to lead the public opinion of England than all the other papers put together.

The daily circulation of the "Herald" is upwards of 50,000, and with its semi-weekly publication is nearly half a million per week. As in England, so in America, nine-tenths of the people have no opinions of their own. In the mornings they look out for one almost as regularly as they expect their breakfast, and generally adopt that one which most nearly coincides with their own wishes or prejudices. The "Herald" is at hand and read, and thus its editors create the daily opinions of thousands of people, most of whom however claim those opinions as their own, and have the ingratitude to withhold from the editor that credit which is his due. As the New York press leads that of the country, so, throughout the Union, hundreds of other papers take their tone of politics from the "Herald," and become mere channels to convey its opinions to their own readers. On all public questions its influence is paramount. It was mainly instrumental in turning out Fillmore. It defeated Scott. It brought in Pierce and it will turn him out, because, as its opponents say, its proprietor was refused the French embassy. It is the organ for the annexation of Cuba, and, on other important questions its influence is equally potent.

On all these points it may not have formed public opinion, but, destitute of any principles of its own, it has shrewdly watched the turn of public sentiment, and taken that side which was most likely to be popular. By the ability with which it has been written, it has given expression to that opinion, and force and point to that energy on the part of the public, which without such an organ for their utterance, would have been dissipated and lost.

Its circulation has been largely aided by the virulence of its tone, and by the personality of its attacks on private as

well as public life, for, in all parts of the world, nothing is more general than an itching after a little private scandal, and a prying into the affairs of our neighbours. To that low taste the "Herald" has pandered fully—frequently farther than has been prudent or safe, and hence its editor has had to pay handsomely for defamation of character, and has had the additional mortification of being castigated more than once on the public streets. Still on the whole his career has been highly profitable, and I was told satisfactory, for some men value money more than honour, and are more anxious to gratify their avarice, than careful as to the uprightness of the means employed to gain success.

On public affairs he is not scrupulous as to the correctness of his statements, and if he finds a falsehood suit his purpose, he lies with such audacity, as to paralyze all opposition. In nothing is this more conspicuous than in his comments on European affairs. Information on such subjects is limited in the States, and of that he takes full advantage, and in his leading columns, conveys the most erroneous impressions to his readers.

If, unhappily, there should ever arise any misunderstanding between the United States and Great Britain, or any appearance of a rupture in their present friendly relations, for any feelings in America which may favour such an untoward event, there is no man can take more credit for having fostered them, than the Editor of the "Herald."

His antagonism to everything European, and especially English, may arise from the fact, that, he is from the Old Country. As a man therefore likely to be suspected as insincere in his professions of attachment to his adopted country, he must shew his zeal by his violence, and like all renegades, endeavour to make the bitterness and scurrility of his language a mask to cover his dishonesty.

The "Tribune" is generally written with fairness and moderation, but with less terseness. It contains partial

statements, and specious arguments, which are more observable by a foreigner, than by one who has similar sympathies, but that is not less true of our own press.

The "Times" started with moderate views, but has recently to some extent, followed the violent example of the "Herald." This is less remarkable, as its editor was at one time a subordinate in the "Herald" office. These papers are sold at two cents. I was told by the owner of one of them, that at this price they leave no profit. That is made on the immense number of advertisements which they contain.

There are other newspapers in the city of New York, of much more limited circulation, but of equal influence, and that chiefly among the better informed classes. They are written with temper, fairness, and ability, and are very like the best English papers. They are sold at five cents.

With a country extending over such an immense area as the United States, it may be supposed that the Post Office arrangements have to be conducted on a gigantic and annually increasing scale. There are great irregularities in the mails, but such only as are inseparable from the extent of country traversed, and the surprise is rather that those failures are not more frequent.

To give an idea of the progress made in this branch of the public service, I annex a statement compiled from the Treasury Reports.

	1780.	1840.	1854.
Post offices . . No.	75	13,468	23,548
Post roads . . . Miles	1,875	155,739	219,935
	Dols.	Dols.	Dols.
Cost of transportation	22,081	3,213,042	4,630,676
Receipts	37,935	4,543,522	6,955,586
Expenditure	32,140	4,718,236	8,577,424

In 1854, there were 6697 mail routes, and the number of contractors employed was 5167.

The annual transportation of the mails in 1854, was 63, 387,005 miles, the cost of which would be a little above 7 cents per mile.

Of these 63,387,005 miles, there were by

	Miles.	Dollars.		
Railway . . .	15,433,389 at	1,758,610 or	11½ cts.	₩ mile.
Steam Boat . . .	5,795,483	489,138	8½ „	„
Coach	20,890,530	1,290,095	6 „	„
Modes not specified	21,267,603	1,092,833	5 „	„

Of the receipts, about three-fourths were derived from letters, and the remainder from newspapers and sundry other sources.

It is very difficult, if not altogether impossible, to ascertain the national expenditure of the Americans, or the amount of their taxation per head In Great Britain, nearly all expenses are defrayed by the central power, but in America the Federal Government has cognizance of those affairs only which concern the confederation, or the relations of the States to each other, and to other nations. No money is therefore entrusted to it, but what is required for national purposes; and all local expenditures are defrayed by the states, counties, and townships, as the cases may be. The expenditure of the National Government, I regard, therefore, as a small portion of that of the country, and forming no fair grounds of comparison with that of any Government in Europe. The expenditure of the states, counties, and townships—not including municipalities—can be learned only after considerable enquiry.

The Federal Revenue in 1854, was

	Dollars
From Customs	64,224,190
Lands	8,470,798
Miscellaneous	854,717
	73,549,705

And the expenditure was

	Dollars.
Civil	4,649,385
Foreign	7,726,677
Miscellaneous	13,531,310
Interior	2,609,055
War	11,733,629
Navy	10,768,193
Public debt redeemed	20,129,163
„ interest	4,207,21
	75,354,630

With a population of about 22,000,000 whites (for the slaves contribute no more to the prosperity of the country than is done by animal power in England), the revenue is about $\$3\frac{1}{3}$ per head and the civil expenditure (under which head I include the first four and the last item of the preceding list) is about $\$1\frac{1}{2}$ per head.

Of the expenditure of the other departments, as already stated, it is difficult to obtain information,—of some of them impossible. When at Washington, I was told in one of the government offices, that on these points no reliable information could be obtained, and at New York the same remark was made by the editor of the leading statistical paper in the Union. In some of the state accounts, which I procured, their mode of arrangement differ. Some of them contain the expenditure of all the different departments,—the state, counties, and townships,—and others contain the expenditure of the state only. Some of them include railways and public schools, and others do not.

I have endeavoured to arrange the statistics of the four most populous and influential states, which I now present. From these, an estimate may be formed, of the expenditure in those states whence reliable information is less easily obtained. In presenting these figures which I do with considerable deference, I must claim indulgence for any mistakes they may contain. I have taken pains to avoid errors; but they

cannot be always prevented in accounts which are somewhat involved, and especially complicated to a foreigner. Any mistakes, if there be such, can be only trifling, and cannot materially affect the general result.

On this point, I may add, that the results, such as I am about to give, were approved in New York, by some statisticians competent to form an opinion as to their correctness, and who were not likely to give evidence unfavourable to their own country.

In 1853, the revenue and the population of the States

	Dollars.	Estimated Population
Of Massachusets . . .	2,118,205 . .	1,050,000
New York	6,124,678 . .	3,250,000
Pennsylvania . .	5,232,470 . .	2,500,000
Ohio	7,801,167 . .	2,100,000
	21,276,520	8,900,000

Of this amount, nearly $4,000,000 were paid for education. The revenues of Massachusets and Pennsylvania refer merely to the states. Those of New York and Ohio include the incomes of the counties and townships.

Deducting the amount applied towards education, we should have for the taxation of those states as near as may be, $2 per head. Making some little allowance for the counties and townships of the two states, not included in the above, I estimate the taxation per head at $2½. This amount added to the taxation levied by the Federal Government, will make the annual tax per head throughout the Union, $5.8,—(presuming that the other states are taxed in the same proportion as the four given above.) To repeat

	Dols.
State, county, and township tax estimated per head as above	2½
Federal revenue per head	3⅓
	5.8
Or Federal civil expenditure	1½
	4

In Great Britain, the national revenue, including expense of collection and county tax, is as near as may be 40s. per head. Without the cost of the army and navy, the expenditure per head is less than 30s.; and the civil expenditure alone, including county taxes, but without the cost of collection, is not more than 6s. per head.

The civil expenditure of Great Britain, including county tax, and (what Americans think amount to an enormous sum in England) pensions, is not more than the civil expenditure alone of the Federal Government of the States. When to the expenditure of the American Government, is added that of the states, counties, and townships, the result is strikingly in favour of Great Britain, and proves incontestably, that our government is the more economical of the two.

If to the direct taxation levied on the American people, be added the amount paid for protection to native industry, I venture to believe that it will be found, that the taxation of our country for all purposes, is the lighter of the two. To the cost of protection to native industry I have yet to allude.

In making the foregoing statements, somewhat opposed as I think they are to impressions generally entertained here and in America, I am able to fortify my position by the authority of M. de Tocqueville, who states in his "Democracy in America," that the American Government is an expensive one. He adds that the information he was able to obtain on the subject was very imperfect.

In the amount of municipal expenditure, as shewn in New York and New Orleans, and as will be shewn in Boston, the Americans far surpass us.

On the subject of Church expenditure in America, I am able to speak only on the authority of others. While in New York I was informed by a writer of statistics, and an authority in the country, that, after enquiring, for a period extending over two years, into the incomes of the separate congregations in the States, he estimated them to be as large as those

of the churches and chapels in England. At first sight this statement is rather startling, but it is less surprising to any one who is aware of the very liberal provision made in America for the support of the clergy. The only difference between the two countries, on this point—and it is an important one—is, that in one the tax is voluntary, in the other it is, to a considerable extent, compulsory.

In crossing the Atlantic, homewards, one of the passengers was the bearer of despatches from his own government to one of the continental courts. He had never been in Europe, and desired to learn something about England, where he was likely to remain a few days, on his return. He made some enquiry on sundry subjects, and, among others, on the amount of our national expenditure, which, in comparison with that of the United States, he considered to be quite monstrous. After some conversation, several times renewed, he at last admitted that the state, county, and township expenditure of the Union, ought to be added to that of the Federal Government, and then a comparison made with our general expenditure, and that of our counties. He was then asked to give an estimate of what he considered to be the expenditure of his own country, embracing the departments named; and, when that was put on paper, he was amazed to find that it amounted to a sum so very little less than that of Great Britain. He, however, closed the conversation by assuring us that his estimate was all wrong, for he knew, for a fact, that the American expenditure was not a fourth that of Great Britain. Still further to shew the strength of his convictions on the subject, and his reliance on the economical management of affairs in the States, he offered to maintain, even with gage, that the annual expenditure of the city of New York, was not a tenth part of that of the city of London! I give this example to shew that, on this subject, considerable misapprehension prevails in America, even among very intelligent men.

While at Washington, I met Elihu Burritt in the Capitol. He was busy canvassing the members of both Houses in favour of his scheme of ocean penny postage. Success will not dawn upon his efforts in a day; but it will come at no distant period, and another will reap the reward of his labours. Cheap postage will increase the intercourse between the two nations, unite them yet more intimately, and strengthen those friendly relations which are already in existence.

CHAPTER XII.

BALTIMORE—AMERICAN WOMEN—MODE OF LIFE—PERSONAL ATTRACTIONS—EDUCATION—MARRIAGE—WIVES.

From Washington I proceeded to Baltimore. There, I had little to do but to accept the kind offices of my friends, and to admire the ladies. Baltimore has long been celebrated for the hospitality of its inhabitants, for their pleasant social parties, and for the beauty of its women. To all these distinctions it certainly has a good claim. Of the hospitality of its people, I shall say but little, because Englishmen are received in every part of the Union with kindness and consideration. Instances of this I could multiply, but here I shall give only one, and it refers to Baltimore.

Coming along from the West, I was fortunate enough in making the acquaintance, in the railway car, of a merchant of that city. When we parted, he gave me his card, and invited me to call at his office when passing through to the North. This I did on the following week, when he sent home for his carriage, and left his business for two hours, that he might drive me round the city and shew me what was most interesting to a visitor.

The subject of the ladies I approach with deference, and not without—I admit it—secret admiration. For beautiful women, the reputation of Baltimore has long been pre-eminent, but recently, her claim has been disputed, and rival cities have sprung up in the West, to contest her established

honours. In Kentucky there are now several cities vieing with her, and with each other, and neither is disposed to make any concession. On the respective merits of the ladies of those cities I could not venture to offer an opinion, even had my opportunities of forming one been much more favourable than they were. On matters of taste, it is always difficult to come to any general decision, for rarely does it occur that two can arrive at the same result. How much greater is that difficulty, when the subject under consideration happens to be one which interests the heart!

It is generally believed in England that the American women are delicate looking, that they are thin in person, and that the freshness of youth fades while they are still young in years.

This holds good, to some extent, in the New England States, but is not of general application to the country. From Philadelphia southwards, and in the West, the women retain their youthful bloom to a much later period of life than they do in the North.

The early decay of the women in New England, is attributed to the severity of the climate, and to the violent alternations of the temperature from heat to cold. Those causes may not be without influence on the health, but I think not at all to the extent assumed, for in Canada, with a climate quite as variable, I did not observe or learn, that the health of the inhabitants was similarly affected. I think the delicate health of the American women might, in a large measure, be attributed to other causes, over which they themselves have entire control. These are—

Improper food.

Want of exercise.

Close, ill ventilated rooms.

Thin clothing—especially thin boots.

Late hours, and excitement at public and private parties.

All over America, the people live more luxuriously and

richly than in England. That of itself cannot be favourable to their health. Still less so, if their food be indigestible, either from its nature, or from being imperfectly cooked. At breakfast, hot rolls,—often half baked, half dough,—and at dinner, pies,—pumpkin and other kinds,—are quite indispensable. The rolls are used throughout the country, but the pies are in most favour in New England. When travelling, I observed that wherever the trains stopped for refreshments, and at whatever hour, most of the passengers made a purchase of pumpkin pies. To me they looked as indigestible as a piece of leather half boiled.

I was told that the ladies in most cities do not take much out-of-door exercise. When they have occasion to go out, they prefer to ride, and therefore receive little benefit from the change.

In winter they are accustomed to keep closely within doors, and to sit in warm rooms, heated by stoves, and without ventilation. This I have seen frequently in private houses, and in public places of business, and at a time of the year before the winter had set in with much severity. In New York, in winter, it is common to find rooms heated to 70° and upwards. That heat, generated by a stove, without any proper ventilation, is close and offensive, and to one not used to it, is almost suffocating. To live in such an atmosphere must be far from healthful.

The ladies in the States almost all wear very thin boots and shoes. In their cold climate, with its violent and sudden changes, this exposes them to severe colds, which frequently end in delicate health and in consumption.

With more attention to their habits of life—to food, clothing, and exercise,—there would be less delicate health, and we should hear less of the early period in life at which their beauty disappears.

In the South and West, the climate is less severe in winter, and therefore they have more exercise, and suffer less from

the closeness of their heated rooms. Pumpkin and other pies are also in less favour, though hot rolls to breakfast and rich food generally maintain their popularity.

The ladies of those parts have less brilliant complexions, and scarcely such delicately beautiful features as are to be seen in New England; but with dark laughing eyes, luxuriant hair, handsome figures, and much vivacity of manner, they are certainly very fascinating. I observed that, throughout the Union, they have, in general, very small hands and feet—in this country, characteristics of gentle blood.

The education of ladies in the South and West is not of such a high order as of those in the New England States. Even in the latter, there are fewer accomplishments, and less cultivation of the tastes, than are desired in England, but much attention is paid to the improvement of the understanding, and to the acquisition of solid and useful information.

Throughout the country the ladies dress extravagantly, and the colours they wear are more brilliant and showy than we are wont to see in England. This is, however, a consequence of the clear brilliant atmosphere of the States, which favours a more gaudy style of dress, than would be deemed suitable in our sombre climate.

In America, young ladies are "brought out," or rather "come out," very early in life, and thus acquire a degree of confidence before strangers, which would surprise English women. In England, young ladies are generally very quiet before strangers, and it is only after marriage, and when compelled from their new position, to have confidence in themselves, that in the sensible, conversational, well-informed lady, do we recognise the former bashful, stiff, and I might almost say, awkward girl. There, a young lady of sixteen or seventeen has "come out," and has acquired as much assurance in public, as she will have at any future period of her life.

Marriages take place in America at an earlier period in

life, than is customary in England. This, I mean, on the average, for some marriages take place here, at a period in life as early as is seen in the States. Early marriage in America is a consequence of the greater ease with which a position in life is obtained, and the certainty with which the means of a comfortable subsistence are secured. In England, a position is obtained with difficulty, and few ever recover from a reverse. In America, a reverse is momentary in its effects, and a change of occupation may secure success. This secures confidence in the future, and hence, young men undertake responsibilities, from which, in similar circumstances in this country, they would shrink.

In England, many young men, knowing the difficulty of establishing themselves in life, are fearful of incurring future obligations which they may not see their way clearly to discharge. This proceeds from no selfish motives, but most frequently from consideration towards those with whom, under kindlier auspices, they would rejoice to unite their lot, and almost solely from a regard to their future welfare and happiness. From this cause, not a few deny themselves that security and repose which we associate with the term "home," and struggle to suppress the tenderest sensibilities of their nature, that they may not involve others in anything even approaching to anxiety or pain. Others, again, with more confidence and less thought, rush into engagements, the importance of which they do not even attempt to understand, and have the good fortune to obtain credit for being unselfish and manly, by conduct, which, in any other affair in life, would be characterised as rash and imprudent.

But, however forward, or even frivolous, the American women may be in early life, I have reason to believe, that as wives, they become thoughtful and self-denying, and that they are then careful only to deserve and retain the affection of their husbands. Of this I had several examples.

The great distances which the Americans are accustomed

to go by railway, frequently render it necessary for them to travel all night, and sometimes two or more nights in succession. On such occasions, and more than once, I have seen ladies, however much fatigued, deny themselves sleep, that their husbands might have rest, and that, by supporting their heads, their slumbers might be more light.

When at the Niagara Falls Station, a young woman came into the carriage with a child in her arms, and as there was no vacant seat, I gave her mine. In a few minutes, her husband came in, leading two elder children. As soon as he approached, she desired him to thank me for the seat, though she had done so herself. This led to some conversation, and I learned that he had been a joiner in Connecticut, but was now on his way to Illinois, intending to settle there with his family. As she looked somewhat sad, I enquired if she was not sorry to leave her home, her native village, and her friends, to go into a new country, and encounter all the hardships of life in the back woods. She smiled faintly, and motioning towards her husband, she replied, "Wherever he goes, that is my home."

This only proves, that in America, as elsewhere, women are unselfish, and prepared to make every sacrifice for those they love. To this I shall add only one other instance.

When at New Orleans, I met a young lady from the North, who had been married only about two months, to the captain of an American merchantman. I may here premise that, as the pay of American captains is considerable, they are mostly men of education and high respectability. Their wives, who are often ladies of education, and accomplished, generally accompany them to sea. This young lady was now on her first voyage, and had scarcely become familiar with her new mode of life. I expressed some surprise, that so many American ladies should have the self-denial to leave their homes and their relatives to live at sea, and jocularly alluded to the audacity of sailors, who ventured to ask them to make such a sacrifice. On this she told me that at the time of her

marriage, it was arranged that she should reside on shore, but as the time drew near for the sailing of her husband's ship, her resolution failed. She thought of the storms at sea, and she knew that during every gale, she would have fears, in his absence, for his safety. At the last moment, therefore, she determined to leave her home, and encounter with him the perils of the deep.

I then, referring to my own experience in crossing the Atlantic, complimented her on her courage and devotion, and added that no inducement would tempt me to live at sea. To this she laughingly replied, glancing at her husband, "Ah! you would do it for love."

CHAPTER XIII.

NEW YORK—HOTELS—SERVANTS—RAILWAYS—PLANK ROADS—TELEGRAPHS.

From Baltimore I proceeded by railway to Philadelphia, and thence by railway and steam-boat to New York, where I arrived on April 6th.

The St. Nicholas Hotel, to which I drove, is perhaps the largest in the world. It is the most comfortable, and the most elegantly furnished in the States. Its frontage on Broadway is 302 feet, its depth 200 feet, and it is six stories high. It has somewhere about 600 rooms, and accommodation for upwards of 1,000 guests. When I was there, 322 servants were in the establishment. The front of the building is of white marble, and its cost was about $1,300,000. The annual rent of the whole building is $110,000; but as the ground floor to the street is sublet for shops, the rent of the hotel is only $55,000. On the first floor are, breakfast, dinner, tea, and reception rooms, and all above are bed and private sitting-rooms. The rooms are all very handsomely furnished, the cost of which was upwards of $300,000.

The hours for meals are, breakfast, from five o'clock till noon; lunch, from noon till two o'clock; dinner, from two to four, and again from five to seven; tea, from six to eight; and supper, from nine o'clock to one, A.M.

The meals are all provided in the utmost profusion, and of the best quality. Indeed, if there be any delicacy in any part

of the country, a supply is sent to the New York leading hotels, even though the distance be great, and the expense heavy. The charge in the New York hotels is $2½ per day. In some other cities it is only $2, while in New Orleans it is $3.

In all these hotels, ladies sit in the public drawing-rooms, and take their meals at the common table. Of course, therefore, the charge to them is the same as to gentlemen, and hence they are able to travel in the States at a much cheaper cost than in England.

I have frequently heard comparisons made between the cost of living at a hotel in America, and at one in England. In the latter, a guest is charged only for what he orders. In America the charge is made per day, and so long as a bed-room is engaged, the full boarding charge must be paid, even if the guest be absent from every meal. If he bring a friend to dine for even one day, he must pay that charge in addition. A gentleman living at a hotel in Boston, shewed me his bill for a month. In that time he had dined at the hotel only twice, and yet he had to pay the full charge for a month. On one of those two days, a friend dined with him, and for that he had to pay in addition.

At the best American hotels, from the numerous guests who attend the meals, everything is provided in large quantity, of prime quality, and of great variety. In England, as the attendance at a public table in a hotel is small, there is less variety brought to table, although the quality is of the best.

In America, large dishes are not brought to table, but the servants bring to each guest whatever he orders. In England, every thing is brought to table, and guests can have a choice.

The charge of $2½ per day in America, is little, if anything less, than is made at a first-class commercial hotel in England for three meals, and the use of a bed-room. In America,

four, or even five meals, can be had for the daily charge; but gentlemen rarely eat more than three times each day, and often not more than twice. In England, the charge for servants is more than in the States, but even in the latter, servants expect some gratuity.

In American hotels, the wines are inferior in quality, and more costly in price, than in England. The wines mostly in use are claret and champagne, and they are never charged less than $2 or $2½, and frequently $3. In some places I have seen them sold at $4 and even $5 per bottle. Even at those extravagant prices, the quality is not equal to what is to be had at a first-class English Hotel. I have heard it frequently averred in the States, that much of the champagne sold in the country is of home manufacture — a statement I am the more inclined to believe, from knowing something of the extent to which the manufacture and the adulteration of wine is carried on in England*. I was informed, in one of the large American cities, that the quantity of wine consumed at one of its leading hotels, was quite as large as the whole importation into the city.

As the duty on the importation of foreign wines into the States, is only thirty to forty per cent. *ad val.*, it will be seen

* I think it was stated in evidence before a recent committee of the House of Commons, that the quantity of port wine consumed in the United Kingdom was double that imported.

A merchant told me not a week ago, that for some years he had been accustomed to sell a sherry wine, which, from its "peculiarly delicate flavour," had obtained a high reputation. This wine was manufactured in London, and two of its principal ingredients, he told me, were burnt sugar and brandy. The peculiarly delicate flavour was obtained by putting a piece of leather into the mixture before it was bottled.

And yet, what Englishman is not skilled in the knowledge of good port and sherry? and who, as soon as he has got his head above water, has not some *old* port wine in his cellar, or some sherry with a flavour peculiarly delicate?

The same merchant told me, that he had recently offered some claret to the leading club house in a city in the British Empire, and wishing to secure a share of its custom, he offered to take a low price. The wine was returned as inferior, and he was desired to send some of a better quality. He offered the same wine at double the price, when it was immediately accepted, and his whole stock was bought.

that, at the prices quoted above, large profits are made on their sale at the hotels. So well is this understood by the owners of hotels, that it is quite a common practice among some of them, to give frequent balls during the winter months, permitting the guests to invite their friends. Music, supper, and the use of the rooms, are provided gratuitously, because the profit on the wines consumed more than defrays all expenses.

To manage some of the largest American hotels requires much skill and judgment, and the adoption of very systematic arrangements. Large capitals are also required, and hence they are generally carried on by co-partneries. In many of them very handsome profits are made, and I was told that, in the Metropolitan Hotel, which is the second in size in New York, the nett profits in 1853, were upwards of $ 100,000.

The custom of living at hotels and boarding houses prevails more or less all over the States, and no practice is more common than for young people, on getting married, to begin the world by taking up of their residence at one of those public places. Such a practice would not be tolerated in England for a single day, because it is one that would be supposed likely to encourage idleness and frivolity, and to destroy that quietness and privacy which all Englishmen desire in their homes. An Englishman could not live in public, occupy a public room, and sit at a public table for a permanency, because it would deprive him of that retirement at will, which suits what may be called his taciturnity. To a lady, such a life would be still less agreeable, and would expose her to influences which would have a tendency to deaden her sensitiveness to the improprieties of life; for in large assemblies of people, in any part of the world, and where there are many varieties of character, it is impossible to prevent occurrences which are disagreeable, and more or less offensive to females.

To introduce ladies into those large hotels in America,—and the same would hold good if it were practised in England—

is to do them an act of injustice. They are introduced into the public room, into promiscuous society, and of necessity make acquaintance with people,—gentlemen as well as ladies—of whom they know nothing. At many of those large hotels there are idlers, who frequently have not the best private reputation. On this point I speak advisedly. With such people strangers cannot frequently avoid making acquaintance, for they meet with them in the public room, and sit with them at the same table. I believe, therefore, that ladies who are encouraged to live at such places, are frequently led to form acquaintances, not to say intimacies, which, with better information, they would gladly avoid, and they are not freed from exposure to solicitations and impertinencies, which are both insulting and painful.

At nearly all the hotels in the States, the waiters and servants employed are Irish or German—mostly the former. Even in the South, they have replaced the coloured population in all those establishments. Indeed, throughout the States, the immigrants from Ireland and Germany are "hewers of wood and drawers of water," to the native population.

The wages they receive are very liberal, and I doubt not, that at first sight, they appear to them munificent, after the miserably poor living most of them have had in their native countries.

All of them live in the hotels in which they are employed. In addition to their board, the wages which they receive, are—

	Dollars.
Porters	18 to 20 per month.
Waiters	12 to 15 „
Boys	8 to 12 „
Females	7 to 12 „

As these sums are considerably more than most of them have occasion to spend, having to provide for themselves almost nothing but clothes, I frequently enquired of the

Irish servants how the surplus was employed. A few of the girls spent it on dress, but in most cases—indeed very generally—I was told that it was remitted to their poor relatives in Ireland, sometimes to assist to carry them over to this new land of promise, and at other times for the maintenance of those who are too aged to emigrate.

This is a noble trait in the character of the Irish people, and "covers a multitude of sins." They may be riotous in their adopted country, and troublesome to those who exercise authority, though this strong natural affection, under wise counsels, ought to make them valuable, where they are now deemed mischievous citizens. The tenacity of their attachment to their native land, and their warm affection to their relatives, cannot fail to command our highest admiration.

I have frequently been told in America, and also in England, of the rudeness of servants at the American hotels. Of that rudeness I saw nothing during the time I was in the country, and not once in that time had I the slightest cause to complain of incivility or negligence. On the contrary, I was much pleased with the prompt attention which I generally saw paid to the guests. That was the more remarkable, as the gratuities paid them are generally small.

But in America, servants will not submit to be bullied by gentlemen, or snubbed by ladies, as they have sometimes to do in England. The greater equality among all classes prevents arrogance on the one hand, and servility on the other; and where servants in America are treated with civility and consideration, I have reason to believe that they are respectful and obedient.

As a curious fact, it may here be mentioned, that, of the Irish who are in America, a great many cease to be Roman Catholics after they have been a few years in the country; and of the second generation scarcely any adhere to the religion of their fathers. This statement is borne out by the Census. In 1850, there was church accommodation in the

States for 14,234,825 people, out of a population of 19,987,571 whites, being a proportion of 71 per cent; but though the Irish and French population, and others from Catholic countries amounted to upwards of 1,020,000, (making no account of the native born Catholics), there was accommodation in the Catholic Church for only 667,823 people, or 65 per cent. The children of immigrants born in the States, are put down as native Americans, and, therefore, are not included in the number given above. But until they arrive at years of discretion, they are under parental control, and imbibe the religious opinions of their parents, or at all events, in early life, attend on the same religious ordinances. If, therefore, church accommodation were provided in the States for the proper proportion of Irish, French, and other immigrants from Catholic countries, for their children born in the country, but still under parental authority, and for native born Catholics, not the children of immigrants, that accommodation, instead of being for 65 per cent. of the immigrants alone, would be sufficient for much more than their entire number. I am persuaded, therefore, that in America, the Catholic religion does not flourish; and that the freedom of the other institutions of the country, and the openness of discussion, are adverse to the influence of the priesthood. I believe that the same result is favoured by the equality which is enjoyed by the Catholics, in common with all other religious bodies. Perhaps, at some not distant day, this truth will be recognised and acted upon in Ireland.

I do not know anything in which the Americans so much surpass us, as the cheapness with which they can travel from place to place, and the small cost at which they can convey their produce and other commodities from the interior to the sea-board, or from the sea-board to the interior. This cheapness is of great advantage in America—indeed it is almost a necessity. It has been produced partly by natural advantages, and partly by the enterprise of the people.

The American people love to move about, and they think nothing of travelling a few hundred miles, night and day, if necessary. The long distances which intervene between different parts of the country, render it desirable that they should be able to accomplish this at a moderate,—if possible, at a cheap rate. Still more do the immense quantities of bulky and heavy produce which they have in the interior, require a cheap means of transport to the sea coast. The numerous large rivers in the country formed the first cheap highways. These were supplanted by canals, and now both are in course of being superseded by railways.

The love of travelling in the States forms almost a part of the national character, and cheap conveyance is universal. Whether the restlessness of the people, and their love of change produced cheap travelling, or were induced by that cheapness, it would be difficult to say. Probably the one favoured the other.

The average charge per mile on railways in America, is from two to three cents, or not much more than half that in Great Britain. On the rivers, it is very much less, and more variable. The following are the charges for some of the distances in the States. Where through-tickets are taken, the charge is less than if tickets be taken at the beginning of each line.

	Miles.	Dollars.
Boston to New York	236	5
New York to Buffalo	448	7½
New York to Philadelphia	87	3
Philadelphia to Washington	137	4.35
Baltimore to Cincinnati	689	14½
New York to Wilmington	600	17
Charleston to Montgomery	483	18
Montgomery to Mobile (steam-boat)	400	10
New Orleans to Louisville (steam-boat)	1,500	30

The fares on steam boats include meals.

The rates of transportation on some of the railways and water lines for a ton of 2,000 lbs., are

	Mills per Mile.
New York and Erie Railway	24
Hudson River Railway	31
New York Central Railway	34
Boston and Albany Railway	23
Philadelphia Railway	35
Baltimore and Ohio Railway	30
Hudson River	7
Ohio River	8
Mississippi River (Lower)	6
„ (Upper)	9
St. Lawrence River and Canals	6
Erie Canal	11
Ohio Canal	10
Western Lakes (short voyage)	10
„ (long voyage)	5

The expense of travelling in the States, as will be seen, is very much less than in England, but the rate at which goods are conveyed is still more surprising.

This cheapness is owing to the immense traffic on all those lines or routes, both of passengers and goods, and to the cheapness with which the canals and railways have been constructed.

In Great Britain, there are nearly 800 miles of railway, the average cost of which has been between £30,000 and £40,000 per mile. In the United States, in 1854, there were 21,528 miles completed, the average cost of which was under $30,000 per mile. In the South and West the average cost per mile was under $20,000.

While, therefore, from the extent of the country, and in many districts from the sparseness of the population, the American lines are of great length, and carried through wide and almost uninhabited regions; yet, from the cheapness with which they have been constructed, their fares are low compared with those in England.

And yet, with respect to the cheapness of their construction, in some points the Americans have been less favourably situated than we. Labour with them has been scarce and dear. Iron has also been much more costly than in England. In other respects they have had an advantage. At an early period, the American people, as well as their government, saw the benefits their country would derive from numerous lines of railways, and therefore all parties conspired to favour their extension, and contrived means to carry out their views. The government has frequently given land gratuitously, or at a nominal price for the construction of some of the lines — more especially in the West. On the East coast, proprietors of land have offered at a low price what the Railway Companies required, and have striven to obtain a preference, well aware that, even if they gave their land for nothing, the transaction would be profitable in the end, because of the benefit the other portions of their property would derive, from being brought near to the line of railway, and from having easy access to market.

With, therefore, abundance of cheap land, with no expense attending preliminary arrangements, with cheap timber for sleepers, and with economical methods of construction, the American lines have been completed at a cost of not much more than a sixth of those of this country.

In Great Britain, matters have been quite reversed. The first lines were contrived and constructed amid opposition. Landowners, selfish and short-sighted, were unrelenting in their hostility, and thought only of their parks and pleasure grounds, and the injury they would sustain by the innovation on the old roads, and on the old methods of travelling. Hucksters in fact, though gentlemen by profession, they could not extort too much money from the Railway Companies for the sacrifices they fancied they were compelled to make by the sale of their land. Many of them, of dull apprehension, never could understand that their property would be improved, and its

value increased by the facilities which the railways afforded for carrying their country produce to market.

Again, the legal and parliamentary expenses have been very large; and, in many cases, before the necessary acts of parliament have been obtained, the expenses have been quite monstrous.

These obstacles have seriously hindered the progress of railways in England, and have added a large per centage to their cost. This is of course a tax upon the public, who must pay in their fares and for the carriage of their goods, a charge sufficient to meet the usual rate of interest on the total outlay of capital.

At the beginning of 1855, the number of lines in the States were—

271 lines completed.
174 „ in course of construction.

445 lines.

Full particulars of these lines are given in the appendix.

We frequently hear of the number of accidents on the American railways, and of the consequent sacrifice of life. Those accidents are attributed to reckless management, defective machinery, and imperfectly constructed lines. I think these reports are somewhat exaggerated, as the following details will shew.

On twenty of the lines in the state of New York, the total number of passengers conveyed during the year 1853,

Was	8,174,363
The number of miles travelled was	397,272,298*
The number of passengers & servants of the Company who were injured by Accidents, was	209
Of whom there were killed	137

* The total number of passengers on all the railways in Great Britain and Ireland during the first six months of 1854, was 50,367,404, and the mileage which they travelled, was 704,918,958.—*Parliamentary Paper.*

Of the 209 who were injured, 74 were from being exposed on the line, and 19 from jumping off the train. This statement, I think, will compare not unfavourably with the results on some of the lines in Great Britain.

It is probable that in New York and in the New England States, there may be fewer accidents than in those states which are less settled, and where the lines may not be so well constructed and managed. In the latter, however, I invariably found that the rate of travelling was much slower than in the North.

Many of the lines have only single tracks. This is generally the case where the intervals from place to place are wide, where the population is scanty, and where the quantity of goods to be carried is small. Some of those lines, where running through uncultivated regions, and over a level surface, have been constructed at a very small cost. This applies to many of the lines in the South and West. On other lines, the works are of great magnitude, and have been constructed at much cost. Some of those works may be seen in the lines connecting the East coast with the West, and with the Ohio valley.

The reference I have already made to the railways in the state of New York and others on the East coast, will shew the advantages which have been derived from their introduction into the Union, and the necessity there is for their yet further extension. In other parts of the Union they are of proportionate utility.

There are about 4,000 miles of canals in the States, some of which have been constructed at considerable cost. Most of them—particularly those in the states of New York, Indiana, and Illinois—have been eminently successful, and have almost revolutionized the industrial pursuits of the districts through which they pass.

Subsidiary to railways and canals, plank roads are in use

more or less throughout the States. In the Northern states, the frosts of winter cut up the roads, as we sometimes see done in England, but in a greater degree, from the greater severity of an American winter; and from the length of those roads, and in many places, from the thinness of the population, there is great expense to individuals in making them, and in keeping them in repair. Plank roads, once constructed, require little attention for several years; and from their firmness, and the evenness of their surface, they are a great saving of animal labour, for beasts of burden can draw twice the weight upon them, that they can do on a macadamised road. They are not less adapted to the South, where they are often carried for long distances, and over swampy grounds, where ordinary roads could not be formed except at great expense.

The advantages claimed for them are, that they are cheaply constructed, that they are easily kept in repair, and that cost of carriage on them is small.

The cost of their construction varies from $1,000 to $2,400 per mile, but $1,500 may be considered as an average. This cheapness renders their introduction into the country very general; and the advantages they thus offer farmers and planters in the interior, for sending their produce to market, cannot be over-estimated.

When completed, they require almost no repair for ten or twelve years. The width of the road is sometimes eight feet, and in other cases, with double track, sixteen feet.

Though the introduction of the telegraph into use is of a very recent date, yet it has been already extended over the Union. Its usefulness in a country of such extent, with a widely scattered population, is very evident, and the Americans seem to have discovered its advantages on its first introduction. The commercial and political character of the American people, has brought it into use—in connection with the press—

to an extent that can scarcely be conceived in Europe. As soon as an English steamer arrives at Halifax, or at New York the intelligence she brings from Europe is telegraphed all over the States. New editions of the newspapers are at once issued, and prices of grain at Buffalo and Chicago, of provisions and corn at Cincinnati and St. Louis, and of cotton at New Orleans, are immediately regulated by the European advices. If in any part of the country there be a political or other meeting of importance, an account of its proceedings is conveyed to all the other cities as soon as the meeting is over. When those meetings are on the East coast, the Western citizens frequently have the information, according to their time, before the meeting has been held.

In some of the cities, wires connect one part with another, and are very serviceable in cases of fire.

In 1853, the entire extent of lines in operation was 23,275 miles. Of these, there were on the

Morse System	. . . . .	18,863 miles.
House „	. . . . .	2,400 „
Bain „	. . . . .	2,012 „

In no case are there more than three wires to a line. The cost of construction averages $150 per mile.

The first line was established in 1837, between Baltimore and Washington, at the expense of the government, and at a cost of $30,000. At first it transmitted only seven words per minute, and now, messages are sent at the rate of 200 words in that time.

The greatest distance traversed by a single wire is from New York to New Orleans, being a distance of 1,966 miles.

The newspaper press gives most employment to the telegraph — and it is estimated that it pays it $150,000 per annum.

CHAPTER XIV.

COMMERCE OF THE STATES—SHIPPING—LIMITED LIABILITY IN PARTNERSHIP—IMMIGRATION.

In the preceding pages, I have taken notice of the commerce of some of the leading ports of the Union, but it may not be out of place to give here a few particulars of the entire foreign trade of the Republic, and to show the progress it has made in recent years. This is shown briefly in the following statement:—

Year.	Population.	Tonnage	Imports.	Consumed and on hand.	Consumption per head.	Exports including Specie.	Exports of domestic produce.	Exports per head.
1821	9,960,974	1,298,958	62,585,724	41,283,236	4.14	64,974,382	43,671,894	4.38
1831	13,286,364	1,267,847	103,191,124	83,157,598	6.25	81,310,583	59,218,583	4.46
1841	17,612,507	2,130,744	127,946,177	112,477,096	6.38	121,851,803	103,636,236	5.88
1851	24,250,000	3,772,439	216,224,932	194,526,639	8.02	218,388,011	178,620,138	7.36
1853	25,000,000	4,407,010	267,978,647	250,944,094	10.00	230,452,250	189,869,162	7.59
1854	..	4,802,902	305,780,253	..	..	278,241,064	215,157,504	..

The value of some of the imports was as follows:—

	1844.	1848.	1853.	1854.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Of Woollens . . .	9,408,279	15,061,102	27,439,904	35,204,779
Cottons . . .	13,236,830	17,205,417	26,661,830	34,834,033
Silks	....	17,355,259	33,038,735	37,400,205
Linens	....	....	10,623,891	11,482,236
Hempen Goods	865,427	606,900	479,171	....
Iron & its manufactures . .	2,395,760	7,060,470	27,015,364	28,288,241
Sugar	6,897,245	8,775,223	14,987,776	11,604,656
Hemp unmanufactured . .	261,913	180,335	329,122	335,632
Salt	892,112	1,027,656	1,059,432	1,290,975
Coal	203,681	426,997	490,010	585,926
Wares	....	2,599,546	3,590,175	....
Raw hides and skins . . .	....	4,262,069	5,919,391	....
Spirits	....	1,686,977	4,913,290	....
Tobacco . . .	....	1,778,236	4,175,238	....

Of the imports of 1853, the value of those from

	Dollars.
Great Britain was	130,265,310
France	33,455,942
Cuba	18,585,755
Brazil	14,817,961
Hanse Towns	13,843,455
China	10,573,710
Canada & British American Colonies .	7,550,718
Other countries	38,885,796
	267,978,647

The value of some of the articles exported from this country to America, in 1848 and 1853, was, of

	Duty paid *ad val.*	1848.	1853.
Iron, wrought and unwrought including unwrought steel	30 per cent.	£2,656,207	£6,713,880
Cotton manufactures & yarn	20 „ / 25 „ / 30 „	1,713,024	4,273,464
Linen manufactures	20 „	919,957	2,213,818
Woollen „	25 „ / 30 „	1,731,810	3,756,873
Apparel &c.	20 „ / 30 „	328,705	1,319,197
Tin plates	15 „	364,059	932,429
Silk manufactures	25 „ / 30 „	218,633	559,391
Sundries	..	1,632,514	3,889,375
		£9,564,909	£23,658,427

The exports from the States, of articles of domestic growth and manufacture were

	Dollars. 1849.	Dollars. 1853.	Dollars 1854.
Of produce of the sea	2,547,650	3,279,413	3,044,301
„ forest	5,917,994	7,915,259	11,646,571
„ agriculture	13,153,302	9,570,327	69,502,595
Vegetable food	25,642,362	23,793,388	
Cotton	66,396,967	109,456,404	93,596,220
Tobacco	5,804,207	11,319,319	10,016,046
Cotton goods	4,933,129	8,768,894	26,179,503
Sundry manufactures	7,309,968	15,754,285	
Specie	961,376	23,560,408	38,062,570
	132,666,955	213,417,697	252,047,806

From January 1st to December 31st, the exports of Breadstuffs

			Dollars.
In 1847, were	26,312,431 bushels,	value,	32,183,161
1852,	18,680,686 „	„	14,424,352
1853,	22,379,126 „	„	22,687,200

In 1853, the exports of grain of all kinds from America, were larger than in any previous year, except in 1847. Nearly all this large quantity, was brought to Europe, to supply the deficiency caused by the inferior harvest of that year, and of that quantity by far the larger portion was brought to Great Britain.

In the three years 1847, 1850, and 1853, we received from the United States

	1847.	1850.	1853.
Of Wheat, . . in qrs.	423,819	100,699	713,182
Grain of other kinds „	2,039,853	538,941	234,228
Meal & Flour--Wheat cwts.	4,396,131	1,527,158	3,043,107
Ditto—other kinds „	1,419,532	17,319	15,634
Total Grain & Meal, in qrs.	4,288,239	1,082,755	1,821,484

In those years, the total imports into Great Britain, of all kinds of grain, from all quarters, were,

	Imperial Qrs.				
In 1847..	11,912,864	or	36	per cent from the United States	
1850..	9,019,590		12	„	„ „
1853..	10,173,135		18	„	„ „

thus shewing that the supply of grain from America, is in reality a very moderate portion of our entire imports.

Of the entire exports from the States in 1853, the value of those sent to different countries, was—

	Dollars.
To Great Britain	121,302,271
France	26,571,784
Hanse Towns	8,020,053
Canada & North American Colonies . .	13,140,642
Cuba	6,287,959
Spain	4,604,998
Australia	4,287,002
British West Indies	4,162,608
Brazil	3,994,444
China	3,736,992
Other countries	34,343,497
	230,452,250

The value of the total exports from Great Britain in 1852 and 1853, and the value of those to the United States in the same years, were,

	Total Exports.	Exports to the United States.
In 1852 .	£78,076,854 . . .	£16,567,737 . 21 per cent
1853 .	98,933,781 . . .	23,658,427 . 24 per cent

Of the entire American foreign commerce, about one half is carried on direct to Great Britain; and including our colonies, we receive sixty-three per cent. of the American exports, and supply fifty-three per cent. of her imports.

In 1853, the value of the trade carried on between the two countries, including the colonies of Great Britain, was $288,695,714. I may venture to say, that no other two countries in the world, ever carried on such a gigantic commerce.

While in America, I frequently heard in conversation, and sometimes saw in print, comments upon the "grasping commercial spirit of England." Let us enquire in which of the two countries commercial legislation is the more liberal and enlightened.

On all the imports into the United States from Great Britain, a duty is charged of from twenty to thirty per cent., *ad. val.*, while all the imports into Great Britain from the States may be said to be admitted free, except tobacco, on which a large duty is levied, not for protective purposes, but for revenue. But the cultivation of tobacco is prohibited in Great Britain, and, therefore, the American producer meets no unfair competition in our market.

Often have I been amused at the self-complacent tone used by some American writers, when referring to the commerce existing between the two countries. They inform their readers that Great Britain cannot do without their raw material,—their cotton, grain, provisions, and other articles—

and that, on the other hand, they afford us the best market we have for the sale of our manufactures. We are debtors to them for the supply they send us of raw material, and debtors, also, to them, for buying our manufactures. It would be too much condescension to admit that the obligation is mutual, that in trade there is no favour, and that it is carried on by both nations for the advantage of their respective interests. Happily, the people reason and act with more impartiality and with more common sense.

Be that as it may, it may be asserted that this immense traffic, and the intercourse it promotes, are of the utmost advantage to both countries, and by their extension, the friendly relations existing between them will be strengthened and secured. That this commerce is capable of much extension scarcely admits of a doubt. Our demand for cotton, and other fibrous substances, increases more rapidly than the supply. Our import of breadstuffs and provisions is also increasing on the average of years, while towards our supplies of grain, America contributes but a moderate per centage. On the other hand, as more liberal commercial views prevail among the Americans—and they are spreading widely every year—it will be found that this country can supply them with manufactured goods, at a cheaper rate, and of a better quality than, in the present condition of their country, they can manufacture for themselves. Even those manfacturers who now profit by protection, will find that by the adoption of a liberal policy, capital will be released from branches of industry, profitable now, only because protected, and will be invested in other pursuits, more natural, more profitable to those interested, and more beneficial to the nation at large.

The shipping interests of the States have been very flourishing of late years, and their tonnage has increased more

largely than that of any other country. Compared with that of Great Britain, it was

	United States.	Great Britain exclusive of the colonies.
In 1821 . .	1,298,959 tons	
1841. . .	2,130,744 „	
1849 . .	3,334,015 „	3,096,342 tons
1853. . .	4,407,010 „	3,730,087 „

In the latter year, the tonnage of the States was—

	Tons.
Of Registered vessels employed in foreign trade	2,103,675
Enrolled, employed in coasting trade . . .	2,134,258
„ cod and mackerel fisheries	169,077
	4,407,010

In the same year, the entrances and clearances at all the ports of the United States were—

	ENTRANCES. Tons.	CLEARANCES. Tons.
United States . . .	3,235,522	3,230,590
Foreign	2,057,358	2,047,575
Total	5,292,880	5,278,165

and at all the ports of the United Kingdom*—

	ENTRANCES. Tons.	CLEARANCES. Tons.
British	4,513,207	4,551,498
Foreign	3,284,343	3,032,113
Total	7,797,550	7,583,611

The American exports, being almost entirely of raw produce, are heavy and bulky in proportion to their value, and require a large marine to convey them to foreign and distant markets.

* In 1854 the entrances were 7,899,742 tons, and the clearances 7,870,536 tons.—*Parliamentary Paper.*

The tonnage belonging to each state in 1853, was, to

	Tons.
New York	1,294,462
Massachusets	850,281
Maine	622,426
Pennsylvania	338,734
Maryland	206,086
Louisiana	156,275
Connecticut	132,141
California	104,209
Other States	702,396
	4,407,010

And the number of vessels built in the States in 1853, was—

	No.	Tonnage.
In Maine	350	118,916
New York	289	83,224
Massachusets	205	83,015
Pennsylvania	191	31,539
Maryland	122	16,901
Other States	554	91,977
	1,711	425,572

From the latter statement it will be observed, that Maine is the principal ship-building state in the Union, although many of her ships are afterwards sold to merchants residing in the other states.

While at New Orleans, I found that American ships were in greater favour with merchants, and commanded higher freights than British and Colonial vessels. This information was afterwards confirmed in other parts of the Union.

After some enquiry, I learned that this lower classification arose, in the case of the Colonial ships, from their not being so well built as the American, and because, generally, Colonial and British ships are considered to be indifferently commanded.

Ships sent from England are as well built, and of as good models as those built in the States, and those belonging to the Colonies, are of as good models as American ships, but built of inferior timber, — the timber of Virginia being of better quality for some parts of a vessel, than that grown in Canada. But the great drawback to the British and Colonial ships arises from their being in general commanded by men who are without proper qualifications, and in whose management of the ships, when at sea, shippers have not entire confidence.

American shipowners, out of regard to their own interest, know, that to secure the confidence of merchants, it is necessary that their ships should make as quick passages as is consistent with a due regard to their safety, and that they should deliver their cargoes in good condition. To attain those ends, they must not only provide good ships, but those ships must be under good management, and that again can be obtained only by the employment and liberal payment of men of education and intelligence. Liberal remuneration secures men with proper qualifications, and, therefore, masters of American ships receive incomes varying from 1,500 dollars to 5,000 dollars per annum. These sums are paid either by fixed salary, or part in that manner, and the other part by the primage on the freights. In addition to this, many shipowners in America desire that the masters of their ships should have a share in the ownership of the vessel under their command, and to encourage this arrangement, they frequently advance the money necessary to enable them to make the purchase. So far is this carried that, if I am not misinformed, the captains of the Collins steamers received their appointments on condition that each of them should own a share in the steamer under his command.

This liberal income, which is frequently more than is enjoyed by the captains of our men-of-war, attracts men of education to the American merchant marine service. These men are as much merchants as their employers, and under-

stand their business as well. They engage their own freights, superintend the loading and unloading of their own ships, take care to keep their cargoes in good condition at sea, lose no time in port, and from their skill in navigation, contrive to make quick passages. While, therefore, the owners go to great expense at the outset, the expenditure is economical in the end.

The wages paid to masters of British ships trading between Liverpool and America, vary from £8 to £10 per month! To those sailing to other parts of the world I am not very well informed what is paid, but I believe that the sums mentioned are about what is paid to those trading to European ports, while with those sailing to India, China, and Australia, more liberal engagements may be made. This paltry income is no attraction to men of education and skill. In consequence, many of the best men in the English merchant service find their way into the American, where they receive good encouragement; while the ignorant and the dissipated are alone content with their position. Many of the latter, when they have to take an observation at sea, are entirely ignorant of the nature of the operation, and they seem to find their way from port to port by accident, rather than by skilful sailing. Some of them are drunken and disorderly, and I have known several instances in which they have been taken on board their ships as they were about to go out of port, in a condition very unfit for the discharge of their duties. What can be expected under such management? The ships make long passages,—a loss to their owners—they meet with accidents, cargoes are damaged, and insurance is effected at high rates. The consequence is, that merchants refuse to ship their goods by such vessels, when they can ship them in American bottoms, even at a slightly higher rate of freight.

Of the qualifications of the masters of British ships, no one is better informed than the owners, and therefore they give them no authority except to command the ship when at

sea. At a foreign port the ship is generally consigned to a correspondent, and on her arrival, the authority of the master is at an end. The ship is discharged and again loaded by the orders of the consignee, and not unfrequently, even the articles required for the use of the ship and the crew are purchased under the same direction. The master may give an opinion, but only as it were on sufferance, and it is only when the ship goes out of port that his authority revives.

A few years ago, clipper ships were in high favour in the States, but of late years they have declined in the estimation of owners and merchants, and fewer of them, particularly of a sharp build, are now constructed. This arises from their being more liable to receive injury than other vessels, from their carrying less freight, and from their cargoes being more liable to receive damage.

In severe weather at sea, when under press of sail, their timbers are more liable to be strained, and as this makes them leaky, the cargoes are often much damaged. It is estimated that, on an average, cargoes are thus damaged forty per cent. more than when on a vessel of the ordinary build. On this account, insurance on ship and cargo is generally somewhat higher.

The amount of freight they carry is much less than ordinary ships, and, where of very sharp build, I was informed they could not carry more freight than half that of another ship of ordinary build, of the same tonnage.

These disadvantages, on an ordinary voyage, can scarcely be counterbalanced by any gain in speed. A clipper ship may cross the Atlantic in from three to six days shorter time than a ship of the usual build, but that is not sufficient compensation for the drawbacks just named. The voyages on which they can be employed most advantageously are, those to India, China, California, and Australia; but even to those countries, it is now found to be more generally profitable to send ships of a medium build.

In the States, a law is in operation whereby three-fourths of the crews of all American ships leaving port, must be citizens — native born, or naturalised foreigners. This law is evaded daily, and by almost every shipowner, and it is estimated that not more than a fourth of the crews are citizens. To become naturalised, a foreigner must intimate his intention of becoming a citizen, and afterwards reside five years in the country. Sailors do not however trouble themselves to comply with this regulation, which, probably, they do not understand. At the Custom Houses, therefore, it is customary to grant "protection papers" to any of the sailors, on the representation of the owners of the ships, that they have been five years in the country. Those papers may not be obtained under false pretences — though that is sometimes somewhat doubtful — as merchants are frequently deceived by those who make application for them; but once issued, they are freely transferred from hand to hand, and are often held by men who may not have been two weeks in the country. They are to be bought at the docks of most of the seaports, at the small charge of twenty-five cents and upwards.

The wages of seamen are about $17 or $18 per month.

A very large number—I believe the larger number—of sailors in the American marine service are from Great Britain, but they are ranked as foreigners, and no exceptions are made in their favour. In the British merchant service, American sailors are put on the same footing as Englishmen.

I have already adverted to a term of frequent use among American writers, when referring to English commerce. That term is not used merely by papers like the "Herald," but by others of respectability, and the advocates of liberal views. An editor of one of the New York papers, who used it frequently, admitted to me, after some little bantering, that he knew it was misapplied, but still it was useful for "Buncombe."

To test the fairness of the application of the term, I shall refer to the commercial spirit of the two countries, as seen in

their legislation on commercial subjects, and it will then be seen which is the more "grasping."

In a preceding page, I have contrasted the terms on which England admits into her ports the raw material of the States, with those on which the latter admit our manufactures. In our mercantile marine service, we admit American sailors as natives, but in the American service, Englishmen are received as foreigners. On a little examination it will also be found, that our navigation laws are more liberal than the American.

American ships can trade to England, and to our colonies, on the same footing as our own ships. They can also carry between the colonies and the mother country, or from colony to colony; and now even our coasting trade is thrown open to the enterprise of the owners, and they are at liberty to trade between Liverpool and London, or between any other ports.

In America, there is much more exclusiveness, and not only are our ships prevented from trading between port and port, between New York and Boston, or New Orleans, but also between any of those ports and California, a distance of several thousand miles.

As is very generally known, the law of limited liability in partnership, prevails throughout America. There may be some difference in the details of the law in each state, but in all of them the general principles are the same.

From Mr. Dilke's report, it will be seen that, in the city of New York, there has been an annual increase of the number of partnerships formed on this principle. It may, therefore, be inferred, that the principle is popular, and that it has been found suitable to the exigencies of the country. That it encourages fraud or speculation, there is no reason to believe. Recently, as with ourselves, at intervals, there has been much speculation in railways and land, and much general over-trading in the Union, but I have not heard it stated that injudicious

operations have been encouraged by the state of the law of partnership.

The proposed introduction into this country of a law somewhat similar to what prevails in America, has recently created discussion among commercial men; and, at the present moment, there is every reason to believe, that this consideration of the subject will lead, at an early day, to a modification of the law of partnership, in favour of the principle of limited liability.

The opponents of any change in the law argue that any relaxation or change would encourage fraud, and injure credit; and they also add, that capital is now abundant for all the legitimate purposes of commerce. As the working of the law is quite unknown in this country, it can scarcely be deemed presumptuous, to characterise the first two arguments as mere conjectures.

To argue that the proposed change would favour fraud, is to assume in two words, that mercantile men are all rogues or fools, that one half of them desire to cheat, and that the other half are simple enough to allow themselves to be cheated, that they cannot manage their own affairs—on the one hand without the control, and on the other without the protection of government.

It would be a sorry, though a true reply to this argument, to say, that mercantile men are as honourable in their dealings as any other class. This would be called mere assertion. But it may, perhaps, be admitted, that all honour has not left the trading community, when I state as a fact, that nearly the whole of the trade of Manchester is conducted without written agreement, and that on the Manchester Exchange, purchases are made, to the amount of considerably more than a million sterling per week, without written contract; and yet, the repudiation of any of those transactions is an act quite unknown. Nor is this fair dealing confined to Manchester; for I am not aware that business is conducted there with more honesty than in any other town in the kingdom. Be it

observed, that this fair dealing is not a consequence of any particular law, and let it be granted, for argument's sake, that it proceeds, not from honesty or honour, but from motives of self-interest, those same motives, in any state of the law, would preserve the same integrity among the merchants of the country.

Nor is there a simple class of mercantile men who are always exposing themselves to be cheated, and who, to prevent that, require the protection of the law. Apart altogether from the consideration, I may say the principle, that it is not the duty of government to interfere in mercantile transactions, nor to stipulate the terms on which any two men shall trade with each other, that interference cannot fail to be injurious to all concerned, for every man understands, or ought to understand his own affairs best, and can regulate them as he may think to his own advantage, without the aid of government. Each man may be safely left to the management of his own affairs, for at the worst, if he be incapable, no protection which he can receive from the enactment of stringent commercial laws, will protect him from ruin.

At present, no prudent merchant opens an account with a new customer, without making some previous enquiry as to his character and means. The information he receives is frequently contradictory, and is generally founded on mere surmise, for no one can do more than form an estimate of his neighbour's position, and that estimate is very often erroneous. But in a co-partnery with limited liability, the terms on which the partnership would be formed being publicly registered, the capital of that co-partnery would be known, and credit would be granted upon full information.

Nor can it be argued that such co-partnery would enjoy less credit than another having the same capital, but with unlimited liability. The capital of the one is limited, as advertised, and beyond that amount the monied partner, however rich, is not liable. The capital of the other is limited also by

the extent of the monied partner's means. In the event of insolvency, the creditors of the one are in no better position than those of the other, for what matters it to any of them, in a pecuniary point of view, that in one case the partners are beggared, and that in the other, one, two, or more partners are in that condition, while the monied partner still retains a large capital, which his creditors well knew was never invested in the insolvent co-partnery.

That money is abundant in the country for all legitimate purposes, may be granted. That it is almost too abundant, is evidenced from the large amounts annually remitted to other countries for investment; but, with labour unemployed, and profitable branches of industry neglected, does it not seem probable that there is some obstacle opposed to the employment of that capital at home? Surely it would be better to employ that labour, which, from the lowness of its wages, I believe is plentiful in the rural districts, in improving our system of agriculture,—to mention this branch of industry alone—which it would not be inappropriate to characterise in too many districts, by the term wretched—than to send our hard-earned capital abroad, to be invested in securities which are no securities at all, where probably the interest, and for certain the stock, is never redeemed, to support rotten thrones, and strengthen hateful despotisms, and to maintain people without public spirit, who are often indolent by nature, and sometimes dishonest upon principle. Surely it is our duty to leave no means untried, to give full employment at home to the national capital, and through that to the labour and enterprise of our people. Let us water well our own fields, ere we strive to irrigate those of other and thankless nations.

The relaxation desired in our commercial laws would, in the first place, benefit capitalists, and through them men of ingenuity and skill, and afterwards the working classes. It would enable monied men to distribute their capital among various undertakings, of all of which they would be unable to

take the oversight, but which would be under the management of men in whose discretion and integrity they would have confidence to a reasonable amount, though not as they would be by the present state of the law, to the full extent of their fortunes.

At present, the value of much of the capital of monied men is lost to the country. Its owners cannot employ it in business, and hence it is allowed to accumulate in the hands of bankers, or other capitalists. True enough, the largest portion of those deposits are again loaned out to the industrious and enterprising among our own population, but large sums are annually permitted to go abroad, in search of those investments which, by the laws of the country, the owners are unable to obtain at home.

The tide of immigration continues to flow very steadily into the States. The number of immigrants who arrived at all the ports

In 1851 were	379,828
1852	398,470

(The return for 1852, includes citizens who were returning from Europe and elsewhere.)

In 1853	400,777

Of those who arrived in 1853, there were from

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Ireland . . .	86,232 . . .	76,249 . . .	162,481
Germany	83,510 . . .	57,125 . . .	140,635
England . . .	16,908 . . .	13,445 . . .	30,353
Other Countries .	49,646 . .	17,662 . . .	67,308
	236,296	164,481	400,777

In 1850, the number of inhabitants in the States who had

been born in foreign countries was 2,210,839, and of these there were from

Ireland	961,719
Germany	573,225
England	278,675
British America	147,711
Scotland	70,550
France	54,069
Wales	29,868
Sundries	95,022
	2,210,839

From this large number of immigrants, America derives much advantage, and at the same time, considerable inconvenience. Those from Ireland and Germany perform nearly all the manual and unskilled labour of the country, and in the large cities their services are now almost indispensable. They perform all the drudgery and disagreeable work, which no native American would undertake. On the other hand, they are quite a nuisance in all political affairs. They have almost no interest in their adopted country, and the little they do take is generally of the most selfish kind. The law entitles them to vote at all public elections after a short residence in the country, and their votes they never hesitate to sell to the highest bidder. Where the native parties are pretty equally balanced, their votes frequently carry the day, and hence they have an influence in controlling elections, quite disproportionate to their numbers, and still more so to their intelligence and honesty. In conduct, they are the most disorderly of citizens, and when united, they frequently set the law at defiance. If in any of the large cities there be any public disturbance, they are almost invariably its promoters.

The influence the Irish now exercise is probably at its height, and will gradually decline. The emigration from Ireland has nearly expended itself, unless it receives a new

impulse from some cause or other unforeseen, and therefore the number of Irish in the States is not likely to be much augmented. Besides, the natural increase of the native population will make this element comparatively smaller every year.

The immigration from Germany is more likely to increase, for its present current seems to have arisen from no sudden or momentary stimulus, but is rather the outgoing of a miserably poor people, who are finding their way to a new country, where their labour and ingenuity are in demand, and at a rate of remuneration which, in their native lands, would be deemed quite fabulous.

CHAPTER XV.

TO BUFFALO—ITS COMMERCE—WHEAT TRADE OF THE STATES—PRODUCTIVENESS AND VALUE OF AGRICULTURAL LABOUR—PROFITS OF AGRICULTURE—SEVERITY OF AMERICAN WINTERS—TRADE OF THE LAKES.

On the evening of the 10th of April, I left New York, by railway, for Buffalo, expecting to reach that city early next morning. We were, however, detained by the way, and reached Albany at too late an hour to be able to get forward that night. In an ordinary sized town in England, some commotion would be excited at a hotel by the unexpected arrival in an evening of about 100 guests, but in the large hotels of the States, such an event does not seem to create any inconvenience.

Passing from Albany onward, I was very much amused at the names of many of the towns at which we touched. Shortly after starting, we came to Troy. Thence to Amsterdam. In an hour after, we reached Utica. Thence to Rome, and in close succession, to Syracuse, Canton, Jordan, Lyons, Palmyra, and other towns with names of world-wide reputation. In a few hours we seemed to have had a glance at many of the most celebrated cities in the world.

At this time of the year, there was no indication of the joyful approach of spring. Here and there were thick forests, but the trees were leafless and lifeless. The fields were bare and uninviting, and I sighed for the sight of one green tree,

to remind me of the sweet hedgerows at home. We dashed onwards through the sterility of winter. Patches of snow still lingered in the valleys, and whitened the shady side of the hills, and the rivers we crossed were covered with floating ice.

At Rochester, we stopped for a very few minutes, and could merely get a passing glance at the Falls on the Tennessee River. In any other part of the world, these Falls would be celebrated, and have their pilgrims, but here their reputation is quite secondary, because of their proximity to the Falls of Niagara.

The water-power on this river is unlimited, and that has favoured the growth of the city, and the establishment of extensive flour mills. The population of the city is upwards of 40,000. In this district is grown the finest wheat in the States.

Buffalo is one of those great lake cities which has sprung into existence as it were but yesterday. Its population

In 1820, was	2,095
1830	8,653
1840	18,213
1850	42,261

and now it is estimated to be upwards of 60,000. It is situated at the east end of Lake Erie, on a site rising gradually from the Lake. The streets are straight and open, and intersect each other at right angles. The buildings are generally very substantial looking.

It owes its prosperity to its favourable situation at the east end of Lake Erie, from which it is in easy communication with all the West on both sides of the lakes; but, above all, its prosperity has arisen from its being the inlet to the Erie canal, which unites the lakes with the sea-board at New York.

All the produce of the country on the Lakes, and much of that which is brought to the lakes by canals and railways

from the interior, seek the East coast by this route, and are forwarded by the canal, or by the railways which have their termini at and near this point. The manufactures of the East coast, and the articles imported into the country, are distributed through this channel to the West.

The value of the produce of various kinds received from the West

	Dollars.
In 1851, was	31,889,951
1852	34,943,855
1853	39,115,503

Of those imports, there were in 1853,

			Dollars.
Of Wheat . . .	5,424,043	bushels, value,	6,671,672
Flour	983,837	barrels „	6,394,940
Corn	3,665,793	bushels „	2,199,475
Pork	102,548	lbs. „	1,031,573
Bacon	23,075,645	lbs. „	1,846,051
Cattle . . .	20,466	head „	1,227,960
Live Hogs . .	114,952	head „	1,149,620
Wool . . .	45,830	bales „	3,668,800

In the same year, the entrances and clearances at the port, were—

ARRIVED.	No.	Tonnage.	Men.	Boys.
American vessels from foreign ports . .	132	24,235	1,047	45
Foreign	735	116,236	5,714	360
	867	140,471	6,761	405
CLEARED.				
American vessels to foreign ports . .	152	29,630	1,278	53
Foreign	735	116,266	6,722	358
	887	145,896	8,000	411
COASTING TRADE.				
Inwards	3,239	1,491,605	50,917	1,179
Outwards	3,305	1,475,006	52,434	1,158
	6,544	2,966,611	103,351	2,337
Total . .	8,298	3,252,978	118,112	3,153

In 1825, the whole tonnage on the lakes was only 2,449, and in 1853, at this port alone, there were owned 230 vessels of all kinds—steam and sailing—with a tonnage of 72,968. In that year, thirty vessels were built with a tonnage of 16,159.

In 1853, the exports from Buffalo, by canal alone, were:

			Dollars.
Productions of the Forest .	145,017	tons . . .	2,078,389
Agriculture . .	375,930	„ . . .	18,810,403
Manufactures	8,417	„ . . .	742,878
Merchandise	1,393	„ . . .	166,332
Other Articles	18,061	„ . . .	854,440
	548,818		22,652,442

and the value of the imports by the same channel, was,

			Dollars.
Of the Forest	125,830	tons . . .	334,286
Agriculture	8,844	„	687,014
Manufactures	54,424	„ . . .	3,236,499
Merchandise	176,383	„ . . .	58,936,678
Other Articles	73,305	„ . . .	1,417,625
	438,786		64,612,102

Buffalo, and the cities in that district, touching upon the Erie Lake, may all be considered as tributaries to New York, and as having the same interests. By canal or railway, those cities are united to the East coast, and through them all intercourse and traffic are carried on between the East and West. Through these channels also will now flow much of the produce of Upper Canada; for, though this is not the most direct route to Europe, it is the most convenient, and perhaps the cheapest. As the West, then, increases in population and in wealth, and, as the commerce in agricultural productions, between the New and Old World increases, so also will be the progress of the city of Buffalo.

An impression prevails in Great Britain, that America is a large wheat-producing country, and it is believed that, when

at any time there is a deficiency in our own supply of grain, it can readily be supplemented from across the Atlantic.

In 1849, the entire quantity of wheat produced in America was only 100,485,944 bushels, or about three-fourths of that grown in England, and not much more than half of our annual consumption. It is said that the crop of 1849 was defective, and that the one which followed was fully 120,000,000 bushels. This will not, however, much affect our argument, for, with a white population in the States more numerous than that of England and Wales, even the larger quantity would not seem to be too much for their own consumption.

That in America there is very little wheat to spare for foreign consumption may be still further shewn, from the annual imports from the States into England—not merely in ordinary years, but in years of scarcity—compared with our receipts from other countries. These were—

	All countries.	United States.	
In 1847 . .	4,464,757 qrs.	1,834,142 qrs.	41 per cent.
1848 . .	3,082,230 „	296,102 „	10 „
1849 . .	4,802,475 „	613,601 „	13 „
1850 . .	4,830,263 „	537,030 „	11 „
1851 . .	5,330,412 „	911,855 „	17 „
1852 . .	4,164,603 „	1,231,893 „	30 „
1853 . .	6,235,860 „	1,582,641 „	25 „

or, during seven years, an average of twenty-one per cent of the entire imports was received from the States.

Nor have the exports from the States been largely diverted to other and more profitable markets. Their foreign wheat trade

	EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.
In 1847 was	26,312,431 bushels.	20,364 bushels.
1848	12,764,669 „	369,929 „
1849	12,309,972 „	104,110 „
1850	8,658,982 „	2,693,803 „
1851	13,948,499 „	2,357,492 „
1852	18,680,686 „	2,416,088 „
1853	22,379,126 „	2,892,750 „

Of the exports, besides those to Great Britain, almost the entire quantity was sent to Brazil, British America, the West Indies, and Australia.

In the year 1853, the exports from the States were so large as to clear the markets of all stocks, not merely on the seaboard, but in all parts of the interior to which access could be obtained by railway, canal, or river. In consequence of this bareness of supply for home consumption, prices in the New York and other markets were at a higher point during some part of the summer and autumn of 1854, than they were at the same time in Liverpool, and some shipments were actually made from the latter port, to meet the demand in America.

Indeed, there is some reason to question how far America is a wheat-producing country. By reference to the tables in the appendix, it will be seen in what States wheat is most largely grown. The South and the New England States, do not grow enough for their own consumption—in the South because of the extreme heat, and in the North-East because of the poorness of the soil. Those states, therefore, draw their supplies from some of the others. With the exception of Virginia, it will be seen that by far the largest portion of the wheat produced in the Union, is grown in the States which border on the lakes, and they supplement the production of the other districts.

Since 1850, the greatest increase of cultivation has taken place in Ohio, and that state is now the largest producer of wheat. But there, according to an estimate recently published in Cincinnati, the production per acre is not more than sixteen bushels, and by the Patent Office Reports, it seems to be about fourteen bushels. In other estimates, I have seen the production per acre put down at something less. This is not more than half the average production per acre in England. Whether the smallness of this return on the American fields is due to some peculiarity in the soil, or climate, or to unskilful culture, I cannot say. On the rich virgin soil of the

West, even with the most indifferent tillage, the produce per acre ought to be as large as on the best farms and under the most skilful culture in England.

The production of Indian corn in the States is almost unlimited, and that of oats is also large. The latter may never become an article of large import into this country; but if the former should ever suit the taste of the English people, it could be obtained in the States in any quantity, and from the largeness of its production, at a price which could scarcely ever be affected by any external demand.

I am not aware whether it has been contended that the productiveness of labour in agricultural pursuits in the States, is greater than in this country. From what has just been stated, it will be seen that the produce per acre of wheat, is less in America than with us. It may be argued that, it is owing to unskilful farming that the soil is less fruitful in America than here, and that more land is under tillage, by the same quantity of labour, than would be the case in England. That, however, is more than doubtful; for, with an abundance of animal labour in England, with a much longer season for field occupations, from the mild and uniform temperature of our climate, and without any idleness among our work-people—a feature which forms no part of the English character—it is almost impossible that the quantity of work done per individual, should be less than in America.

If, then, the American soil is less fruitful in the production of wheat, and if labour employed in farming is less productive, it will follow, that agriculture is a less profitable occupation in America than in England.

It may be said that if wheat is not grown in such abundance per acre as in England, other crops, such as corn, yield larger returns. That I admit, for corn yields twice as much per acre as wheat. It is also highly nutritive, and can be largely substituted for the latter, but at all times it commands a much lower price in the market, and at that price it is not

so much more profitable to grow it instead of wheat, that the latter is neglected or permitted to go out of cultivation. The prices of neither are at a ruinously low point in the interior of the country, as many imagine; for I venture to affirm, that on an average, they are not sold at any port on the Ohio, at more than fifteen per cent below the rates current in Liverpool.

Still, though labour in the West, with the less fruitful soil, and the severe winter seasons, may be less productive during the year, it is much more profitable to its owner than in England. In the West there is no rent, and the profits of agricultural pursuits are divided between capital and labour. But, as in the West, there is little capital to employ labour, and as there is still less labour seeking employment, every farmer cultivates his own fields, and therefore, the profits of this branch of industry remain almost entirely as the profits of labour.

Rent in England is a heavy tax on the consumer, but it is not arbitrary so long as our markets are open to the competition of the world. It is merely the difference between that price at which home-grown grain can be brought to market in England, and that at which it can be supplied from a foreign port. It does not, therefore, in any direct manner, press upon the consumer, for its abolition would not reduce the price of grain, so long as the production of the country is insufficient for its consumption. That deficiency must be supplied from abroad, and the price at which that can be done, with a profit to the importer, must determine the price of grain in this country. The abolition, therefore, of rent, would have no effect upon the price to consumers, but would merely transfer into the pockets of the farmers and capitalists the amount that is now received by the landowners. Nor would this change affect the wages of labour, because the relation between capital and labour depends upon other causes.

Indirectly, the abstraction of rent from the land is a burden on the community, for it retains in idleness and

extravagant living, a large number of people who contribute nothing to the general wealth. Landowners themselves, their servants, and the animal labour which they employ, are all consumers of the annual produce of the country, not merely of what is grown in the kingdom, but of what is bought with the fruits of the general industry, and their labour contributes nothing in return.

This burden presses with yet greater—with painful severity in Germany, and the other continental countries, where, in addition to the idleness, extravagance, and dissipation of the upper classes, of which we have some idea in England, thousands of the youth of the country are forced from their pursuits and industrial callings, to serve in the army. This loss is very great; first, by the abstraction of their labour from the national fund; and secondly by the expense of their maintenance, which the nation at large has to defray.

A great hindrance to out-of-door occupation in the Northern states of America, arises from the intense coldness of the winters, and the length of their duration.

To shew the length of an American winter, I may state that the Erie Canal is open for only seven or eight months in the year—from April or May, to November. During the other months, it is obstructed with ice; and yet, Buffalo, the most northerly point on the canal, is in lat. 42° 53′—as far south as the northern part of Spain. At Rochester, in lat. 43° 8′ the minimum temperature in 1850-1 in December, January, and February, was —5°, —1°, 2°, and in the same months the maximum was 56°, 48°, 58°. At Chicago, in lat. 41° 52′, or nearly the same as Oporto, the cold is as severe as at Rochester. At Fort Wilkins, in Michigan, in lat. 47½°, the average temperature in December, 1845, at 9 a.m., was 19° 6′; in January, 1846, —25° 3′; and in February, 18° 53′. The lowest point in December was 4° below zero; in January, 2°; and in February, 9° below.

On the East coast, in the same latitude, the temperature is quite as low. In New England, in the middle of April, I saw patches of snow all over the country; and at Montreal, in lat. 45½°, the country on April 17th, was covered with snow some depth, which had fallen during the winter, and on that day I crossed the St. Lawrence river at that city on ice. At Boston, at the end of April, there was no appearance of spring.

This severity of the winter arises from the physical conditions of the country. In those low latitudes, the heat of summer is intense, but from the thickness of the forests in some parts, and the closeness of the herbage in others, the earth receives but little of the sun's rays, and does not acquire warmth sufficient to temper the cold air of winter. Large tracts also of the country are swampy, and therefore retain no heat, and the immense surface of fresh water lakes, constantly giving off currents of cold air, keeps the temperature cool even in the summer months. In winter these chilling influences are very severe. To all these causes add that one arising from the immense tracts of land, uninterrupted by seas, extending under the frigid zone, over which the cold northerly winds of winter sweep to the South, carrying snow and ice in their train, sometimes even to the Gulf of Mexico,—a latitude which in any other part of the world would be well nigh tropical.

The culture of the land, the removal of the forests, and the drainage of the soil, will do much to temper the atmosphere, but still, a great drawback, which no efforts of man will be able even to modify, will proceed from the coldness of the lakes, and that of the sterile regions beyond. This will prevent the colonisation of nearly all the country above 50°—a latitude as low as the most southerly point of England.

A short time ago, a very elaborate and valuable Report on the Trade of the Lakes was published under the authority of the American government, from which I venture to make a few extracts.

In the year 1851, the trade of the lakes was as follows *

	Exports.	Imports.	Enrolled Tons.	Entrncs. Tons.	Clearncs. Tons.
Vermont .... Vt. / Champlain....N. Y.	20,858,426	3,455,194	3,932 / 4,208	197,500	197,500
Oswegatchie .... „	918,587	2,424,145	2,561	351,427	359,287
Cape Vincent .. „	— —	— —	2,496	439,930	439,930
Sackett'sHarbour„	303,258	497,809	7,106	348,436	347,393
Oswego.....„	11,471,071	6,083,036	26,323	721,383	685,793
Genessee.....„	— —	— —	686	212,794	212,794
Niagara .....„	433,634	236,684	606	425,660	425,660
Buffalo.....„	50,674,975	37,472,108	46,058	1,536,089	1,551,441
Presque Isle....Pa.	1,601,857	2,207,582	8,210	316,121	314,640
Cuyahoga ....Ohio	12,026,497	22,804,159	36,071	775,720	755,690
Sandusky .....„	6,459,659	15,985,357	4,858	509,782	504,633
Miami .....„	7,847,808	22,987,772	3,236	418,892	419,942
Detroit .....Mich.	6,961,430	20,416,377	40,419	905,640	920,690
Mackinac .....„	2,000,000	3,000,000	3,156	253,600	253,600
Milwaukie....Wis.	4,564,797	19,560,713	2,946	1,250,000	1,250,000
Chicago ..... Il.	5,895,471	25,325,052	23,103	806,432	807,353
	132,017,470	182,455,988	215,975	9,469,586	9,456,346
Canadian or Foreign Trade.....	8,207,750	3,912,147	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..
	140,225,220	186,368,135	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..

* The measurements of the Lakes are as follows :—

	Greatest length. Miles.	Greatest breadth. Miles.	Mean depth. Feet.	Elevation. Feet.	Area. Square Miles.
Superior	355	160	900	627	32,000
Michigan	320	100	900	578	22,000
Huron	260	160	900	574	20,400
Erie	240	80	84	565	9,600
Ontario	180	35	500	232	6,300
Champlain	110	14			

It is estimated that the first five drain an area of 335,515 square miles, the waters of which are all discharged into the ocean by the St. Lawrence.

This shews that the entire value of the lake commerce in 1851, was $326,593,335. But this statement must be taken with considerable qualification, otherwise it will give a very exaggerated idea of its importance.

The imports into any of the cities named, are generally the same articles which are exported, diminished to a small extent by the quantities consumed. For example, the imports into Chicago consist of the agricultural productions of the surrounding country, and of the merchandise brought from the East coast. The exports consist of the same articles—the produce being sent Eastward, and the merchandise distributed to the interior.

Nor is this all. Nearly all the exports from the lake cities west of Buffalo, consisting of country produce—for that is the staple product of those regions—find an outlet to the East coast by Buffalo, and the cities near. The exports therefore from the Western cities form the imports at Buffalo, for the exports from each city being of the same character, they are scarcely ever shipped to each other, but all towards the Atlantic.

As, therefore, the imports of each city are valued a second time as exports, and the exports of the Western cities, when entered at Buffalo, again valued as imports, and yet again valued as exports when forwarded to the East coast by canal or railway, it follows that most of the articles which form the trade of the lakes, are enumerated four times, and therefore, that the total value of the lake trade cannot be at all near to the amount stated above.

To estimate its true value by the trade of Buffalo alone, the port through which the great portion of the Western trade passes on its route to the East and West, would also lead to error, because from each city there is exported, not the entire amount of the imports, but only what is not consumed by its own population. This is shewn by the value of the imports generally exceeding that of the exports.

Perhaps no unfair estimate would be formed by taking the whole amount of the imports at the different ports, less the imports at Buffalo. The latter is merely a port of entry for the other cities, and therefore its imports ought to be deducted from the general amount. This would leave upwards of $140,000,000, a sum which I think is still above the true value of the lake trade, in the year under review.

The details which are given above of the trade of those Western cities, refer to the year 1851, but since that time, the great progress made in opening up the West has had a marked influence on their commerce; and their exports and imports have shewn a large annual increase.

Of those cities, none have made so much progress as Chicago. Indeed, great as has been the progress of many cities in the States, none have grown with such astonishing rapidity as this. In 1832, it was a mere trading village, with a few log houses, and a population of about 100 people, Its population, and the value of the real and personal estate.

	POPULATION.	REAL AND PERSONAL ESTATE.
		Dollars.
In 1840 were . . .	4,853	1,864,205
1845	12,088	3,669,124
1850	29,963	7,220,249
1853	60,662	16,841,831

With this rate of increase, the inhabitants are scarcely satisfied, and they aspire to make their city one of the first in the Union. Its success is owing to its favourable situation and to the enterprise of its first inhabitants, who, discovering its natural advantages, turned them to good account.

By the lakes, it has access to the East, and to the Canadas, and by canals and railways it touches most of the important points in the interior, and draws agricultural produce to its

port to be re-shipped to the East coast. The value of its commerce

	IMPORTS. Dollars.	EXPORTS. Dollars.
In 1836 was . . .	235,204 . . .	1,001
1840	562,106 . . .	228,636
1850	6,500,000 . . .	5,500,000
1853	17,000,000 . . .	15,000,000
1854	30,000,000 . . .	24,703,191

As this is merely a point for distribution, imports and exports represent nearly the same articles. The imports are mostly the agricultural produce of the interior, and the exports are the same articles forwarded to the East coast. In 1854, the shipments among other articles were

Of Wheat	2,946,924	bushels.
Corn	6,745,588	„
Oats	4,024,216	„
Rye		
Barley		
Lumber	252,508,530	feet
Shingle	120,000,000	No.
Lath	36,827,323	pieces.

And in 1853, upwards of 24,000,000 lbs. of provisions were packed in the city. In the year 1852, 1,996 vessels arrived at the port, with a tonnage of 545,491.

From Buffalo to Niagara is only an hour's ride by railway. All visitors to the States flock to the Falls, and whatever may be their first impressions, none leave with disappointment. The scene is beyond all description, and no account can give even the most distant conception of its terrific and overpowering grandeur.

CHAPTER XVI.

BUFFALO TO MONTREAL—BOSTON—ITS COMMERCE—EDUCATION.

From Buffalo, or Niagara, it was impossible at this time of the year to reach Montreal, by the lake, on account of the ice. I had therefore to return to Schenectady, and thence proceed north by railway. By this route there was very little detention, and in less than a day we reached Rouse's Point. Here we remained all night, at a large hotel, which, projecting into Lake Champlain, is surrounded on three sides by water. The lake is deep enough at this point to permit steamers to approach the platform of the hotel. Next morning, we reached the banks of the St. Lawrence before noon.

The river opposite Montreal is about two miles broad, but at this time was quite frozen over, and had to be crossed in sleighs. About a mile above the point at which we had to cross, the ice had begun to give way, and as there is at all times a stong current opposite the city, there arose some little speculation among the passengers, whether the pressure of the broken ice, added to the natural current of the river, did not render our crossing somewhat dangerous. The guides assured us of perfect safety, and as there was no other way of crossing, we had no alternative but to make the venture. Should any one go down, there was a chance of the

rest of us following, and there was some consolation in knowing that we should be drowned in company. The sleigh drivers, who are all French Canadians, had ropes tied round the necks of their horses, to secure them in the event of their going through the ice. These ropes serve a two-fold purpose. When an accident occurs, they are used to choke the animals to prevent them from struggling in the water, and then they are employed to pull them from under the ice. Fortunately there was no need at this time to shew the usefulness of the precaution. The sleighs were soon filled with the passengers and their baggage, and amid cracking of whips, tinkling of bells, and exclamations in French, we were carried rapidly over the ice, exposed to a bitterly cold north-east wind, and in half-an-hour we found ourselves safe in the city of Montreal.

The farther north we had come from Schenectady, the more numerous were the indications of winter. At first, patches of snow lay in the more sheltered valleys. These gradually became more general, till, when we neared the river, the whole country was enveloped in white. The streets of Montreal were half blocked up with ice and snow, and the inhabitants still wore their furs, double coats, and other warm winter dresses.

On the 17th April, I left Montreal for the South, and again crossed the river in a sleigh, but this time nearly a mile below the city, for the ice had now begun to give way. I afterwards learned that it broke up towards the end of the month, although the navigation of the river, out to the ocean, was not very safe till towards the beginning of June.

In going southwards, we had a severe storm, and at Rutland the snow was three or four inches deep. From Rutland we went forward early next morning, and in a few hours arrived in the city of Boston.

Boston is built on a very irregular surface, and having

been at first laid out without any regard to order, most of its streets are crooked and very narrow. From this, perhaps, it has obtained the reputation of being like an English city.

The Bostonians have often been said by English travellers to have much resemblance to Englishmen. That resemblance I confess I did not perceive, neither in personal appearance, in manners, nor in coversation. They may lead a quieter and more domestic life than the inhabitants of New York, but in that respect alone do they seem to have a greater resemblance to Englishmen.

The population of the city

In 1800 was	24,937
1830	61,392
1840	93,383
1850	136,881

and its commerce was, in the years

	IMPORTS. Dollars.	AMERICAN. Dollars.	FOREIGN. Dollars.
1840 . .	14,122,258 .	13,517,031 .	605,227
1853 . .	43,317,379 .	26,177,320 .	17,140,059
1854 . .	46,480,444		

A considerable part of the imports is of dry goods from Europe, but the larger portion is of raw material for the consumption of the manufactories in the state. The total value of the exports in 1854, was $20,256,917.

The shipping belonging to the city in 1853, was 450,493 tons, and in that year, the arrivals and clearances at the port, were,

	ENTERED. No.	Tons.	CLEARED. No.	Tons.
Of foreign vessels . .	2,090	294,521 .	2,112	314,700
American „ . . .	906	287,969 .	950	275,755
	2,996	582,490	3,062	590,455
Against in 1844 . . .	1,897	288,988	1,814	257,163

The situation of Boston is not nearly so favourable to a large foreign trade as New York. The one is merely the

port of the New England States, and more immediately of Massachusets. The other is the port of the first state in the Union, and, from its river, canal, and railway communications, it is the port of the West. Boston has now also joined herself by railways to the West and North, but her distance from them being greater, her rates of carriage more expensive, and her harbour less suitable, she is unable to compete successfully with her great rival.

If, however, she makes less progress as a commercial emporium than New York, she maintains a prominent position as a mercantile city. Her merchants carry on large foreign operations, on their own capital, and that of the city, through New York and other cities of the Union, while only the profits on the transactions are received in Boston. Thus, a large portion of the trade to Europe, to India, California, and Australia, is conducted by Boston merchants, though the returns of produce and manufactures of various kinds may be entered at the port of New York, and sold there on account of the owners. This indicates the enterprise of the Boston merchants, and at the same time shows that New York is the best distributing city in the Union.

The merchants of Boston have not a field wide enough for the development of their enterprise and skill, in the legitimate trade of their own city, and in that which belongs to the backlying country, of which their port is the outlet. They are therefore driven into other commercial undertakings, in which their capital, skill, and foresight, can be made available; and hence, they conduct more than their share of the foreign, and what might be called the speculative or venturesome commerce of the country. This is the branch of commerce which requires the highest qualifications of a merchant. In the same manner, and for the same reasons, one of our own cities conducts a much larger portion of the foreign commerce of the United Kingdom, than is her share. That city is Glasgow, by the enterprise, skill, and capital of whose mer-

chants it is well known that much of the foreign commerce at the ports of Liverpool and London is carried on.

The assessed value of property in Boston,

	Dollars.
In 1843, was	110,046,000
1853, ...	206,514,200

The income of the city in the latter year, was $2,053,058, and its expenditure, $1,808,851, Of the expenditure, some of the items were

	Dollars.
For Schools	329,800
City debt and interest	389,132
Police	126,116
Streets (paving and lighting) . .	336,983
Fire department	74,760

In proportion to the population of the city, I think it will be admitted that these amounts are considerable.

In making liberal provision for the education of the people, Boston stands pre-eminent. In no other part of the Union has the Public School System received more careful attention, and in no other place have its fruits been so satisfactory. In Boston that system has received its greatest development, in the conception of wise regulations, and in their efficient administration; and hence it has been popular, not only in the district and in the New England States, but it has been imitated, more or less, all over the country.

Compliance with its rules is, however, not voluntary, for all children in the city must attend some school—public or private—whatever be the circumstances of their parents. To enforce this regulation there are four officers in the city, whose duty is to see that no children of proper age neglect their attendance at school. Any boys seen idling on the streets, during school-hours, are taken home, and if it is found that they do not attend some school or other, from the indifference of their parents, from the want of means, or from any other

cause, compulsory measures are employed to secure their attendance. I was informed that at the present time, perhaps 100 idle children may be taken off the streets in the course of a year.

Under such active and skilful management, it is only natural to expect that the system should be successful, and that the whole native population should be more or less instructed in the various branches of education taught in the schools.

Whether this system, however, favours the formation or development of the character of the individual, is a different question, and one on which there is much diversity of opinion. On the principle, which daily becomes more and more recognised, that the duty of the government of a country is to protect the citizens, and not to aid them, that the subject cannot do too much for himself, and the State too little, a national system of education can scarcely be advocated.

The American system has been discussed in this country during the last few years with considerable minuteness, and at some length. To make any remarks on it, therefore, would be a superfluous task; for every one desiring information respecting the American schools, can acquire it without difficulty, in the numerous writings which have been published on the subject.

The system has been viewed with much favour in this country, and many of its warmest admirers desire to make it the model of a national system for ourselves. To accomplish that, however, or indeed to introduce any national scheme into this country, will be a matter of much difficulty; for, with the contending claims of Churchmen, Dissenters, Voluntaries, and Secularists, it is doubtful whether any scheme can be devised to which a majority of the people will give their assent. Each party urges the adoption of its own plan, and as it would seem, cares less for the success of popular education, than for the success of its own hobby, and opposes all kinds

of obstructions to every proposal, which does not quite agree with the views of its own members.

The adoption of any general scheme, so far as the instruction of the people in the mere elements of education is concerned, would be very successful in all cities, because there public opinion and the press would correct all abuses, and compel modifications of the plans and arrangements to suit the public wants. In the country, again, the results would be less satisfactory; for there, the management of the schools would inevitably fall into the hands of the squire and the parson; and they, as they would consider themselves in duty bound, would be more inclined to inculcate the church creed, than christianity, and to teach churchism and deference to the claims of hereditary, if not apostolic authority, rather than to enlighten the understandings of the multitude, or to raise them in general intelligence.

Those who desire the introduction of the Massachusets system into England, claim for its working in America more credit than I think is its due. That the people of that state are instructed in the elements of education is one thing. That this is entirely owing to the National School System is another. Most of them may have received their education at those schools, but other causes may have favoured the influence of the schools, if indeed those causes have not produced their popularity and prosperity. Have the schools created a desire for education throughout the country, or has that desire been created by other causes, and has the establishment, or at all events the success of the schools followed, as the means of meeting a natural want? That other causes have been, and are in existence, producing a desire for instruction, I shall here endeavour to show.

Those causes are, the material well being of the people, and the almost entire absence of pauperism; the unlimited field for the employment of industry, calling out all the energies and talents of the people; the education of the early settlers

in the country, continued downwards through their families; the cheapness, and consequent abundance of newspaper literature, and the political privileges, or rather rights, enjoyed by all.

In America, the working classes have been much better off than they have been in England, till within the last few years. In every branch of industry, employment has been plentiful, and remuneration liberal. That, with abundant and cheap food, has at all times placed them in easy circumstances, and has enabled them to dispense with the assistance derived from the labour of their children. This abundance of employment has prevented poverty, and no one has lived on the charity of the public, except the sickly and the aged.

I am aware that an annual immigration goes on into the States, of people who are poor and wretchedly ignorant. But these, entering among an intelligent people, gradually, though slowly, make some progress towards the intelligence they see around them. The mere fact of their having emigrated, presumes that they had some desire to improve their condition. Besides, a very small portion of the lowest emigrants remain north of New York. Those who remain, are mostly artisans and skilled labourers.

Above the easy circumstances of the people, however, I would place the political privileges they enjoy, as the greatest stimulus to intelligence, and to the acquisition of general information. This influence is again developed and strengthened by the cheapness of the newspaper literature of the country.

In all political affairs—national or local—every man has a voice directly or indirectly. He is one of the "sovereign people," from whom all power emanates. The consciousness of this position, encourages a degree of self-respect, highly favourable to intelligence, and to the aspiration after an improved position in the country, or it may be to public office. Such a position is quite open to the well-directed efforts

of any man, who has education to qualify him for the discharge of its duties, and who has income sufficient to give him leisure to prosecute his plans.

But, even if such high inducements are not of general application—for it is well known that high office is attained by but few out of the multitude—still, with public affairs daily discussed by his associates, it is impossible that any man can avoid acquiring much information, and having a strong desire to remove any defect that may exist in his own education or that of his family.

To meet this constant craving after information on national affairs, newspapers are abundant and cheap. Not a village of any size is without one, and in all large towns they are numerous, with every facility given for their circulation. With numerous readers, and an abundance of advertisements, their price is very low. For two cents, and in some cases for even less, every man can have his daily paper, containing the latest and fullest information on all political and commercial subjects in which he is interested.

In England, the circumstances of the mass of the people have been very different, and, till within recent years, they laboured under many disadvantages. By the operation of the iniquitous corn laws, the price of food was unduly raised. The same cause limited the extent of our foreign markets, and restricted in other countries the consumption of our manufactures. Labour, therefore, was frequently unemployed, and at all times ill paid. With small wages and dear food, there was not the means, and often scarcely the desire, for mental culture. The children of the poor were neglected, or as soon as their labour could be of any value, they were pressed into work, that the wages of their industry might augment the common fund of the family.

But privation and poverty were not the end of the warfare of the poor. Many of them were reduced to actual want, and pauperism overspread the country to an extent that was

quite appalling. Much of this pauperism was the growth of recent years, though in some families it had become hereditary.* This demoralised the minds of all under its influence, and familiarised them with a degree of misery from which they had neither the means nor the will to extricate themselves. That pauperism is now happily diminished, but it is only by the prosperity of the last few years that this improvement has taken place.

But this is the very class of people for whom a national system of education would be desirable. The better class of artizans, who are generally well paid, do not lack the means, if they have the desire, of informing themselves or of educating their children. If they have no desire for either, they would scarcely accept gratuitous instruction, even if within their reach, unless upon compulsion.

In England, though literature is published at lower prices than in America, it is not so with newspapers. Our journals are burdened with a duty upon paper, and with a stamp upon news; and with a consequent limitation of their circulation, their price is two or three times more than in America. The abolition of those restrictions would cheapen all daily publications, increase their circulation, and be highly promotive of public intelligence.

An extension of the political privileges of the people will come in due time, and will do more good by the self-respect it will create among the people, and by the intelligence it will encourage, than by any improvement it can or will effect on National Legislation.

With these differences in the circumstances of the people of the two countries, it is very questionable whether the system that is suitable for America, would be applicable to England. Here, the people are daily becoming more and more able to provide for their own instruction, and that of their

* I am informed that there are some inmates in the Manchester Poor House whose families have been traced back as paupers to the time of Charles the First.

children; and to secure progress, if not success, nothing almost is now wanting but the *will*. Even that is gaining strength, and with the present agitation on the subject, and the little aid now given by government (which even its own friends in some instances do not desire to see continued longer than is absolutely necessary to make a beginning), education, when once fairly introduced among the people, will prosper of its own accord; and, though at first less perfect systems will be followed, than if under government inspection, yet they will do more than any government plan to create self-reliance among the people, and to develope national individuality of character.

CHAPTER XVII.

LOWELL—COTTON AND WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES OF THE STATES—COST OF PROTECTION—AMERICAN COTTON MANUFACTURES COMPARED WITH ENGLISH—WAGES—MACHINERY—JOINT STOCK ASSOCIATIONS—PRIVATE ENTERPRISE IN ENGLAND—ENGLISH AND AMERICAN COMPETITION IN NEUTRAL MARKETS—INDUCEMENTS TO EMIGRANTS—STRIKES AMONG WORKMEN.

When at Boston, through the kindness of a friend, I received permission to go over some of the factories at Lowell. It is well known that this is the first manufacturing town in the States. Others, having the same industrial pursuits, have recently sprung into existence, but none of them has made so much progress. Its population

In 1828, was	3,532
1850, ...	33,383
1853, ...	38,000

In 1853, there were fifty-one establishments in the town, which were thus distributed

35 Cotton works consuming 706,000 lbs. cotton per week.
5 Woollen „ 99,000 „ wool „
4 Dye Works
1 Bleach Work
2 Print Works
4 Machine Shops

The capital invested in these works was $13,900,000. 349,998 spindles, and 10,915 looms were at work, and the number of people employed was 4,507 males, and 8,473 females.

There was nothing in the machinery or the general appearance of the works, beyond what is seen in a factory in any part of Great Britain, to attract the special notice of a casual observer, or of one not practically acquainted with manufactures. In one point they were well worth attention. That was in their extreme cleanliness.

In the early stages of these manufactures, the females employed were all from the country—the daughters of farmers and others, who came hither, for a year or two, that they might earn a little money to assist them in setting up house in their own rural districts. Their education and respectability diffused a high tone of intelligence and morality among the working population. Now, the half of the workers are Irish, and by their introduction, I learned that the former high tone has been somewhat lowered, and that the reputation of the employment has suffered considerably in the estimation of those whose daughters, under more favourable circumstances, would have become workers in the place.

The time for work is eleven hours per day,—Saturdays included. The average wages are—for females, $2 per week, clear of board; and for males, clear of board, eighty cents per day.

The workers, whose families live in the town, of course reside at home; but for those who are strangers, and require to live in lodgings, large boarding houses are provided, where each female is charged $1¼ per week. For this sum they are provided with meals, the use of a large common sitting-room, and bed-rooms between every two. Similar accommodation is provided for males, who are charged from $2 to $2½ per week.

The following were the particulars of the cotton manufactures of the States in 1850

Capital invested	74,501,031	Dollars
Cotton consumed	641,240	Bales
Value of raw material	34,835,056	Dollars
Value of entire products	61,869,184	Dollars
Males employed	33,150	
Females employed	59,136	

Since that time there has been a gradual increase in the consumption of cotton, and in 1853, it amounted in the North to 609,899 bales; and it was estimated in the South to amount to 105,000 bales.

It will be observed from the foregoing statement, that the value of the raw material consumed in 1850, was upwards of $50 per bale, and that the value of the products was nearly double that of the raw material. Since that time the market price of cotton has advanced by at least twenty to thirty per cent.; but if we adhere to the prices current in 1850, it will follow that the value of the cotton consumed in 1853, must have been about $37,500,000, and the value of the products about $70,000,000.

The duty levied on cotton goods imported into the States is from twenty-five to thirty per cent. *ad val.*—say twenty-five per cent. for the sake of argument—and therefore it follows that home-made goods are that per centage dearer; for, as already argued, the price of all articles is determined by that at which those last brought to market can be sold with a profit. In the absence, then, of that duty, the price of home-made manufactures would fall in proportion; because, if now, British cotton goods paying that duty, besides additional heavy expenses, can be sold in America with a profit to the importer, without that duty, they could be sold that much lower, and the native manufacturer would be compelled to reduce his prices to the same point. But twenty-five per cent on the

original cost of foreign goods, is equivalent to twenty per cent. on that cost with duty added. That per centage, therefore, on the value of the manufactured products of cotton, say on $70,000,000, would amount to $14,000,000. This sum, therefore, is the amount which I estimate the States paid, in 1853, for protection to native industry in this branch of manufacture.

The following particulars of the woollen manufactures of the States, in 1850, I have taken from the census:—

Capital invested	28,118,650	dollars
Wool consumed	70,862,829	lbs.
Value of raw products	25,755,988	dollars
„ entire products	43,207,555	dollars
Males employed	22,678	
Females „	16,574	

Since that time the woollen trade has much increased, but of that increase I am not aware whether any reliable estimate has been formed.

The duty on woollen goods is from twenty-five to thirty per cent. *ad val.*, and on raw wool it is thirty per cent. *ad val.* But the quantity of wool imported is small compared with that consumed, and being of a quality different from that produced in the States, the duty may not have much effect on the general price. But if it has any effect, then the existence of that duty is a great injustice to the home manufacturer, and it places him at a disadvantage in competing with foreigners, who have no such duty to pay on their raw material, but only twenty-five per cent. on the finished goods on their importation into the States. Nor is that injustice limited to the difference between twenty-five and thirty per cent.; but, as the home manufacturer pays on his raw material, he pays on what goes to waste, as well as on what is made into goods, and the enhanced price of his raw material requires the employment of a larger capital in his business than would be otherwise necessary.

In either case the duty tells against the consumers, and

enhances to them the cost of the manufactured goods. Applying to this branch of industry the argument already applied to the cotton trade, it will be found that twenty per cent. on $43,000,000, the value of the products of the woollen manufactures in 1850, is equal to $8,600,000. This, then, was the amount paid in 1850, for protection to this branch of native industry, and since that period, as already stated, it has considerably increased.

I think it will scarcely be denied that the prosperity of the manufacturing interests of America is well cared for, and this protection says much for the liberality, or for the simplicity of the consumers. That this ignorance of the true interests of the nation should continue to prevail in America, among the people who claim to be the "cutest" in the world, certainly affords matter for much surprise; for I imagine, that in Old England, with all its abuses, fancied and real, such partial legislation would not be permitted to exist for a single year.

On four branches of industry to which I have now referred, the amounts paid annually for protection were

		Dollars.	
On Sugar in	1854	6,328,000	See page 89
Iron	1853	3,600,000	„ 127
Cotton	1853	14,000,000	„ 213
Wool	1850	8,600,000	See above.
		32,528,000	

To this list I might add coals, on which, for protective purposes, the country pays an annual sum, not less than four million of dollars. Other industrial pursuits are also protected; and in consequence, their products are sold at enhanced prices, for the sole benefit of a few, at the expense of the many, and at a loss to the nation. A considerable number of influential men in the country are interested in some one or other of those branches of manufacture, and of course profit by the protective system now in operation. Hence they readily assent to the same system when applied in favour of

other industrial undertakings. This extension of the protective principle adds to the national burdens, of which of course they bear a share; but it gives security at the same time to their own favoured interest. A case in point came under my own observation. While at New York, I met a Pennsylvania iron manufacturer who was a strenuous advocate for the abolition of slavery. On shewing him the encouragement it received from the protection granted to the sugar growers of the South, he said he could not urge the withdrawal of that protection, as he feared that it might afterwards be proposed to abolish the protective duty under which his own interest prospered.

I apprehend that a clearer view of their own interests will shortly determine the American people to adopt a more liberal policy, and to abolish the present restrictions upon the commerce of the country. They cannot fail to discover, before long, that to them as well as to other nations applies the maxim, that it is best to "buy in the cheapest, and sell in the dearest market." By the abolition of all restrictions, the capital of the country would find ample fields for investment, in which it would be profitable to its owners, without being so at the expense of other branches of industry in the country.

It may be presumed, from the amount of protection afforded to manufacturers of cotton in the States, that that branch of industry is highly profitable. What it may be in private undertakings I cannot say; but at Lowell, in 1853, the dividends on the Joint Stock Associations varied from six to twelve per cent. This is not more than the average rate of interest current in the country; and is not so much, I venture to believe, as was made in factories in England in the same year. That those dividends are not larger, is the more surprising; because, though the amount of protection is nominally twenty-five per cent., in reality it is nearer fifty.

This difference arises from the cost of freight to and from England, commissions for purchasing for the States,

expenses of packing, charges for loading and unloading at the different points in course of transit, and insurance and other charges incidental to transactions passing through a number of hands.

How, then, do manufacturers in the States, with these advantages, make such small profits? In America I was frequently told, that it was a consequence of the cheapness of our "pauper labour."

This is a matter easily ascertained, and therefore I annex the rates of wages paid in America, and those current in England, not for cotton manufacturers only, but for other branches of industry.

The average paid in Lowell for females is $2 per week, or $3¼ without board. For males, $4.80 with board, or $7 without. This is for eleven hours per day, or sixty-six hours per week. In England, for ten hours per day, or sixty per week, females receive from 9s. to 12s. The wages of males are very variable, and therefore I shall give them in some detail, for both countries; premising that, of the American lists, one was drawn up by a manufacturer at Holyoke, and the other by a merchant in Philadelphia, who, at the time the list was written, was employing that class of workmen whose wages he quotes. I believe that the rates given in the latter list are higher than those current in New England. The other lists I received from two of the leading manufacturing houses in Blackburn and Stockport. The wages paid in Manchester I do not quote, fearing that they might be above the average of the district.

	Holyoke.	Philadelphia.	Blackburn.		Stockport.	
	Dollars	Dollars.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Card Room Overseer . .	9	—	28	0	32	6
Spinners	7½	—	21	0	23	0
Dressers	9¾	—	35	0	30	0
Weavers—females 3 looms .	4	—	14	0	14	6
Mechanics	—	10½	27	0	26	0
Joiners	—	9	27	0	26	0
Blacksmiths	—	9	28	0	26	0
Stone Masons	—	10½	28	6	——	
Bricklayers	—	12	30	0	——	

It will be seen from this, that the wages of female labour are not much higher in the States, than in England. Those for males are considerably higher, probably in consequence of the great outlet for their labour in the agricultural pursuits of the West.

But even were labour in America as cheap as in England, indeed were it given without remuneration, manufacturers in the States would still be unable to produce goods at a cost which would enable them to compete on terms of equality with goods sent from this country.

The greater cost of producing cotton goods in America arises from other causes. These are: the higher cost of machinery, its general inferiority, the comparatively imperfect adaptation of one department of manufactures to another, the scarcity and dearness of capital, and the expensive and inefficient management of Joint Stock Associations.

In another place I have stated, that machinery in America is fully seventy-five per cent. dearer than in England. This I have stated upon the authority of a Manchester machinist; and, from the protective duty levied on iron imported into the States, and the higher price at which it is sold there, this would seem to be a very reasonable conclusion.

That the American-made machinery is not so good as English, and therefore less fitted for doing much work, is also a statement made principally upon the testimony of others. But in its confirmation, I may state, that it was often admitted to myself in America, that the machinery in the American ocean steamers is not all equal to that in English vessels, and yet I apprehend that neither labour nor skill was spared to make it as near perfect as possible. Again, I learned at Lowell, that the speed at which the looms are driven, is very much less than in England. The reason assigned was, that the English looms are stronger and work more smoothly, —in other words, they are superior. And again, I observe, from the Lowell Annual Statement, that, with the good raw material used in the factories of that place, with the strong

fabrics which are there woven, the production per loom in a day of eleven hours, is considerably less than in Stockport in a day of ten hours. I believe it will be denied that American machinery is inferior to that used in this country, and by men competent to offer an opinion; but the best test by which we can judge of the comparative value of any two machines—better than the opinion of any one—is the amount of work each can turn off in a given time, without being damaged in the operation.

In America, from the youth as it were of the cotton manufacture, there is not yet that harmony between the different industrial departments, which is found to exist in this country. With us, it has been a consequence of the gradual growth of our manufactures, of the long period they have been in existence, and of their being nearly confined to one district. In England, when a new cotton mill is about to be erected, it is probable that the owner will find every article of machinery he intends to purchase, if not in his own town, at all events in his own locality, and one part is easily fitted up or adapted to suit another. In the States, there are no districts in which a manufacturer can be so easily or so well supplied. Some articles have to be brought from a distance,—it may be from several districts—and when brought to the place where wanted, they may occasionally be unsuitable for the purpose for which they are intended. While, therefore, the Americans have made most wonderful progress in manufactures, it will require a few more years of enterprise and experience to enable them to establish, in the various departments, that mutual dependance and adaptation, which we see in Lancashire.

That capital is very much more scarce and dearer in America than in England, requires no proof. Nor does it require to be shewn, that when capital is dear, cost is enhanced, and enterprise is restricted. By this scarcity of capital, the Americans have been compelled to resort to Joint Stock Associations, to carry on many of their manufacturing under-

takings, as the only means whereby sufficient funds could be raised for that purpose.

It is very generally admitted that Joint Stock Associations cannot carry on undertakings of any kind so successfully as private individuals. Their transactions are in general conducted with less promptitude and skill, and their management is invariably more expensive. To these remarks the American Associations form no exception, and more especially do they apply to that point which relates to the expensiveness of their management.

Some of the shares in the Lowell manufactories are owned among the workers—a very gratifying feature in the working of the Associations, and also in the character of the workers. A larger number are held by those who occupy the higher appointments at the works, and others belong to merchants in Boston and New York, who receive commissions from the Associations for their services in purchasing raw material, or in selling the manufactured goods. Thus, the influence obtained by those parties as shareholders, enables them to command a considerable share of the business of the Associations, with liberal commissions for their services.

While therefore it is the desire of the shareholders generally, to receive a large dividend on the amount of their capitals, it is the interest of a considerable number of them—the managing partners as it were — to obtain as much by way of salary or commission as in their power; and their position as shareholders enables them to some extent to carry out their plans, and thus add much to the general expenses of the Association. At the same time, no salary or commission will ever induce a merchant or manufacturer to apply himself to the management of his business with that heartiness, energy, and skill, which would be done by the interest of ownership; and therefore, the management of these Associations is to that extent defective.

Contrast this expensive management with that of a factory

in Lancashire. The spinner or manufacturer buys his own cotton in Liverpool, paying a brokerage of only one-half per cent. He superintends its spinning and manufacture, and then disposes of the production on the Manchester Exchange. In this process none of his time is lost, and no expense is incurred. In half a day he will buy as much cotton as will last him for one, two, or four weeks, and in as short a time, he will sell his production for as long a period. The rest of his time can be employed in the management of his mill.

With those advantages in favour of England—advantages which it will require years to supersede—whatever may be the restrictions on the importation of cotton goods into the American markets, manufacturers of this country have no reason to fear successful competition in the neutral and independent markets of the world.

Frequently have I heard here, and in America, that in the Mediterranean, in India and in China, American cotton manufactures are now competing with those of Great Britain, and even the Indian authorities have taken the unnecessary trouble of drawing the attention of the Manchester merchants to the competition with which they are thus threatened. After what has been already said, it would be almost a superfluous task to reply to this observation. When at Boston, I enquired at some China merchants as to the nature of their operations to that market, and the same enquiries were made subsequently in England, at merchants trading to the countries named. Their replies agreed. The statement of the Boston merchants was to this effect.

"When we order tea from China, it is a consideration how we can at least expense, and with most convenience, place funds there for its payment. Two plans present themselves. To send out silver or to send out goods. If we buy silver, we require to pay for it at once, but goods we buy at nine months credit, and by the expiry of that time we have our return cargo, to meet our engagements. In any case, we

lose by our remittance of silver or goods, but we charge the consumers of the tea an extra price, to enable us to realise a profit on the entire transaction."

The shipments to the Mediterranean are for the purchase of dry fruits, wines, silks, and other articles. Those to India, are for the purchase of bills on China, and these again are exchanged for tea and silk goods.

The shipments are composed of manufactured goods, tobacco, ice, "Yankee notions," and other articles. The value of the entire exports of manufactured goods, to those countries in 1853, was—

	Dollars.
Spain, Portugal, Italy, Austria, Turkey, Malta, and Gibraltar	123,200
India, and the Cape of Good Hope	295,380
China	2,831,359
Total	3,249,939

If the Americans could undersell our manufacturers in China, which the comparative largeness of their exports thither may lead some to suppose, it may be inferred they could also compete with us in other markets. The smallness of their exports to the other countries just mentioned would indicate that this branch of their commerce is not very profitable.

As an exchange for the productions of the Mediterranean which they require, they send tobacco, cotton, and other articles. From India they import little, and hence their exports to that quarter are small, but from China they require tea—an article of necessity in America, as here—and for its purchase, silver or manufactured cotton goods must be sent, as no other articles of their production or manufacture can be sold in that market.

With the difference which has been shewn to exist between the wages of labour in England and America, it may be supposed that there is considerable inducement for the working

classes in this country to emigrate. That inducement is not however so great as it appears at first sight; for, though the wages paid are more liberal, yet with longer hours of employment, with all kinds of clothing fifty per cent. higher than in England, with groceries quite as dear, and with grain and animal food not ten per cent. cheaper, it may not unfairly be questioned whether there is the inducement to emigrate which is frequently assumed.

In the West, I believe that liberal wages are paid to joiners, blacksmiths, and other artizans, who can manufacture articles for home use. I am not aware, however, whether the rate of agricultural wages is large—indeed I doubt if the profits on agriculture permit a farmer to employ other labour than his own. This, I was told by a farmer, is the case in Lower Canada, in the immediate neighbourhood of the Montreal market.

I learned at Lowell, that when any misunderstanding occurs between the owners of factories and the operatives, it is generally arranged in favour of the latter. This arises from two causes. From the scarcity of capital in the country, the employers are unable to hold out against their workers; and they therefore yield, if any sort of reasonable compromise can be made. Again, from the scarcity of labour, workmen can almost always command their own terms. If one employer cannot agree to their demands, another is prepared to make them an offer, and if that is not suitable, there are numerous outlets for the employment of their labour in other pursuits.

Strikes, therefore, are not unknown in the States. Indeed they are by no means of unfrequent occurrence, though they may be of short duration, and terminated in the manner stated. During my stay in New Orleans, the workmen on the *levée* demanded an advance of wages at two different times in about four weeks, and each time their demand was complied with. Raw produce was arriving in quantity, labour was

consequently in demand, and of course commanded its own terms.

When in New York in spring, there was a strike among the tailors of the city, and all of them suspended labour. The number said to be idle was about 4,000. At the time I left the country, they had not resumed work. To other strikes I might refer, but they did not come under my own observation. These were, at the collieries, among the servants in the hotels, and in other places where numbers of people were employed.

Indeed, the numerous Associations which are organized in the Northern states, and the influence of demagogues and mob orators among the mass of the people, particularly on all political subjects, would lead me to infer that there are more combinations among the working classes, and more general agitation on questions which may seem to affect their interests, than are ever known in this country.

CHAPTER XVIII.

LABOUR IN AMERICA LESS PRODUCTIVE THAN IN ENGLAND — AMERICAN MANUFACTURES—PRODUCTIVENESS OF AGRICULTURE IN ENGLAND AND IN AMERICA—INCREASE OF CAPITAL IN THE UNITED STATES—INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS—BOSTON TO LIVERPOOL.

On a review of the immediate foregoing pages, and of the remarks which have been made on some of the other industrial pursuits of the country, I arrive at the conviction that labour is less productive in America than in England, and therefore that in proportion to the labour employed in each country, the gross annual income of America is comparatively less than that of Great Britain.

This conviction rests upon the following grounds. It has been shewn that the cotton, woollen, and iron manufactures of the States are now profitable to those interested in them, solely by a protective duty levied upon the foreign imports of the same articles. The same remark may be made about other manufacturing branches to which I have not drawn attention, because the rate of profit on one branch of industry generally measures or determines the profit on other branches; for capital flows from one to the other, always seeking that which is most profitable, and forsaking that which is least. In the same class I include sugar, which is also grown with a profit to the cultivator, only

because protected by a custom duty. Those branches of industry, therefore, maintained only by protection—only by the consumers paying for their productions more than their value,—are a loss to the nation, and the labour employed in them contributes nothing to the general wealth of the country.

I have also shown from American documents, that the production per acre of wheat is less than in England. Corn and other produce are grown in larger quantities per acre, but at lower prices, and this larger quantity per acre at the lower price, is not a more profitable crop than wheat, otherwise the latter would go out of cultivation, or be reduced in quantity, till its price would rise to a point that would make it as profitable as other crops. Besides, as already stated in reference to manufactures, the rate of profit on one branch of industry determines that upon all others, and therefore it may be assumed, that the profits on the cultivation of wheat are a fair test of the profits on the other agricultural pursuits in the regions where wheat is grown. For reasons already assigned, I do not think that a labourer in America, does or can cultivate a larger surface than in England.

From these premises, I venture to argue that labour in the North, employed in manufactures and agriculture, produces a smaller result per annum, than the same quantity of labour in England. In the South, the value of the productions of cotton, rice, and tobacco, cannot be directly compared with the value of English crops, because they are totally different in kind. But as I have shown that in the North, corn is grown at a less profit than wheat is with us, and as it is also grown in the South in large quantities, I infer that it is not much, if any less profitable as a crop, than any of the Southern products, and therefore the conclusions arrived at with respect to the value of the Northern crops will also hold good with respect to those of the South.

I shall put this in another point of view. The cotton crop

is confessedly the most profitable one in the South. On an average the growth per acre is 250 lbs. clean cotton, and this at 10 cents is equal to $25. In England, the average production per acre of wheat is upwards of thirty bushels—say four quarters—and this at 50s. per quarter, is equal to £10. or about $50. This is quite a confirmation of the soundness of the argument stated above.

To this smaller annual productiveness of America, let there be added, that the people live much more extravagantly than in England, that they live more expensively, and consume a larger portion of their income, and it will follow that the annual savings of the country—the annual addition to the national capital—is much less than in England.

On the other hand, out of the entire American population, a greater number may be employed in industrial pursuits than in England. In the Northern states labour is held in honour, and every one is engaged in some occupation or calling. There, character and mind command that position, which in England is too often assumed by birth and gentility. In the slave states labour is held in less repute, and many of the white population contribute little—even by the direction of labour—to the common fund of the nation.

In England, there is a large class of idlers who live on their rents and fixed incomes,—mere consumers of the fruits of the industry of others—and they retain a still larger number of people as dependents and servants, whose labour is wholly unproductive.

While, therefore, the annual income per head of those engaged in labours and the annual national savings are less in America than in England, it would be very much more difficult to say with any degree of confidence, in which of the two countries there is the greater ratio of increase of the national capital.

I cannot close these remarks, without adverting to the

existence, in some parts of the States, of a feeling somewhat adverse to this country, and of a jealousy of the influence of our government. This feeling is but partial, and is most observable among a certain class of newspaper writers and politicians. Not a few of the American people believe that a similar feeling prevails on our side, and that alone may help to keep up a degree of antagonism between the two nations.

Several causes serve to maintain this feeling among the Americans. Among others may be noted, the belief that we undervalue their position and power, and that we contest their claim to equality with ourselves. An impression that we desire to interfere with the Southern slave institutions, by the encouragement of agitation here and elsewhere; and a fear that our Government will oppose the forcible annexation of Cuba. Some mortification is also created among them by the occasionally severe strictures of our public writers on American affairs. Those strictures are the more keenly felt, that, throughout the States, there is much anxiety to obtain the notice and favourable criticism of the people of this country. Indeed, moderate commendation from our writers, is much more valued than the fulsome applause of their own. The Irish immigrants are generally hostile to this country, and they have influence among certain writers and politicians, who, to obtain a little popularity, or rather notoriety, will readily join in any cry against Great Britain.

This feeling of irritation,—a result principally of ignorance and misapprehension, but yet founded on the respect entertained towards this country,—I was gratified to learn, is rapidly dying out, and the sentiments now entertained towards England, are very much more friendly than they were a few years ago. This satisfactory change has arisen from the large and growing intercourse between the two countries during the last few years, the increase of our commercial relations, and the better knowledge each nation has of the other.

At the present moment, no two nations in the world have stronger reasons to maintain the most intimate relations, than the United States and Great Britain. Their commercial transactions with each other are on a scale of unprecedented magnitude, and the benefits which result are mutual. Indeed, this commerce is of the utmost importance to the internal peace, progress, and prosperity of both.

Nor is this all. The American people are practical. Society with them is yet unsettled, and full of excitement. Their minds are yet occupied with the material interests of their country, and with the development of its immense resources. This attention to practical affairs quickens their perceptive faculties, and enables them to effect improvements in matters with which, with our more conservative habits, we should be almost inclined to be content. Some of these improvements we see in mechanics, ship-building, and other industrial pursuits.

On the other hand, the almost exclusive attention which is paid in America to the material interests of the country, the eager pursuit of wealth, and the excitement and agitation arising from politics, deprive the people of all leisure for thought. Their perceptions are quickened, but their reflective faculties are neglected and weakened; and if I mistake not, the habits of one generation have a tendency to become constitutional, or a part of the character of the next. With these acquired habits, then, with this gradual change of character, and without a class with hereditary wealth, enabling it to devote its leisure to self-culture and refinement, or to encourage those studies in others, the American people will have to rely to a large extent on the older nations of the world for instruction in many of the higher departments of knowledge. They will teach us many practical truths, and it may be, solve many of the problems of every-day life, but in most of the higher branches of human learning, in science, art, literature, philosophy, and

general mental culture, they will look to Europe, for generations to come, for their purest models, and for their best instructors.

With these numerous ties to bind the two nations together, and with the yet additional ones arising from blood, language, and laws, and the interest which both feel in the cause of humanity and civilization, we have every reason to expect an enlargement of intercourse, an increase of respect and confidence, and a growing intimacy between the two peoples.

On the 26th of April I left Boston for England in the Cunard steamer the "America."

The pleasurable emotions natural to one setting his face homewards were in this instance largely tempered with regret, at separating from many kind friends. All of them were known to me as it were but yesterday, and yet their kindness was incessant and full of cordiality. To all of my countrymen who desire to know the American people, I would say, go and see them at home, in their own country; and I venture to believe, that no one who is unprejudiced, will return without being gratified with the consideration he will receive, simply because an inhabitant of the Old Country.

In about thirty-six hours after leaving Boston we were off Halifax, where we had to remain for more than a day in a dense fog. This was no agreeable detention for those of us who were impatient to reach home. Once again at sea, our ship made rapid progress, although still through a thick fog. The passengers however had no apprehensions, except from icebergs on the eastern banks of Newfoundland. On the morning of the 3rd of May when we came on deck, the captain told us that during the night he had passed within a few yards of a large berg. The fog was then very thick, and the berg could not be seen until close alongside the paddle-box. On the same day we saw several others, but no fields of ice. On the following day we were out in the ocean, and free from danger.

There was very little sea-sickness among the passengers, and that disappeared on the first or second day. Afterwards, it was gratifying to observe the desire manifested by every one to be agreeable, and to contribute to the general amusement. The cordial morning salutation, the pleasure with which favourable intelligence of the ship's progress was given and received, the ready anecdote at table, and the glee with which it was enjoyed, were all indications of the general good humour.

The ship's first officer told me that when the officers of the Cunard Company's ships travel in the States, or in the Canadas, the railway companies generally frank them, no matter to what distance; and when they live at any hotel, where they are known, no charge is made. When in harbour at New York, or Boston, if there be any public exhibition, or any unusual performance at the theatres, concert halls, or any other public place, they are generally presented with tickets.

From the 4th to the 8th of May, the wind blew a gale from the north-west. Our canvass was unfurled, and we were carried forward under full sail. The sea was rough, and was running at the rate of 30 miles an hour, but being in our favour, it aided the speed of our vessel, and helped us towards home.

On the evening of the 8th, we had the first glimpse of the light on Cape Clear, now and again dipping in the waves, and shortly afterwards we saw the coast of Ireland. Only those who have been at sea can understand the joy with which the first sight of land is greeted by the homeward-bound. Next morning, we were running along the south-east coast of Ireland. At noon, the coast of South Wales came in sight, and in the afternoon, we were off Holyhead. The channel was studded with ships, freighted with merchandise to and from all parts of the world. In the evening, we came within sight of Liverpool, and, before midnight, we rejoiced to touch, once more, the shores of "merrie England."

APPENDIX.

STATES.	AREA.	POPULATION.			
	Square Miles	White.	Free Coloured.	Slaves.	Total.
Maine	35,000	581,813	1,356	.....	583,16
New Hampshire	8,030	317,456	520	....	317,97
Vermont	8,000	313,402	718	....	314,12
Massachusets	7,250	985,450	9,064	....	994,51
Rhode Island	1,200	143,875	3,670	....	147,54
Connecticut	4,750	363,099	7,693	....	370,79
New York	46,000	3,048,325	49,069	....	3,097,39
New Jersey	6,851	465,509	23,810	236	489,55
Pennsylvania	47,000	2,258,160	53,626	....	2,311,78
Delaware	2,120	71,169	18,073	2,290	91,53
Maryland	11,000	417,943	74,723	90,368	583,03
District of Columbia	50	37,941	10,059	3,687	51,68
Virginia	61,352	894,800	54,333	472,528	1,421,66
North Carolina	45,500	553,028	27,463	288,548	869,03
South Carolina	28,000	274,563	8,960	384,984	668,50
Georgia	58,000	521,572	2,931	381,682	906,18
Florida	59,268	47,203	932	39,310	87,44
Alabama	50,722	426,514	2,265	342,844	771,63
Mississippi	47,151	295,718	930	309,878	606,52
Louisiana	41,346	255,491	17,462	244,809	517,76
Texas	325,520	154,034	397	58,161	212,59
Arkansas	52,198	162,189	608	47,100	209,88
Tennessee	44,000	756,836	6,422	239,459	1,002,71
Kentucky	37,680	761,413	10,011	210,981	982,40
Missouri	65,037	592,004	2,618	87,422	682,04
Illinois	55,409	846,034	5,436	....	851,47
Indiana	33,809	977,154	11,262	....	988,41
Ohio	39,964	1,955,050	25,279	....	1,980,32
Michigan	56,243	395,071	2,583	....	397,62
Wisconsin	53,924	304,756	635	....	305,39
Iowa	50,914	191,881	333	....	192,21
California	188,982	91,635	962	....	92,59
Minnesota Territory	141,839	6,038	39	....	6,07
New Mexico Territory	210,774	61,525	22	....	61,54
Oregon Territory	341,463	13,087	207	....	13,29
Utah Territory	187,923	11,330	24	26	11,38
	2,454,269	19,553,068	434,495	3,204,313	23,191,87

ncrease in 0 years.	ACRES OF LAND IN FARMS. Improved.	Unimproved.	VALUE. Cash Value of Farms.	Value of Live Stock.	VALUE. Real & Personal Estate.
			DOLLARS.	DOLLARS.	DOLLARS.
16.22	2,039,596	2,515,797	54,861,748	9,705,726	122,777,571
11.73	2,251,488	1,140,926	55,245,997	8,871,901	103,652,835
7.59	2,601,409	1,524,413	63,367,227	12,643,228	92,205,049
34.81	2,133,436	1,222,576	109,076,347	9,647,710	573,342,286
35.57	356,487	197,451	17,070,802	1,532,637	80,508,794
19.62	1,768,178	615,701	72,726,422	7,467,490	155,707,980
27.52	12,408,964	6,710,120	554,546,642	73,570,499	1,080,309,216
31.14	1,767,991	984,955	120,237,511	10,679,291	200,000,000
34.09	8,628,619	6,294,728	407,876,099	41,500,053	722,486,120
17.22	580,862	375,282	18,880,031	1,849,281	21,062,556
24.04	2,797,905	1,836,445	87,178,545	7,997,634	219,217,364
18.24	16,267	11,187	1,730,460	71,643	14,018,874
14.67	10,360,135	15,792.176	216,401,543	33,656,659	430,701,082
15.35	5,453,975	15,543,008	67,891,766	17,717,647	226,800,472
12.47	4,072,651	12,145,049	82,431,684	15,060,015	288,257,694
31.07	6,378,479	16,442,900	95,753,445	25,728,416	335,425,714
60.52	349,049	1,246,240	6,323,109	2,880,058	22,862,270
30.62	4,435,614	7,702,067	64,323,224	21,690,112	228,204,332
61.46	3,444,358	7,046,061	54,738,634	19,403,662	228,951,130
46.92	1,590,025	3,399,018	75,814,398	11,152.275	233,998,764
...	643,976	10,852,363	16,550,008	10,412,927	52,740,473
115.12	781,530	1,816,684	15,265,245	6,647,969	39,841,025
20.92	5,175,173	13,808,849	97,851,212	29,978,016	201,246,686
25.98	5,968,270	10,981,478	155,021,262	29,661,436	301,628,456
77.75	2,938,425	6,794,245	63,225,543	19,887,580	137,247,707
78.81	5,039,545	6,997,867	96,133,290	24,209,258	156,265,006
44.11	5,046,543	7,746,879	126,385,173	22,478,555	202,650,264
30.33	9,851,493	8,146,000	358,758,603	44,121,741	504,726,120
87.34	1,929,110	2,454,780	51,872,446	8,008,734	59,787,255
386.88	1,045,499	1,931,159	28,528,563	4,897,385	42,056,595
315.85	824,682	1,911,382	16,657,567	3,689,275	23,714,638
...	32,454	3,861,531	3,874,041	3,351,058	22,161,872
...	5,035	23,846	161,948	92,859	.....
...	166,201	124,370	1,653,922	1,494,629	5,174,471
...	132,857	299,951	2,849,170	1,876,189	5,063,474
...	16,333	30,516	311,799	546,968	986,083
35.87	113,032,614	180,528,000	3,271,575,426	544,180,516	7,135,780,228

STATES.	PRODUCTIONS OF AGR			
	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Oats.	Rice.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Lbs.
Maine	296,259	1,750,056	2,181,037	....
New Hampshire	185,658	1,573,670	973,381	....
Vermont	535,955	2,032,396	2,307,734	....
Massachusets	31,311	2,345,490	1,165,146	....
Rhode Island	49	539,201	215,232	....
Connecticut	41,762	1,935,043	1,258,738	....
New York	13,121,498	17,858,400	26,552,814	....
New Jersey	1,601,190	8,759,704	3,378,063	....
Pennsylvania	15,367,691	19,835,214	21,538,156	....
Delaware	482,511	3,145,542	604,518	....
Maryland	4,494,680	10,749,858	2,242,151	....
District of Columbia	17,370	65,230	8,134	....
Virginia	11,212,616	35,254,319	10,179,144	17,154
North Carolina	2,130,102	27,941,051	4,052,078	5,465,868
South Carolina	1,066,277	16,271,454	2,322,155	159,930,613
Georgia	1,088,534	30,080,099	3,820,044	38,950,691
Florida	1,027	1,996,809	66,586	1,075,090
Alabama	294,044	28,754,048	2,965,696	2,312,252
Mississippi	137,990	22,446,552	1,503,288	2,719,850
Louisiana	417	10,266,373	89,637	4,425,345
Texas	41,729	6,028,876	199,017	88,203
Arkansas	199,639	8,893,939	656,183	63,179
Tennessee	1,619,386	52,276,223	7,703,086	258,854
Kentucky	2,142,822	58,672,591	8,201,311	5,688
Missouri	2,981,652	36,214,537	5,278,079	700
Illinois	9,414,575	57,646,984	10,087,241	....
Indiana	6,214,458	52,964,363	5,655,014	....
Ohio	14,487,351	59,078,695	13,472,742	....
Michigan	4,925,889	5,641,420	2,866,056	....
Wisconsin	4,286,131	1,988,979	3,414,672	....
Iowa	1,530,581	8,656,799	1,524,345	....
California	17,328	12,236	....	....
Minnesota Territory	1,401	16,725	30,582	....
New Mexico Territory	196,516	365,411	5	....
Oregon Territory	211,943	2,918	61,214	....
Utah Territory	107,702	9,899	10,900	....
	100,485,944	592,071,104	146,584,179	215,313,49

ULTURE.			COTTON MANUFACTURES.			
Tobacco.	Guinea Cotton Bales, 400 lbs each.	Wool.	Capital Invested.	Bales of Cotton.	Value of Raw Materl.	Value of entire products.
Lbs.		Lbs.	Dollars.		Dollars.	Dollars.
....	....	1,364,034	3,329,700	31,531	1,573,110	2,596,356
50	....	1,108,476	10,950,500	83,026	4,839,429	8,830,619
....	....	3,400,717	202,500	2,243	114,415	196,100
138,246	....	585,136	28,455,630	223,607	11,289,309	19,712,461
....	....	129,692	6,675,000	50,713	3,484,579	6,447,120
1,267,624	....	497,454	4,219,100	39,483	2,500,062	4,257,522
83,189	....	10,071,301	4,176,920	37,778	1,985,973	3,591,989
310	....	375,396	1,483.500	14,437	666,645	1,109,524
912,651	....	4,481,570	4,528,925	44,162	3,152,530	5,322,262
....	....	57,768	460,100	4,730	312,068	538,439
21,407,497	....	477,438	2,236,000	23,325	1,165,579	2,120,504
7,800	....	525	85,000	960	67,000	100,000
56,803,227	3,947	2,860,765	1,908,900	17,785	828,375	1,486,384
11,984,786	73,845	970,738	1,058,800	13,617	531,903	831,342
74,285	300,901	487,233	857,200	9,929	295,971	748,338
423,924	499,091	990,019	1,736,156	20,230	900,419	2,135,044
998,614	45,131	23,247	80,000	600	30,000	49,920
164,990	564,429	657,118	651,900	5,208	237,081	382,260
49,960	484,292	559,619	38,000	430	21,500	30,500
26,878	178,737	109,897	....	....	....	....
66,897	58,072	131,917	....	....	....	....
218,936	65,344	182,595	16,500	170	8,975	16,637
20,148,932	194,532	1,364,378	669,600	6,411	297,500	510,624
55,501,196	758	2,297,433	259,000	3,760	180,907	273,439
17,113,784	....	1,627,164	102,000	2,160	86,446	142,900
841,394	....	2,150,113	....	....	....	....
1.044,620	14	2,610,287	43,000	675	28,220	44,200
10,454,449	....	10,196,371	297,000	4,270	237,060	394,700
1,245	....	2,043,283	....	....	....	....
1,268	....	253,963	....	....	....	....
6,041	....	373,898	....	....	....	....
1,000	....	5,520	....	....	....	....
....	....	85	....	....	....	....
8,467	....	32,901	....	....	....	....
325	....	29,686	....	....	....	....
70	....	9,222	....	....	....	....
99,752,655	2,469,093	52,516,959	74,501,031	641,240	34,835,056	61,869,184

STATES.	WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.			
	Capital invested.	Wool Used.	Value of Raw Material.	Value of entire Products.
	DOLLARS.	LBS.	DOLLARS.	DOLLARS.
Maine	467,600	1,438,434	495,940	753,30
New Hampshire	2,437,700	3,604,103	1,267,329	2,127,74
Vermont	886,300	2,328,100	830,684	1,579,16
Massachusets	9,089,342	22,229,952	8,671,671	12,770,56
Rhode Island	1,013,000	4,103,370	1,463,900	2,381,82
Connecticut	3,773,950	9,414,100	3,325,709	6,465,21
New York	4,459,370	12,538,786	3,838,292	7,030,60
New Jersey	494,274	1,510,289	548,367	1,164,44
Pennsylvania	3,005,064	7,560,379	3,282,718	5,321,86
Delaware	148,500	393,000	204,172	251,01
Maryland	244,000	430,300	165,568	295,14
District of Columbia	700	5,000	1,630	2,40
Virginia	392,640	1,554,110	488,899	841,01
North Carolina	18,000	30,000	13,950	23,75
South Carolina	....	....	....	....
Georgia	68,000	153,816	30,392	87,75
Florida	....	....	....	....
Alabama	....	....	....	....
Mississippi	....	....	....	....
Louisiana	....	....	....	....
Texas	8,000	30,000	10,000	15,00
Arkansas	....	....	....	....
Tennessee	10,900	6,200	1,675	6,31
Kentucky	249,820	673,900	205,287	318,81
Missouri	20,000	80,000	16,000	56,00
Illinois	154,500	396,964	115,367	206,57
Indiana	171,545	413,350	120,486	205,80
Ohio	870,220	1,657,726	578,423	1,111,02
Michigan	94,000	162,250	43,402	90,24
Wisconsin	31,225	134,200	32,630	87,99
Iowa	10,000	14,500	3,500	13,00
California	....	....	....	....
Minnesota Territory	....	....	....	....
New Mexico Territory	....	....	....	....
Oregon Territory	....	....	....	....
Utah Territory	....	....	....	....
	28,118,650	70,862,829	25,755,988	43,207,55

OF 1850.

IRON MANUFACTURES.			RAILWAYS IN 1854.			
Capital invested.	Value of Raw Material.	Value of entire Products.	No. of Railways.	No. of Miles in operation.	No. of Miles in course of constructn.	Cost.
DOLLARS.	DOLLARS.	DOLLARS.				DOLLARS.
364,100	127,509	301,616	12	456	50	15,325,656
238,700	187,560	388,110	16	512	34	15,860,940
357,920	266,972	692,817	7	410	59	17,698,835
2,578,350	1,464,839	2,959,078	39	1,293	36	59,167,781
636,800	370,017	951,105	1	50	....	2,614,484
1,335,900	999,374	2,064,560	12	638	51	25,224,191
6,358,782	3,553,109	7,943,868	32	2,664	801	110,908,469
2,577,093	954,705	1,876,247	11	437	....	13,840,030
19,613,415	11,593,285	20,329,301	69	1,992	1,406	85,935,675
388,500	173,352	322,462	2	16	43	600,000
2,559,750	1,259,426	2,512,831	2	512	30	2,654,338
14,000	18,100	41,696	...	....	....	....
1,776,171	1,046,769	2,451,335	24	845	1,104	16,666,250
139,500	64,355	92,347	5	381	243	6,847,213
185,700	29,128	87,683	10	692	382	13,447,093
70,200	....	118,884	16	930	452	16,884,872
....	....	....	2	54	....	250,000
230,125	111,855	301,126	6	221	659	3,986,208
100,000	50,370	117,400	7	239	755	4 540,000
255,000	75,300	312,500	8	169	293	1,731,000
16,000	8,400	55,000	1	...	72	....
....	....	....	...	....	....	....
1,915,950	730,551	1,611,043	12	517	946	10,436,610
1,602,900	736,485	1,648,053	10	228	572	6,179,072
848,100	254,990	719,795	6	50	963	1,000,000
325,400	187,830	511,385	31	2,767	1,456	57,663,656
171,900	95,743	219,190	39	1,453	2,608	30,255,362
4,187,450	2,434,320	5,401,392	47	2,997	1,631	67,798,201
210,450	105,865	300,697	3	568	150	20,070,397
131,350	95,180	243,195	11	322	707	6,500,000
5,500	2,524	8,500	4	155	1,235	2,700,000
5,000	8,530	20,740	...	....	....	....
....	....	.....	...	....	....	....
....	....	....	...	....	....	....
....	....	....	...	.....	....	....
....	....	....	...	....	....	....
49,258,006	27,049,753	54,604,006	445	21,528	16,738	616,766,333

ERRATA.

Page 8,	line 5.—	For *is* favourable	read *are* favourable.
9	1	*has* been	*have* been.
25	3	*is* to be	*are* to be.
28	28	*is* much	*are* much.
42	17	the *north*	the *mouth*.
45	5	*was* a few	*were* a few
45	26	*in* the Atlantic	*on* the Atlantic.
51	20	there *is*	there *are*
74	12	there *has* been	there *have* been
79	15	*five* years	*four* years
81	31	2,469,093	2,464,374
81	32	1,975,274	1,971,499
94	2	slave *trade*	slave *labour*
140	10	4,207,21	4,207,217
155	19	taking up *of* their	taking up their
160	26	800 miles	8000 miles.
193	32	—25° 3′	25° 3′.
217	28	not all	not *at* all.

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